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臺灣政論節目中的政治意識型態之社會語用學研究

Political Ideology in Taiwan Political Talk Shows: a Sociopragmatic Analysis

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POLITICAL IDEOLOGY IN TAIWAN POLITICAL TALK SHOWS:
A SOCIOPRAGMATIC ANALYSIS

BY

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國立政治大學研究所碩士論文題要

研究所別：語言學研究所

論文名稱：臺灣政論節目中的政治意識型態之社會語用學研究

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論文提要內容：(共一冊，26,816 字，分五章十八節)

本論文藉由檢視臺灣政論節目中所使用的語用策略(直接或間接)、語言行為類別、及語言行為目的，探討政治意識型態對於語言行為產生的影響。本研究以 Grice (1975) 的合作原則與 Searle (1969) 的語言行為理論作為分析框架，並以 Leech (1983) 的禮貌原則解釋語用策略及語言行為在不同政論節目中的分布差異。

本研究從臺灣主流的政論節目當中，政治光譜兩極的政論節目「大話新聞」(泛綠)與「2100 全民開講」(泛藍)採集語料；並以 Searle (1965 年) 的語言行為理論進行分析，總共識別 12 類直接語言行為和 26 類間接語言行為。

研究結果顯示，(一) 語用策略方面，說話者在政論節目中使用間接語言行為的頻率比直接語言行為頻繁。(二) 語言行為類別方面，直接語言行為中，排序則為：斷言 (Assertive)、表述 (Expressive)、指示 (Directive)；而間接語言行為中，各類別使用頻率由高至低排序為：表述 (Expressive)、斷言 (Assertive)、指示 (Directive)。(三) 在政治意識型態的影響方面，支持執政黨的政論節目行使較多「直接且事實導向」的語言行為，而支持反對黨的政論節目則有較多的「間接且評論導向」的語言行為。(四)「譴責」是政論節中最常使用的語言行為，並且以間接方式表達居多。(五) 推論過程中，推論步驟較多的「間接譴責」語言行為在政論節目中較常被使用。(六)「大話新聞」與「2100 全民開講」雖偏向

不同的政治意識型態，但是它們皆以斷言類（Assertive）或指示類（Directive）的語言行為來包裝，藉以間接達到「譴責」執政黨疏失的目的。



Abstract

This thesis investigates the political-ideological influence on speech acts in Taiwan political talk shows by examining the pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness), the speech act categories, and the illocutionary purposes performed in the talk shows. In this thesis, Gricean maxims (1975) and Searle's theory of speech acts (1969) are adopted as the analytic frames to study how speech acts are conducted, and Leech's (1983) notions of politeness are the theoretical basis for explaining the distributional difference of pragmatic strategies.

The data analyzed in this study is composed of dialogues extracted from 6 episodes of two political talk shows with opposite stances on political issues, namely *DaHuaXingWen* (大話新聞), the pan-green talk show, and *QuanMinKaiJiang* (2100 全民開講), the pan-blue one. Following Searle's scheme of speech acts (1965), this study identifies the illocutionary act of every clause in the data and recognizes 12 types of direct speech acts and 26 types of indirect speech acts in the collected data.

The results of quantitative analysis show that, (1) indirect speech act is generally performed more frequently than indirect speech act in political talk shows. (2) The order of frequency in direct speech acts represents as: Assertive > Expressive > Directive; and in indirect speech acts, the order of frequency is: Expressive > Assertive > Directive. (3) In terms of the political-ideological influence, the political talks show supporting the ruling party (*QuanMinKaiJiang*) performs direct fact-orientated speech acts more, while the show that standing in the opposition to the ruling party (*DaHuaXingWen*) has more indirect opinion-oriented speech acts. (4) Condemnation is the most often used illocutionary act in political talk shows, and mainly done indirectly. (5) Indirect condemnations with longer length of inferential process are preferred in political talk shows. (6) Despite that *DaHuaXingWen* and

QuanMinKaiJiang held different political stance, they share the same pattern of expressing indirect condemnation—wrapping it in speech acts of Assertives or Directives.



Chapter 1

Introduction

After Martial Law was lifted in 1987, news media in Taiwan flourishes and the emergence of talk shows is in rapid sequence. On the one hand, various political ideologies are conveyed publicly; on the other hand, biased remarks appear everywhere. This thesis presents a research on such ideological-biased language. In this chapter, four preliminaries are introduced, including the background of political spectrum, the general pictures of biased news media, the motivation of this study, and the research questions as well as the hypotheses of the thesis.

1.1. Backgrounds of Political Opposition in Taiwan

The development of party politics in Taiwan began in 1949 when the exiled government of the Republic of China (ROC), led by Kuomintang (KMT), relocates to Taiwan after being defeated in the Chinese civil war and losing control of mainland China. In the following four decades, Taiwan was a single-party state governed by KMT and restrained by marital law. In 1986, Democratic Progressive Party (DPP) was formed out of opposition force. Aiming to challenge KMT's doctrines, DPP promoted self-independence for Taiwan. By 1988, after the martial law was lifted, DPP grew even stronger without the ban of political party and mass media. Such political legitimacy helped the opposition political force to surface and to thrive. In 1993, the internal split of KMT led to the establishment of New Party (NP)—a hard-line pan-Chinese nationalist organization. Later, in 1996, Taiwan held its first general Presidential election and President Lee Teng-hui won the election to sustain KMT's dominance. Lee, as a Taiwanese himself, endeavored to empower Taiwanese in political landscape. Four years later, Taiwan experienced a reign by a non-KMT party as well as the opposition party—DPP in governance for the first time. This

defeat in the 2000 Presidential election deepened the internal rifts within KMT and led to the formation of the People's First Party (PFP), which cultivated a non-ideological cross-strait policy. In the same year, the Taiwan Solidarity Union (TSU) was founded by the followers of former President Lee Teng-hui and many 'independent fundamentalists.' Such political context remains unchanged in the following years, even after the second rotation of ruling power in 2008, in which DPP is replaced by KMT after eight years in office.

Wu (1995) pointed out the contending political ideologies in Taiwan are separated by three social cleavages: (1) Taiwanese vs. Chinese national identities, (2) democratic vs. authoritarian ideologies, and (3) Taiwanese ethnicity vs. Chinese ethnicity. These factors result in the political opposition of 'pan-blue' and 'pan-green' in Taiwan. Specifically, the 'pan-blue' coalition refers to three political parties, including KMT, NP, and PFP, that share similar positions on a conciliatory approach toward cross-strait relations between ROC and PRC, and the negation of Taiwan's de jure independence. (Lay, Yap, and Chen, 2008) In opposition, the 'pan-green' coalition refers to two political parties, including DPP and TSU, which harbor for Taiwanese independence. (Lay, Yap, and Chen, 2008) In sum, a 'blue-green confrontation' would basically represent the political spectrum in Taiwan. This study considers such opposition as the main factor affecting the choice of pragmatic strategies in political talk shows.

1.2. Political Bias in the News Media

For the audience of the mass media in Taiwan, political bias in newspapers and news channels is no longer an unfamiliar phenomenon. It is widely acknowledged that the mass media choose to speak for specific political party in order to lure its adherents and hence to gain commercial profit. Such political bias in news has drawn

attention from many researchers. As pointed out by van Dijk (1985), topics, headlines, leads, and summaries handled in a news article are possibly biased if adequate information is not provided. Also, Wang (1996) observed that diverse political positions were revealed in the argumentation of commentaries as well as the pragmatics strategies used in the headlines of news stories. Kuo (2001) further found that newspapers not only manipulate lexicon, but also utilize metaphors, common-sense assertion, and cultural-background contention as discourse strategies to support its political position. Moreover, Kuo and Nakamura (2005) exhibited that the linguistic differences and discourse transformations between an original article and its translations in news were ideologically motivated. In all, language used in news may not objectively report what has happened; instead, it reflects and constructs underlying ideologies of the news providers.

1.3. The Problem

Although the linguistic variation resulted from political-ideological difference in news media has been generally recognized in previous studies, the relation between language and political ideology has not yet been discussed thoroughly. First, in terms of the genre, the research foci of the previous linguistic studies are mostly the printed news media. Nonetheless, the emergence of political talk shows has provided another genre of the news media. Especially in Taiwan, there are more political talk shows than newspapers spreading daily.¹ In spite of the wide dissemination of political talk shows, few studies have paid attention to them. Second, up to the present time,

¹ There are four leading newspapers in Taiwan, including *Apple Daily*, *China Times*, *Liberty Times*, and *United Daily News*. And the number of leading political talk shows are eight; they are 《2100 全民開講》 and 《2100 週末開講》 of TVBS, 《大話新聞》 and 《新台灣加油》 of SET, 《頭家來開講》 of FTV, 《文茜小妹大》 and 《新台灣星光大道》 of CtiTV, and 《攔截新聞》 of ETTV.

linguistic studies, which investigated the political talk shows, chiefly did discourse analyses on the written text in the mass media, and sociopragmatic analyses (especially those concerning the ideological influence on illocutionary acts) has been neglected. Third, although there are some studies investigating the political-ideologies revealed in political talk shows and considered political bias as an important factor to determine the organization of information in the shows, none of them concerns syntactic structure or pragmatic strategies in their research. In a word, studies on political talk shows with a linguistic-orientation are needed.

1.4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

To bridge the research gaps mentioned above, this study focuses on the pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness), illocutionary purposes, and the political ideology.

Three research questions are determined to answer.

- A. How are strategies of directness and indirectness applied in political talk shows?
- B. What illocutionary purposes are sought in political talk shows?
- C. How does political ideology affect choices of strategies of directness and indirectness applied in political talk shows?

Hypotheses of the research questions are stated below.

- A. Choices of directness and indirectness strategies

In political talk shows, indirect speech acts are more frequently used than direct speech act in order to avoid impoliteness which may cause lawsuits.

- B. Choice of illocutionary acts

B-1. In political talk shows, the priority order of the types of illocutionary acts is: expressive > assertive > directive > commissive > declarative.

To be specific, based on the commentary nature of political talk shows, expressive is more frequently used than the other four types of illocutionary act. Also, since offering factual information for commentary is necessary, assertive is the second important category of speech act.

B-2. Due to the commentary nature of political talk shows, the major illocutionary act used is condemnation. Moreover, in order to build the background knowledge for the commentary, informing is bound to be performed in political talk shows, and that makes informing the second important illocutionary act.

C. Influences of political ideology

C-1. Political inclination will determine choices between direct and indirect speech acts. The talk shows inclining to the ruling party (i.e. pan-blue clique) tend to use indirect speech acts more to reduce the threats to the government's face, while the opposition political party (i.e. pan-green clique) uses more direct speech acts in order to show their intensive opposition to the government and condemnation to the governmental policies.

C-2. Political inclination will determine choices of speech act category. To weaken comments against the government, the show of the pan-blue clique uses assertives more frequently, especially informing, to lead the audience to focus on experiential facts. On the contrary, the show of pan-green clique, in order to convey comments against the government, uses expressives more frequently, especially condemnation, to describe their role to supervise and to evaluate the government's performance.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter reviews key notions about pragmatic strategies driven by ideologies, especially those in the political field. The theoretical basis of this thesis is found of the previous studies on ideology and news bias, speech acts, and politeness theory. The organization of this chapter is as follows. The first section introduces the theoretical background of ideology. The second section focuses on speech act theory. The third section reviews politeness theories.

2.1. Ideology

In this section, there are three approaches to the concepts of ideology in different knowledge backgrounds, namely epistemology, sociology, and politics. Among these approaches, this study would specifically focus on the political ideological influence on the use of speech act. Moreover, the linguistic association with political ideology is also introduced

2.1.1. Epistemological Approach

The term ‘ideology’ is coined by the French philosopher Destutt de Tracy in the end of eighteenth century (Thompson, 1990:29; Roucek, 1944:482) to refer to his project of ‘*science of ideas*’ which concerns with the systematic analysis of ideas and sensations. Such ‘science’ was inherited from the faith of Enlightenment which regarded all knowledge as transformed sensations (Thompson, 1990:30). The epistemologists from the Enlightenment to the French Revolution believed that human ideas were driven from sensations rather than from some innate or transcendental source; these ‘sensations’ determined its ‘reflections’ and all ideas thus had their sources from material experience. (Hawkes, 2003:51) In other words, by observing

the movement by which sensations are transformed into ideas, it is possible to understand the ways in which patterns of ideas come into being. In sum, the epistemological meaning of ideology is to study the origin and boundaries of knowledge, and the basic quest is the possibility and reliability of knowledge.

Nonetheless, this neutral conception of ideology later became a pejorative expression in the early nineteenth century. During the degeneration of Bonaparte, Napoleon had ridiculed ideology as ‘an abstract speculative doctrine which was divorced from the political power’ and condemned ideology as the obverse of astute statecraft so that to silence his intellectual opponents and excused for the collapse of his regime (Thompson, 1990:31-2). After the collapse of the Napoleonic regime, the term ‘ideology’ ceased to refer to ‘the science of ideas’ and began to also refer to the ‘ideas themselves,’ that is, to ‘a body of ideas which alleged to be erroneous and divorced from the practical realities of political life (Thompson, 1990:32).’ The opposition between the neutral/positive and the negative meaning becomes the very nature of the concept of ‘ideology.’ Accordingly, subsequent scholars applied the notion of ideology differently in different fields.

2.1.2. Sociological Approach

When characterizing the content and function of ‘ideology,’ sociologists emphasize its social meaning rather than the scientific content. Marx and Engels, who took the critical edge popularized by Napoleon’s scorn of ‘cloudy metaphysics’ (McLellan, 1995:9; Thompson, 1990: 30-1), pejoratively criticized ‘ideology’ as ‘a theoretical doctrine and activity which erroneously regards ideas as autonomous and efficacious and which fails to grasp the real conditions and characteristics of social-historical life’ (Thompson, 1990: 35). Contrary to epistemologists’ viewpoint, Marx and Engels regarded ideology as abstract and illusory. Especially in the social

structure, Marx considered that ideology is ‘a system of ideas which expresses the interests of the dominant class but which represents class relations in an illusory form,’ (Thompson, 1990: 37) and with these ideas, the dominant class therefore falsely legitimates its political power. To Marx, ideology exists for sustaining the existing relations of class domination.

In contrast to Marx’s negative sense of ideology, Mannheim (1936) examined the concept of ideology in a neutral way. Mannheim categorized two perceptives of ideology: particular conception and total conception of ideology (Thompson, 1990: 48). Particular conception of ideology refers to the ideas and views advanced by the opponents and regard them as misinterpretations of the real nature of the situation; total conception of ideology refers to *a mode of thinking owned by certain social-historical group*. Mannheim’s particular concept of ideology is close to Marx’s view, while his total concept of ideology is a concept of ‘world-view’ which shows that ideas do not exist in vacuity but are always to be understood in terms of the relation of the possessor of knowledge to the particular social and historical factors (Roucek, 1944:487). Therefore, in Mannheim’s terms, ideology must be a ‘*sociology of knowledge*’ (Thompson, 1990:51; Eagleton, 1991:109).

In all, the sociological discussion of ideology includes the opposition between the neutral/positive sense and the negative sense. Marx took the negative sense and regarded ideology as an instrument of social reproduction. Whereas, Mannheim neutrally/positively regarded ideology as a non-evaluative conception that explains the course of the social-historical world.

2.1.3. Political Approach

In social studies, political ideology, in its simplest formulation, is a set of ideas that focuses on the political regime and its institutions (Sargent, 2006:3; Macridis &

Hulliung, 1996:2), and that about people and their position and role in it (Macridis & Hulliung, 1996). Discussions of political ideology cover topics from human, the origin of government/state, to the structural characteristics of government/state. Generally, the building block of political ideology are, (1) a set of comprehensive explanations and principles dealing with the world, (2) a program of political and social action in general terms, and (3) an idea of struggle to carry out the program; and finally, adherents who commit to the ideology. (Leach, 1993:5) Based on the variation of the composition, contemporary political ideologies can be outlined as the political spectrum in Figure 1.

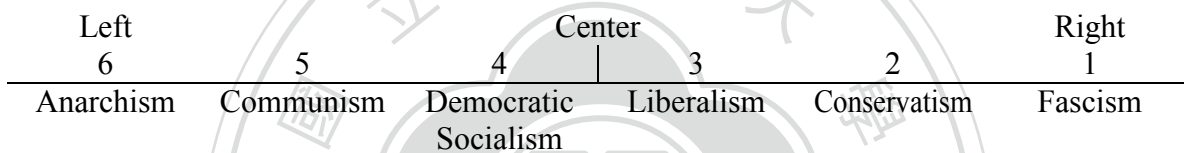


Figure 1. Political spectrum model (Leach, 1993:13)

According to the current situation in most countries, various political ideologies may coexist in the same national culture. Nonetheless, it is a compromise made by political parties; in fact, the competition of different ideologies never disappears. Initially, a political ideology may have been imposed by force by a dominant group; then new ideology slowly becomes acceptable after generations and forms the contending situation of political ideologies. However, according to Leach (1993:5), to avoid possible polarization between competing ideologies, a dominant ideology tends to be held by the majority of the citizens. Even so, the coexisting political groups in the society still plant the seed of change in the seemingly stable situation, as implied in the political spectrum model in Figure 1.

In all, this thesis inherits Mannheim's total conception of ideology and has narrowed it down to the political field. In this study, The representative political

ideology in Taiwan's political spectrum—the blue-green opposition (藍綠對立)—is taken as the social factor. It is hypothesized in this study that speakers favoring different political groups would perform their speech acts differently.

2.1.4. Linguistic Association with Political Ideology

Discussions about the ideological representation in language usage can be traced back to Ferdinand Saussure's distinction between *language* and *speech* a century ago. By Saussure, *language* is a formal structure which underlies all *speech*, and the actual discourse of individuals can be viewed as a screen hiding the underlying ideological structure of their words and actions. (McLellan, 1995:59; Hawkes, 2003:142) Such structuralism subdivides utterances into their surface structure and underlying structures. Sharing the similar concept, Barthes (1973) expresses this discrepancy as a distinction between what a statement *denotes* and what it *connotes*. Likewise, van Dijk (2007) specifically points out that linguistic representations are not ideologically biased; it is the use of them that contains the ideological meanings. In other words, in analyzing the ideological content in language, it is not the linguistic features that are needed to be seized on, but the intended pragmatic function. The theory of speech act offers a linguistic methodology to the ideology issue. Detailed introduction of speech act is represented in the next section.

2.2. Speech Acts Theory

It is assumed in speech act theory that speakers perform their speech with certain goals to achieve, and speech acts in political talk shows are no exception. As demonstrated in the example ‘我要說他馬英九說謊’ the speaker states the President's dishonesty as well as condemns the President at the same time. That is, by saying something, a speaker is doing some acts. Previous studies of language philosophers (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) have pointed out such core notion—the

basic unit of communication is the performance of certain act, and succeeding researchers generally termed this notion as *speech acts*. The following sections review two leading scholars' works on the theory of speech act, including Austin's prime notions of speech acts and Searle's systematization of speech acts.

2.2.1. Austin's Account

In Austin's theory of speech act, there are two phases of discussion, namely, the primitive idea of performative verbs and the extended discussion of illocutionary acts. Firstly, Austin (1962:12) analyzed performative verbs and defined speech acts in the following terms 'by saying something, speakers are doing something.' For instance, by saying 'I promise to come tomorrow,' the speaker is doing the act—making a promise. Austin categorized sentences of this particular type as *performatives*, in contrast to statements and assertions, which he called *constatives*. Further, Austin pointed out that performatives, unlike constatives, are incompatible with the quality of true/false but the condition of felicitous/infelicitous. As indicated in the example of 'promise,' when the utterance 'I promise to come tomorrow' fails, the action that the utterance attempts to perform is simply null and void, not false. To construct the validity of speech act, Austin proposed that there are some necessary conditions in which performatives must meet if they are to be successful. This primitive scheme of felicity conditions, as outlined in (1).

- (1) Austin's Account to Necessary Conditions of Performatives (1962:14-5)
 - A. (i) There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain effect; (ii) The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate.
 - B. The procedure must be executed by all participants both (i) correctly and (ii) completely.
 - C. Where, as often, (i) certain requisite thoughts and feelings are designed

in the procedure, held by people participating in and so invoking the procedure, and intended to be conducted by the participants; (ii) further, they must actually so conduct themselves subsequently.

However, this performative-constative dichotomy of speech acts is rudimentary. As Austin himself noticed, the fundamental problem of the initial definition is that utterances can be performatives without being the *formal form* of explicit performatives. For example, in conversation (2), although the mother's utterance seems to be a constative because of its applicability of the true-false verification, it performs the action of ordering the child to go to sleep indeed. In short, non-explicit performatives, like example (2), does not fit into the primitive definition of speech acts.

- (2) 母親：已經十二點了。
兒子：再看一下就好，節目要演完了。

To solve the problem in theory, Austin furthered his doing-by-saying definition with a trichotomous taxonomy in the sense of speech acts. In Austin's latter scheme, utterances are examined from the aspects of speakers, hearers, and the utterances themselves, as represented below.

- (3) Austin's Taxonomy of Speech Acts (1962:108)
- A. LOCUTIONARY ACT: the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference. [*utterance aspect*]
 - B. ILLOCUTIONARY ACT: the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it. [*speaker aspect*]
 - C. PERLOCUTIONARY ACT: the bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance. [*hearer aspect*]

It is the second type ‘illocutionary act’ which is the focus in Austin’s discussion, and subsequent researchers also committed most of their interest in this type and referred illocutionary acts to the specific sense of speech acts.

In addition to discussing the felicity conditions and the three-dimension analysis of speech acts, Austin also proposed a preliminary classification of illocutionary acts, as represent in (4). Although this classification, as Austin himself stated, contains certain problems², Austin (1962) has narrowed the list of performatives into a grid of illocutionary acts.

- (4) Austin’s Grid of Illocutionary Acts (1962:150-62)
- A. VERDICTIVES: the exercise of judgment, e.g. *estimate, reckoning, appraisal.*
 - B. EXERCITIVES: the assertion of influence or exercise of power, e.g. *voting, ordering, advising, warning.*
 - C. COMMISSIVES: an assuming of an obligation or declaring of an intention, e.g. *promising*
 - D. BEHABITIVES: the adopting of an attitude, e.g. *apologizing, condoling, congratulating.*
 - E. EXPOSITIVES: the clarifying of communications, e.g. ‘*I reply,*’ ‘*I argue,*’ ‘*I concede,*’ ‘*I illustrate.*’

Overall, Austin’s work contributes mainly on the initiation of the notion ‘speech act’ as well as the division of ‘illocutionary act.’ Subsequent researchers had paid much attention on speech act ever since Austin, and Searle is one of the influential scholars. The next section introduces Seale’s systemization of Austin’s work.

² Austin (1962) stated that behabitives are too miscellaneous as a group.

2.2.2. Searle's Systematization

Basing on Austin's work, Searle has popularized the theory of speech act with his own systematization on two parts: the felicity conditions and the categorization of speech acts. First, in terms of felicity conditions, Searle standardized a set of necessary and sufficient conditions of speech acts. As he noted, "to perform an illocutionary acts is to engage in a rule-governed form of behavior" (Searle 1965: 255). In Searle's rule-governed categorization, there are four categories of felicity conditions in speech acts, namely, the preparatory condition, the sincerity condition, the propositional content condition, and the essential condition (Searle, 1969). Table 1 demonstrates Searle's sortation of the felicity conditions on two examples: requesting and greeting.

Table 1. Felicity conditions of *request* and *greet* (Searle, 1969:66)

[S = speaker, H = hearer, A = action]

	<i>Request</i>	<i>Greet</i>
preparatory condition	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. H is able to do A. S believes H is able to do A. 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events of his own accord. 	S has just encountered (or been introduced to, etc.) H.
sincerity condition	S wants H to do A.	None.
propositional content condition	Future act A of H.	None.
essential condition	Counts as an attempt to get H to do A.	Counts as courteous recognition of H by S.

In addition to elaborating Austin's felicity conditions, Searle also advanced the categorization of illocutionary acts. In Searle's viewpoint (Searle, 1979: 9), Austin's

work is a classification of illocutionary verbs, not illocutionary acts. Moreover, the vagueness and the lack of principles in the primary categorization are also unfavorable for analysis. To solve these problems, Searle brought up the taxonomy of illocutionary acts based on the relationship between ‘the word’ and ‘the world.’ His taxonomy consists of five basic kinds of illocutionary acts that can be performed in speaking, namely, assertives, expressive, directives, commissives, and declaratives. Definitions of each category of speech acts are listed below.

(5) Searle’s Categorization of Speech Acts (1969: 12-20)

- A. ASSERTIVES: speakers represent external reality by making their words fit the world as they believe it to be, e.g. *stating, describing, affirming.*
- B. EXPRESSIVES: speakers express their feelings by making their words fit their psychological worlds, e.g. *thanking, apologizing, congratulating, condoling.*
- C. DIRECTIVES: speakers direct hearers to perform some future acts which will make the world fit the speakers’ words, e.g. *commanding, ordering, warning, requesting, suggesting.*
- D. COMMISSIVES: speakers commit themselves to future acts which make the world fit their words, e.g. *promising, offering.*
- E. DECLARATIVES: speakers utter worlds that in themselves change the world, e.g. *naming(a ship), pronouncing (husband and wife), sentence (someone to death)*

In Searle’s categorization, speech acts are classified according to the relation between ‘the word’ and ‘the world,’ the world field that they are related to, and the executor of the change that the speech act leads to, as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Distinction among speech act categories (\emptyset = no change needed)

	Relation between 'word' and 'world'	Fields of the world	Executor of the change	Categories of speech act
Speech acts	Word fits world	External world	\emptyset	Assertives
		Psychological world	\emptyset	Expressives
	World fits world	External world	Hearer	Directives
		External world	Speaker	Commissives
	Word changes the world	External world	Word	Declaratives

Moreover, Searle also pointed out that certain syntactic structures of the utterances are recognized as typical for certain speech acts. To name some, imperatives sentences are the representative structures of *directives*, and declarative structures with speaker subject and future time expressed are typical for *commissives*. However, such typical structure does not always perform the function for which it is typical. Take the mother's utterance in (2) on page 12 for example. It looks like an assertive, but it serves the function of directive in the context. In terms of the fresh contribution to the speech act theory, Searle has noticed the unrepresentative forms of speech acts and conceived the idea of indirect speech act. In the next section, the notion of indirect specific will be specified.

2.2.3. Indirect speech act and Inference

The discrepancy between the linguistic form and the illocutionary goal of a speech act has led Seale to further differentiate speech acts into direct and indirect speech acts. According to Searle (1975; 1979), in a direct speech act, the speaker utters a sentence that means exactly and literally what he/she says (as the representative structures on page 16), while in an indirect speech act, the sentence uttered by the speaker may not simply mean its literal meaning (as demonstrated in example (2) of page 12). So, the problems for hearers are (i) how to identify an

indirect speech act and (ii) what the illocutionary goal of an indirect speech act really is.

To solve these problems, the felicitous conditions of speech acts play crucial roles. Searle (1979: 31) observed that, in an indirect speech act, even though the sentential structure of an utterance resembles a typical speech act, one (or more) felicity condition of that act is violated. As demonstrated in example (2) on page 12, the utterance of the mother violates the essential condition of informing (time) since the mother does not just want her son to have the information of time. In other words, hearers can identify indirect speech acts through those unsatisfied felicitous conditions. Meanwhile, the violated felicity condition(s) altogether with the shared knowledge and the context would serve other illocutionary goals. For example, the violated essential condition in example (2), the power difference between the interlocutors, and the common knowledge “12 p.m. is a late time for sleep” enable the mother’s utterance to fulfill the essential condition of a command, namely, “go to bed immediately.” Thus, hearers recognize the real illocutionary goal of the indirect speech act.

To specifically demonstrate how hearers can get the intended meaning from the literal meaning of indirect speech acts by the inference and validation of inference, example (6), a brief demonstration, goes as follows. Example (6) is excerpted from Searle (1975: 266).

(6) Student X: Let’s go to the movies tonight.

Student Y: I have to study for an exam.

Step 1: I have made a proposal to Y, and in response he has made a statement to the effect that he has to study for the exam (facts about the conversation).

Step 2: I assume that Y is cooperating in the conversation and that therefore his remark is intended to be relevant (conversational cooperation, cf. Grice).

- Step 3: A relevant response must be one of acceptance, rejection, counterproposal, further discussion, etc (theory of speech acts, not yet expounded).
- Step 4: But his literal utterance was not one of these, and so was not a relevant response (inference from Steps 1 and 3).
- Step 5: Therefore, he probably means more than he says. Assuming his remark is relevant, his primary illocutionary point must differ from his literal one (inference from Steps 2 and 4)
- Step 6: I know that studying for an exam normally takes a large amount of time relative to a single evening, and I know that going to the movies normally takes a large amount of time relative to a single evening (factual background information).
- Step 7: Therefore, he probably cannot both go to the movies and study for an exam in the same evening (inference from Step 6).
- Step 8: A preparatory condition on accepting a proposal, or on any other commissive, is the ability to perform the act predicated in the propositional content condition (theory of speech acts).
- Step 9: Therefore, I know that he has said something that has the consequence that he probably cannot consistently accept the proposal (inference from Steps 1, 7, and 8).
- Step 10: Therefore, his primary illocutionary point is probably to reject the proposal (inference from Steps 5 and 9).

2.2.4. Grice's Cooperative Principles (1975)

Another way that hearers identify indirect speech acts is through the basic maxims of conversation—Cooperative Principles (Grice, 1975). In Grice's theory, speakers follow four general maxims that jointly achieve efficient and effective communication, as represented in (7).

- (7) Grice's Cooperative Principles (1975)
- A. The maxim of quantity:
 - i. Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange.
 - ii. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required
 - B. The maxim of quality: try to make your contribution one that is true.
 - i. Do not say what you believe to be false.
 - ii. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
 - C. The maxim of relevance: make your contribution relevant.
 - D. The maxim of manner: be perspicuous.
 - i. Avoid obscurity of expression.
 - ii. Avoid ambiguity.
 - iii. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
 - iv. Be orderly.

Similar with the execution of felicity conditions, the speaker, in an indirect speech act, intentionally violates one (or more) maxim and so that the utterance would be identified as performing certain action other than its sentential meaning. Therefore, by examining whether the felicity conditions and the cooperative principles are conformed or flouted, hearers are able to recognize indirect speech acts.

In previous studies of speech act, Austin had initiated the notion of doing something by saying something from the aspect of performative verbs. In addition, Austin went forward the analysis of speech acts into locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act, while Searle classified illocutionary acts into assertives, expressives, directives, commissives, and declaratives. Subsequently, Searle systemized Austin's preliminary categorization of felicity conditions and illocutionary acts. In terms of the former notion, Searle identified four groups of felicity conditions, including preparatory condition, sincerity condition, and propositional content condition. As to the later notion, Searle put strong emphasis on indirect speech acts.

According to Searle's definition, indirect speech act is one illocutionary act performed in the linguistic form of another. With the aid of felicity conditions and Cooperative Principles, Searle differentiated 'what' and 'how' speakers achieve their illocutionary goals indirectly. The unsolved problem of indirect speech act is 'why' speakers deliberately express their illocutionary goals indirectly. In Section 2.3, politeness theory offers some possible explanations to the puzzle.

2.3. Politeness Theories

As mentioned in 2.2.4, the basic proposition in Gricean maxims is that interlocutors comply to the basic maxims in conversations for the sake of achieving efficient and effective communication. However, indirect speech acts, as contrary execution to Grice's proposition, flout one or more maxims of the conversational cooperative maxims as well as break the felicity conditions of speech acts. To explain the paradox of coexisting maxim-obedience and maxim-violation, researchers proposed the concept of politeness. To be specific, politeness is a facet for which speakers would rather sacrifice the conversational maxims and the felicity conditions in order to secure appropriateness.

The following sections review some related politeness theories which are provided as the bases for the constitution of speech acts, direct as well as indirect.

2.3.1. Lakoff (1975)

By Lakoff's definition (1975:64) politeness is something developed by societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction. Lakoff (1973) pointed out that grammaticality alone cannot answer why some sentences are 'good' only under certain circumstances. For example, 'shut the window'³ is an acceptable sentence

³ Example adopted from Lakoff (1973:302).

when the speaker socially ranks higher the addressee, but the acceptability does not hold vice versa. In Lakoff's account, the pragmatic content of a speech act should also be taken into consideration in determining its acceptability in communication, and politeness is one of the matters of pragmatic acceptability. In Lakoff's definition (1975:64) politeness is something developed by societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction. Accordingly, a set of norms for cooperative behaviors is developed in societies to avoid undesirable situations in communication.

As Lakoff (1973 & 1977) stated, clarity and politeness are the two major pragmatic rules dictating whether an utterance is pragmatically well-formed or not. The former takes after the Gricean Maxims. The latter contains three sub-rules: (1) don't impose, (2) give options, and (3) be friendly. Figure 2 represents Lakoff's model graphically.

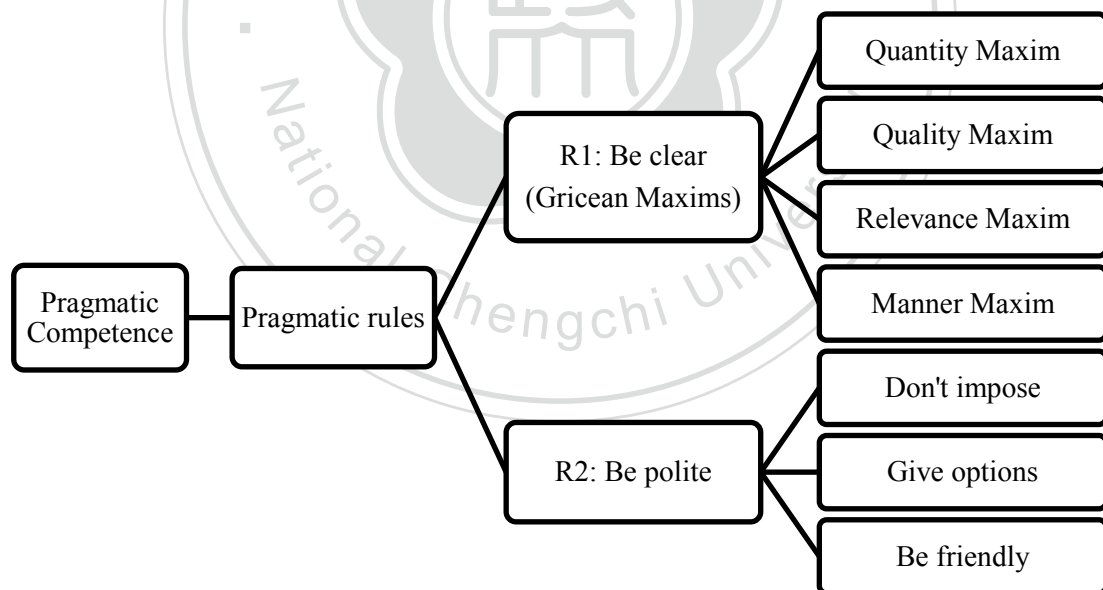


Figure 2. Lakoff's model of pragmatic competence (adapted from Lakoff (1977))

Although it appears that the two pragmatic rules rank equally, the execution of indirection implies that one rule preceding the other. According to Lakoff (1973:297),

‘when clarity conflicts with politeness, in most cases (but not all), politeness supersedes.’

(8) Shut the window.

(9) It’s cold in here.

For example, even though both (8) and (9) express the request of ‘closing the window, the choice of an indirect speech act (9) over a direct speech act (8) is common. Such preference of linguistic form indicates that politeness is one of the reasons that speakers would sacrifice clarity and make indirect speeches. Lakoff’s attempt to equate pragmatic competence with linguistic competence had led to a theoretical model of politeness. However, his three principles are mainly out of the concern of hearers’ perception, and the other part of speech interlocutors—speakers—is left out in his theory. And hence, with Lakoff’s politeness principles, it is deficient to explain speaker’s ideological bias in political talk shows. To solve the problem, subsequent researchers have taken different approaches.

2.3.2. Brown and Levinson (1978)

Another theory of politeness is proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978), which treats politeness as a system to soften face-threatening acts. Faces, in Brown and Levinson’s theory (1978:66), are categorized into two types: positive face (i.e. the want to be desirable to others) and negative face (i.e. the want to be unimpeded by others). According to Brown and Levinson, the notion face is universal in human culture, and so is face-threatening act (FTA) in social interactions. By Brown and Levinson, FTA is as an act ‘run[ning] contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or the speaker’ (1978: 70) and people will consider the best politeness strategy possible before performing a FTA. The strategies which they discussed are outlined as four types: bald on-record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record.

Bald on-record strategies usually do not attempt to minimize the threat to the hearer's face. Positive politeness strategies seek to minimize the threat to the hearer's positive face. Negative politeness strategies are oriented towards the hearer's negative face and emphasize avoidance of imposition on the hearer. And off-record strategies use indirect language and remove the speaker from the potential to be imposing. Figure 3 illustrates these politeness strategies graphically.

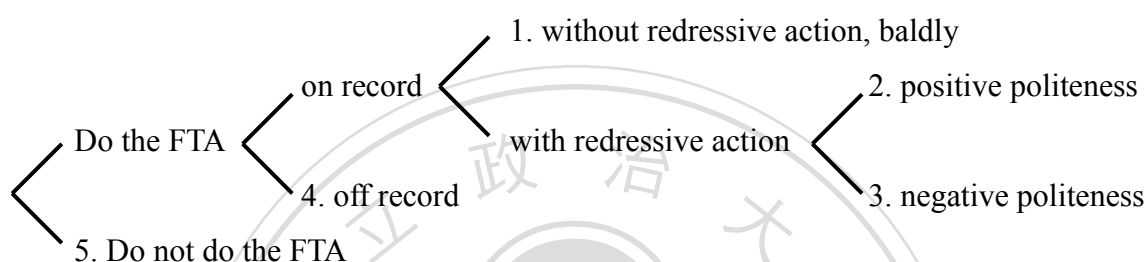


Figure 3. Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies (1978: 74)

2.3.3. Leech (1983)

Unlike Lakoff's rule-governed postulate, Leech (1983) adopted a maxim-based approach to establish his politeness theory. As suggested in the 'formal-functional paradigm' (Leech, 1983: 12), Leech regarded the pragmatic performance of a sentence as maxim-controlled (rhetorical) and that is in contrast to the rule-governed (grammatical) linguistic representation. The six maxims of Leech's polite paradigm are tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy, as listed in (10). In each maxim, the first sub-maxim (i) outweighs the second (ii).

- (10) Leech's Politeness Principles (1983: 132)
- A. TACT MAXIM (in impositives and commissives)
 - i. Minimize cost to other [ii. Maximize benefit to other]
 - B. GENEROSITY MAXIM (in impositives and commissives)
 - i. Minimize benefit to self [ii. Maximize cost to self]
 - C. APPROBATION MAXIM (in expressives and assertives)

- i. Minimize dispraise of other [ii. Maximize praise of other]
- D. MODESTY MAXIM (in expressives and assertives)
 - i. Minimize praise of self [ii. Maximize dispraise of self]
- E. AGREEMENT MAXIM (in assertives)
 - i. Minimize disagreement between self and other
 - [ii. Maximize agreement between self and other]
- F. SYMPATHY MAXIM (in assertives)
 - i. Minimize antipathy between self and other
 - [ii. Maximize sympathy between self and other]

In these maxims, both sides of the interlocutors are concerned in performing a polite speech. Moreover, each maxim is related to the others; none of them is an independent maxim. For example, the tact maxim and the generosity maxim are a set of maxims regarding the cost-benefit relation of the interlocutors, and the approbation and modesty maxim are regarding to praise-dispraise relation. Under this postulation, the issue about the hierarchy of politeness regulations could be left aside because the application of one maxim rather than another is a competition of optimum, not grammar applicability.

2.4. Summary

In this study, Gricean maxims and Searle's theory of speech act are adopted as the analytic frames to examine how speech acts are conducted in political talk shows, and Leech's and Brown and Levinson's notions of politeness are the theoretical basis for explaining the distributional difference of pragmatic strategies in talk shows with opposite political inclination.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This study attempts to use quantitative evidence to prove that ideological divergence would result in pragmatic differences in speech. This chapter introduces the adopted variables of the study. Sections of this chapter are organized as below: Section 3.1 introduces the corpus, Section 3.2 presents the transcription system, Section 3.3 illustrates the procedure of data processing, Section 3.4 displays the categorization of pragmatic functions, and Section 3.5 summarizes this chapter.

3.1. The Corpus

The data used in this study are conversations transcribed from two talk shows that are subject to social and political issues, namely *DaHuanXingWen* (大話新聞) and *QuanMinKaiJiang* (全民開講), which are famous for their opposite stances on political issues⁴ (Chang and Lo, 2007; 2009). This thesis examines three episodes of each talk show. In order to minimize the divergence among data and to establish a common ground for analysis, two variables are standardized in this study. First, the talk shows chosen for this study are those sharing the same topic, namely, the aftermath of typhoon Morako that brought extreme amount of rain and triggered enormous mudslides and severe flooding throughout southern Taiwan from August 7 to 8 in 2009. Second, the length of each excerpt equally lasts for 30 minutes from the beginning of the shows. In all, this thesis analyzes 6 episodes of political talk shows

⁴ Chang and Lo's research (2007) clearly represents the political inclination of the two shows: *QuanMinKaiJiang* overall invites pro-KMT (Kuomintang) speakers (79.1% of all invited speakers) and generally supports KMT in speech content while *DaHuanXingWen* mainly invites pro-DPP (Democratic Progressive Party) speakers (59.3%) and stands for DPP on the political issues.

(3 episodes from *DaHuanXingWen*, and 3 episodes from *QuanMinKaiJiang*), and the total length of data lasts for 180 minutes.

3.2. Data Transcription

In terms of the transcription system, this study adopts the scheme established by Du bois, Schuetze-Coburn, Cumming, and Paolino (1993). In addition, this study uses boldface and arrows ‘→’ to indicate the specific location of speech act in the excerpts, and underlining is to mark the context of the speech act and the speech act itself. Moreover, ‘L2’ refers to ‘Taiwan Southern Min⁵,’ a Sinitic language which has acquired an additional political value by representing the aspirations of the Taiwanese independence movement. As to solve the problem of transcribing Taiwan Southern Min in the excerpts, this study refers to the Online Dictionary of Taiwan Southern Min issued by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan.

3.3. Data Processing

The data used in this study are examined clause by clause from the pragmatic aspect. This study follows Searle’s scheme of speech acts (1965) and analyzes every clause of the data with its literal meaning (i.e., the illocutionary purpose of the *secondary speech act*, abbreviated as SSA in Figure 4) and its intended meaning (i.e., the illocutionary purposes of the *primary speech act*, abbreviated as PSA in Figure 4). Such differentiation forms the basis for the later categorization of direct and indirect speech act. Speech acts with identical primary and secondary acts are identified as *direct speech acts*; on the contrary, speech acts with different primary and secondary acts are identified as *indirect speech acts*. Finally, the pragmatic strategies used in the two political-talk-shows are analyzed with their statistical distribution. It is

⁵ the Online Dictionary of Taiwan Southern Min: <http://twblg.dict.edu.tw/tw/index.htm>

hypothesized in this study that the ideological difference between the two shows would result in different choices of their pragmatic strategies. Figure 4 represents the procedure of data processing in this study.

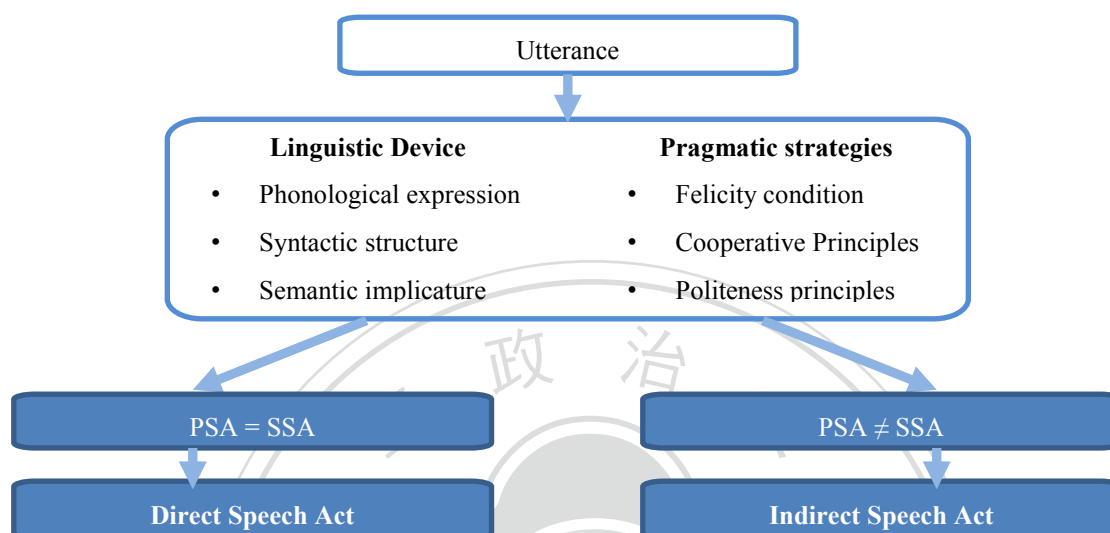


Figure 4. Procedure of data processing
(PSA = primary speech act, SSA = secondary speech act)

3.4. Categorization and Subcategorization of Speech Acts

This study follows Searle's scheme (1965) on categorizing utterance into direct and indirect speech acts. In this section, 3.4.1 introduces the definition of direct and indirect speech act adopted in this study. And, in 3.4.2 the types of direct and indirect speech acts in the analyzed data are also demonstrated

3.4.1. Definition of Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

Speech acts are composed of speakers' intended goals and linguistic corresponding forms, and therefore, there are two innate meanings of each speech act, namely speaker's intended meaning and the literal meaning. Adopting Searle's differentiation, in this study, the literal meaning of an utterance refers to its *secondary*

speech act (SSA) and the real communicative purpose of the utterance its *primary speech act* (PSA). Take excerpt (6) on page 17 as an example, the *primary speech act* of (6) is the rejection to the proposal made by X, and the *secondary speech act* is making a statement that Y has to prepare for an exam. It is therefore differentiated that “the *secondary speech act* is literal; the *primary speech act* is not literal” (Searle, 1965: 267). The opposition/non-opposition between these two concepts (PSA and SSA) is the criterion to identify whether the targeted sentence is a direct speech act or an indirect speech act in this study. When the literal meaning corresponds with speaker’s intended meaning, the utterance is a ***direct speech act***. On the contrary, if the literal meaning and speaker’s intended meaning are different, the utterance is an ***indirect speech act***. Figure 4 on page 27 illustrates the distinction of these two categories of speech acts graphically.

Table 3. The categorization of *Direct Speech Acts* emerged in this study

Categories	Illocutionary purposes of speech acts
Assertive	<i>informing, confirmation, correction, justification</i>
Expressive	<i>thanking, praising, sympathizing, condemnation</i>
Directive	<i>request, suggestion, inquiry, warning</i>

3.4.2. Direct Speech Act

As defined in the previous section, direct speech acts are performed when speaker’s intended meanings are identical with sentence meanings. In the political talk shows analyzed in this study, speech acts fall into four types of functions in Searle’s categories (1979), these identified purposes of speech acts are *Assertive* (to commit the speakers to truth of the expressed proposition), *Expressive* (to express the psychological state of the hearers), *Directive* (to attempt to get the hearers to do something), and *Commissive* (to try to do something for the hearers). Table 3 represents these four categories of speech acts with the specific illocutionary purposes.

Definitions and examples of each purpose of speech act are demonstrated from 3.4.2.1 to 3.4.2.3.

3.4.2.1. Expressives

Among the data analyzed in this study, there are four illocutionary purposes falling in the category of direct expressive, including *thanking*, *praising*, *sympathizing*, and *condemnation*, are speech acts expressing speaker's psychological state. The linguistic forms applied in these direct expressives are listed in Table 4, and condemnation will be the focus of this study.

Table 4. Linguistic devices of *Direct Expressives* emerged in this study

Illocutionary purposes	Linguistic devices
Condemnation	<i>Syntactic</i> —negation <i>Semantic</i> —lexical, comparison, contrast
Thanking	<i>Semantic</i> —lexical
Praising	<i>Semantic</i> —lexical, contrast
Sympathizing	<i>Semantic</i> —information content, lexical, performative verb

(Shaded field is the focus of this study)

3.4.2.1.1. Condemnation

Condemnation is a type of expressive delivering speaker's unfavorable or adverse judgment on the proposed target. Excerpt (11) is a demonstration of direct condemnation.

(11)

- 1 M5: [我]從此我也不會再稱呼他總統 可是 弘儀我覺得今天我看到小林村的畫面<L2 我 我真艱苦 L2>
- 2 Host: 嗯
- 3 M5: 更可惡是<L2 這政府 L2>從頭到尾都在騙我們
- 4 Host: 嗯
- 5 M5: 軍聞社 ho 國防部个 單位<L2 講啊 L2> 特戰隊進去之後看到小林村很多人在生還<L2 咱毋是閣足歡[喜个嘛對無]L2>
- 6 Host:[hen] hen

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In Turn 3 of (11), speaker M5 not only points out that the government is lying, but also condemns the government's deed of lying. In example (11), the modifier, *ke wu* (可惡) 'hateful,' literally depicts that speaker M5 resents the government because it conceals the fact that the victims in Xiaolin village (小林村) have never been rescued.

3.4.2.1.2. Thanking

The speech act of *thanking* is adopted when the speaker intends to show his/her gratitude to the addressees. Example (12) demonstrates such direct speech act.

(12)

→ Host: ...那麼啊 <L2 我欲感謝 L2>台北市議員洪健益啊 以及很多人啦
 hon <L2 當然我無法度 L2>一一唸名單 <L2 啊 in na 這個欲閣佇台北
 L2> 帶三台山貓車 一台貨卡車二十位志工 去台南 啊協助 這樣

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In excerpt (12), the Host expresses his gratitude to the councilor and the volunteers who have devoted themselves to the rescue work. The Taiwan Southern Min performative verb, *kam sia* (感謝) 'thank,' literally indicates the Host's gratitude and directly conveys the illocutionary purpose of thanking.

3.4.2.1.3. Praising

When a speaker commits *praising*, his/her purpose is to express the state of approval or admiration to the expressed antecedent. Example (13) specifies this speech act.

(13)

M1: 弘]儀<L2 你發動一个遐 L2> 拋磚引玉<L2 捐五十萬救你个 故鄉 今日
→ L2>回應 <L2 我看落足感動个 neh 今日千焦 L2>回應<L2 就攏一直來
啊 L2> ba 北海 鱈魚香絲 <L2 捐一百萬 伊个 L2>員工所得一日所得
<L2 捐出來 淡水鎮个陳老太太 捐一百萬 伊个公子陳先生捐 百五萬
L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In excerpt (13), Speaker M1 expresses his affection to the public's donation for the typhoon victims. The Taiwan Southern Min modifier, *tsiok kam-tong* (足感動) 'so moved,' indicates M1's positive evaluation to such an act, and that makes the utterance a praising.

3.4.2.1.4. Sympathizing

Sympathizing is a speech act happening when the speaker aims to show the homonymy of feelings existing between the speaker and the expressed target, as demonstrated in (14).

(14)

Host: <L2 啊 這馬 開始 L2> 啊這個大家 啊自力救濟 那麼 挖屍體 撿
→ 屍塊 <L2 老實講看起來有夠悽慘 L2> 啊竟然啊現在連 冰櫃都沒有
→ 大體 必須要放在垃圾桶裡面 <L2 ho 聽落實在是真心酸 L2>來我們
來看 VCR

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

The Host reveals his compassion for the victims by using Taiwan Southern Min adjectival complements, *tshi tsham* (悽慘) 'miserable' and *sim sng* (心酸) 'grieved,' in linguistic expression. These expressions literally reveal the Host's sympathy toward the victims' misery.

3.4.2.2. Assertives

Among the data analyzed in this study, there are four illocutionary purposes falling in the category of direct assertive, include *informing*, *confirmation*, *correction*, and *justification*. Linguistic features of these direct assertives are listed in Table 5.

Table 5. Linguistic devices of *Direct Assertives* emerged in this study

Illocutionary purposes	Linguistic devices
Informing	<i>Syntactic</i> —direct/indirect quotation <i>Semantic</i> —deixis, information content <i>Gestural</i> —pointing
Confirmation	<i>Phonological</i> —rising intonation <i>Syntactic</i> —affirmative marker
Correction	<i>Syntactic</i> —negation <i>Semantic</i> —replacement
Justification	<i>Syntactic</i> —causal marker

3.4.2.2.1. Informing

In political talk shows, informing is a common speech act because speakers often have to introduce some background information of the intended topic, such as people, events, locations, or time. In the speech act of *informing*, speakers aim to provide adequate and true information to hearers. As mentioned in Grice (1975), no provided information should be more informative than necessary and also no provided information should lack evidence. The following excerpt taken from the talk shows provides a typical example of direct informing.

(15)

- 1 M5: <L2[我]L2> 弘儀我要借一點時間昨天 ho
- 2 Host: [[嗯]]
- 3 M5: [[我]]收到一個 別人轉來的簡訊 在屏東霧台鄉的神山 部落 ho
- 4 Host: 嗯 hen
- 5 M5: <L2 有一位 L2>杜神父
- 6 Host: 嗯 hen

- 7 M5: 他說 <L2in 還有人去予埋去啊 L2>⁶
 8 Host: <L2 是 L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

From the end of Turn 1 to Turn 7, speaker M5 reports a text message received from the damaged area. In M5's report, he tells the audience three pieces of information: first, the area calling for help (Turn 3); second, the information source (Turn 5); third, the emergency situation (Turn 7). As represented in (15), speaker M5 gives sufficient information about the people, the location, and the event of an urgent need. In addition, speaker M5 also mentions the source of the information, a text message from others, which shows that his information is with adequate evidence. In all, the sufficient and true information qualifies M5's utterance as the speech act into informing.

3.4.2.2.2. Confirmation

When making the speech act of *confirmation*, speakers check the truth of the expressed proposition to assure their own expressibility and the hearer's accessibility to the given information. Excerpt (16) demonstrates such speech act.

(16)

- 1 Host: ...那我們現在給大家看 今天啊 台北市議員洪健益啊 啊 這個 帶了 志工 十三位志工 六噸還有一頓 一輛 六噸的卡車去屏東啊 南州教會 去配合長老教會去救援 那麼 他從 屏東啊 林邊鄉 林邊鄉 <L2 就無 L2> 土石流嘛
- 2 ? : hen hen
- 3 Host: o [kay]

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

⁶ In the transcription of this study, L2 refers to Taiwan Southern Min.

In the beginning of the excerpt, the Host reports the rescue action launched by a councilor. Information of the rescue action includes the number of devoted volunteers, the amount of invested resources, and the path that volunteers took to the damaged area. However, the last piece of information about the path is vague: it is widely acknowledged that Pingtung County (屏東縣) is one of the damaged areas in this disaster; yet, in the reported rescue action, it serves as the bypath to the destination. Such confusing information drives the Host's speech act of clarification and confirmation.

Firstly, at the end of Turn 1, the Host clarifies that Linbian Town (林邊鄉), although locating in Pingtung County, is not affected by the landslide and, therefore, it is not part of the damaged area. Further, in Turn 3, the Host utters 'okay' with a raising intonation to confirm whether his hearers are clear with the clarified information or not. In semantic aspect, the utterance 'okay' focuses on the addressee's satisfaction or acceptability toward the antecedent proposition. As to the phonological aspect, the rising intonation of 'okay' indicates that the utterance is a question to the hearer. Overall, in Turn 3, the Host asks for confirmation on whether the provided information (the clarification) is satisfactory/acceptable for the hearers to comprehend both linguistically and pragmatically.

3.4.2.2.3. Correction

Correction is a speech act committed to eliminate the inaccuracy of the expressed proposition, as represented in (17).

(17)

- 1 M4: ...一萬人現在還困在山上什麼[孤]島裡面
- 2 Host: [嗯]
- 3 M4: 如果今天 疏疏散多少人
- 4 Host: <L2 是 L2>

- 5 M4: 兩三百人 [這]
 → 6 Host: [七]到八 他說救出八百多人
 7 M4: 救出八百多人那代表這一萬多人如果用八百的速度要 多久啊

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

Speaker M4 in Turn 5 reports the number of victims who are rescued in that day—two to three hundred people. The number is later amended by the Host with the correct number—more than eight hundred people—in Turn 6. Because the number is given by the Host in the conversation prior to the excerpt, the Host is reminding M4 of the correct number. It is shown that when making the speech act of correction, the speaker concerns the accuracy of the given proposition.

3.4.2.2.4. Justification

Justification is a speech act by which speakers give explanations for something or for doing something, as demonstrated in (18).

(18)

- 1 Host: [是] 好的 所以鄉鄉長還有什麼 代表村民有話要說的嗎
 2 M2: 對 據實的說 啊因為我們這個天然災害啦 ho 啊這重大天然災害的
 死亡的這個失蹤人口的認定是 一年嘛 ho
 3 Host: 嗯
 → 4 M2: 我們希望政府能夠從 從寬認定 是因為這個是 [緊]急狀況嘛

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the beginning of Turn 4, speaker M2 requests the government to leniently grant the eligibility of the victims' subvention. Afterwards, speaker M2 justifies his appeal by explaining that the request is based on the urgent situation right now. The conjunction, *yin wei* 因為 'because,' syntactically and semantically indicates that the following utterance is an explanation for speaker M2's appeal. And by the

justification, speaker M2 can prove to the government that the previous request is worthwhile to spend effort on it.

3.4.2.3. Directives

Among the analyzed data, there are four purposes of speech acts which conform to the category of direct directives, including *request*, *suggestion*, *inquiry*, and *warning*. The linguistic forms applied in these direct directives are listed in Table 6.

Table 6. Linguistic devices of *Direct Directives* emerged in this study

Illocutionary purposes	Linguistic devices
Request	<i>Syntactic</i> —imperative <i>Semantic</i> —performative verb, lexical
Suggestion	<i>Syntactic</i> —modal, imperative, subjunctive mood <i>Semantic</i> —performative verb
Inquiry	<i>Syntactic</i> —A-not-A
Warning	<i>Semantic</i> —condition, consequence

3.4.2.3.1. Request

Request is a speech act expressing a speaker's intention to make hearers do something for him/her⁷, as illustrated in excerpt (19).

(19)

- 1 M5: 他說 <L2in 還有人去予埋去啊 L2>
- 2 Host: <L2 是 L2>
- 3 M5: 啊 到現在找不到而且 這幾天 裡面沒有水沒有食物什麼都沒有
- 4 Host: 嗯 hen hen
- 5 M5: 外界幾乎都沒有 關切他[們]
- 6 Host: <L2[是]L2>
- 7 M5: <L2 啊伊有留一个電話 是 L2>零九八八 六 五五 七六五
- 8 Host: 嗯
- 9 M5: 零九八八六五五七六五 杜神父

⁷ It should be noted that if speakers specifically ask for pieces of information, the illocutionary act is categorized into *inquiry* in this study.

- 10 Host: 嗯
 → 11 M5: <L2 麻煩 ho L2> 看救難單位趕快跟他聯絡趕快把物資統統都送進去

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In (19), speaker M5 begins with stating the status quo of victims after typhoon Morakot. In the end of his report (Turn 11), he asks the rescue teams to help these victims. The politeness marker, *ma fan* (麻煩) ‘to trouble,’ literally points out the utterance is asking for a favor; also, the modifier, *gan kuai* (趕快) ‘hurry,’ reinforces the urgency of the directive.

3.4.2.3.2. Inquiry

The speech act of inquiry, like request, is about asking the hearer to do something for the speaker. However, unlike request, *inquiry* is a speech act specifically asking the hearer to provide information, as represented in Turn 2 of (20).

(20)

- 1 M2: 主持人你好
 → 2 Host: 是 能不能跟我們講一下到底小林鄉的目前的狀況是怎麼樣
 3 M2: 啊小林 小林村 ha [它]有好幾個部落...

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

The Host interviews speaker M2 for the current situation of the damaged village. The wh-word, *zen me yang* (怎麼樣), syntactically indicates that the present utterance is a question. Speaker M2, after hearing the Host’s need for information, starts to describe the status quo of his village in Turn 3. The syntactic expression, pragmatic function, and even the succeeding response qualify the Host’s utterance as a speech act of inquiry.

3.4.2.3.3. Suggestion

The illocutionary force of suggestion is not as strong as request. In the speech act of *suggestion*, the speaker intends to propose some suitable or workable actions to the hearer for their benefits, as shown in Turn 3 of (21).

(21)

- 1 M1: 我想到了今天 應該基本搞清楚了 可是搞清楚以後 更重要的工作是什
麼 所有的災區它對外的交[通]
- 2 Host: [嗯]
- 3 M1: 對外的橋跟路都斷了 有多少人困在那個地方 斷糧了 沒有藥物了 趕
→ 快空投 這是最現在最重要的 政府給它窮盡所有的力量 你 趕快空投
到 那一些 [災]區跟外面已經失聯的災區
- 4 Host: [嗯] 拜託啊

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

Speaker M1 proposes that the government should airdrop food and medicine to the stricken spot. This proposed content, which is beneficial to the government on the rescue operation, and M1's pro-ruling party stance qualify the utterance as a sincere suggestion.

3.4.2.3.4. Warning

Unlike the previous directives conveying speakers' direction solely, warning expresses direction as well as driving the hearers away from something unpleasant. That is, when speakers perform the speech act—*warning*, they tell hearers to do or not to do something in order to avoid similar danger of natural disaster, as represent in (22).

(22)

- Host: 繼續歡迎所有的這個觀眾朋友我們今天在這邊談的 很多的一些的
這種狀況是 即使在 er 可能在雲那間山洪的爆發 已經有很多的生
命無法 挽救 但是社會大眾想要 看到想要瞭解的到底我們 是不是

→ 真的盡 竭盡所能 讓大家感受到這個是 在動起來 這是我們今天要探討的 因為這不只是這一件事情 往後 這些極端的天災可能還會 有 我們要一個 會 動起來的整個的一個架構

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

The Host warns that it is important to know whether the government has made all its effort since similar natural disasters may happen again. By the inference of the Host's utterance, hearers will fall victim to similar disasters if they do not follow the Host's direction. By informing the potential danger of the natural disasters, the Host achieves the illocutionary goal of warning.

3.4.3. Indirect Speech Act

The previous section has introduced the direct speech act in the corpus. In this section, a great deal of indirect speech acts are presented. In the analyzed data, seven types of illocutionary purposes are performed indirectly, including *informing*, *praising*, *sympathizing*, *defense*, *condemnation*, *request*, and *suggestion*. These illocutionary purposes are classified into three categories: *assertives*, *expressives*, and *directives*, as represented in Table 7. Definition and examples of each indirect speech acts are demonstrated in the following sections.

Table 7. The categorization of *Indirect Speech Acts* emerged in this study

Category	Illocutionary purposes of speech acts	
	Primary Speech Act	Secondary Speech Act
Expressive	<i>Condemnation</i> ⁸	<i>informing, clarification, correction, agreement, concession, apology, praising, sympathizing, worrying, defense, suggestion, request, warning</i>
	<i>Praising</i>	<i>informing, request</i>
	<i>Sympathizing</i>	<i>informing, suggestion</i>
	<i>Defense</i>	<i>informing, agreement, request</i>
Assertive	<i>Informing</i>	<i>request, inquiry</i>
Directive	<i>Request</i>	<i>informing, inquiry</i>
	<i>Suggestion</i>	<i>clarification, inquiry</i>

3.4.3.1. Expressives

In addition to assertives, *expressives* are also performed with various Secondary Speech Acts in the corpus, including *praising*, *sympathizing*, *defense*, and *condemnation*. Table 8 represents the indirect expressives along with their linguistic feature, the mediated Secondary Speech Acts, and the violated pragmatic principles. Condemnation will be the focus of this study. Examples and the inferential processes of each type of indirect expressives are displayed from 3.4.3.1.1 to 3.4.3.1.4.

⁸ Since condemnation is the focus of this study, the column is shaded for the continence of cross-reference and discussion.

Table 8. Linguistic devices of *Indirect Expressives* emerged in this study

Primary Speech Act	Secondary Speech Act	Linguistic devices	Violation of pragmatic principles
Condemnation ⁹	Informing	<i>Syntactic</i> —direct/indirect quotation, imperative, negation <i>Semantic</i> —deixis, information content, lexical, paraphrase <i>Gestural</i> —pointing	FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
	Clarification	<i>Syntactic</i> —causal marker, comparative, negation <i>Semantic</i> —lexical, paraphrase, comparison, contrast <i>Discourse</i> —comparison	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
	Correction	<i>Syntactic</i> —negation, comparative <i>Semantic</i> —contrast, replacement, lexical <i>Discourse</i> —comparison	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
	Agreement	<i>Syntactic</i> —affirmative marker <i>Semantic</i> —performative verb	CP—quantity, manner
	Concession	<i>Semantic</i> —performative verb	CP—sincerity
	Apology	<i>Semantic</i> —lexical	FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
	Praising	<i>Syntactic</i> —comparative <i>Semantic</i> —lexical, comparison, contrast	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner
	Sympathizing	<i>Semantic</i> —lexical	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner FC—propositional, preparatory,
	Worrying	<i>Semantic</i> —performative verb	CP—quantity, quality, relation
	Defense	<i>Semantic</i> —contrast	CP—quantity
	Suggestion	<i>Syntactic</i> —imperative, modal, subjunctive mood <i>Semantic</i> —lexical	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
Praising	Request	<i>Syntactic</i> —imperative, A-not-A question, question word <i>Semantic</i> —performative verb	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
	Warning	<i>Syntactic</i> —subjunctive mood <i>Semantic</i> —condition, consequence	CP—quantity, quality, manner FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
Sympathizing	Informing	<i>Syntactic</i> —indirect quotation <i>Semantic</i> —information content, lexical, comparison	CP—quantity, quality, manner, relation
	Request	<i>Syntactic</i> —A-not-A, question word	CP—sincerity, quantity
Defense	Informing	<i>Syntactic</i> —direct quotation <i>Semantic</i> —information content <i>Gestural</i> —pointing	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential
	Suggestion	<i>Syntactic</i> —imperative	CP—quantity
Defense	Informing	<i>Syntactic</i> —direct quotation <i>Semantic</i> —information content	CP—quantity, quality, relation, manner
	Agreement	<i>Semantic</i> —paraphrase	CP—quantity
	Request	<i>Semantic</i> —A-not-A question, question word	CP—quantity FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential

⁹ Ibid. note 8 on page 39.

3.4.3.1.1. Condemnation

The first category of indirect expressives is condemnation, which is expressed by 13 varieties of Secondary Speech Acts, including *informing*, *clarification*, *correction*, *agreement*, *concession*, *apology*, *praising*, *sympathizing*, *worrying*, *defense*, *request*, *suggestion*, and *warning*. Examples of each indirect condemnation are represented below.

1. Indirect condemnation by informing

Excerpt (23) demonstrates *informing* as the Secondary Speech Act of condemnation. By giving information against the referential target, speakers achieve the goal of criticizing it.

(23)

Host: ...但是 L2> 啊 小林村現在 大概可以 證實 至少 幾百人被 活埋
ho 那麼楊秋興縣長說三百人但小 這個 鄉長說有七百人媒體寫六
百人 <L2 老實講 啊 實在是 L2> 我覺得 大概很 悽慘<L2 毋知欲
→ 按怎形容 L2> 但是 今天總統啊 接受媒體訪問的時候 啊 他竟然
講說 這個s 要怪災民na 因為 災民他 b 自己不撤啊 死守家園na
他沒有怪自己 他 只怪 災民 ho <L2 這就是這個總統 L2> ...

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In the excerpt, the Host starts with reporting the death toll of Xiaolin village (小林村) mudslide; then, he shifts the topic from the death toll to President Ma Ying-jeou's statement during the interview of ITN (Independent Television News). As stated, Ma said that people in the damaged area didn't realize they should have evacuated much earlier and should not keep on staying where they lived¹⁰. In the Host's report, he uses indirect quotation to represent President Ma's words. The

¹⁰ News from CNN video:

<http://edition.cnn.com/video/#/video/world/2009/08/13/kachroo.taiwan.typhoon.itn>

quotation marker, *ta jiang shuo* (他講說), indicates that the Host conveys the statements exactly as what the original words are.

It appears that the Host is reporting the President's words, but in the indirect quotation, the Host embeds his evaluation in the President's speech by using various word choices, including the modifier, *jing ran* (竟然) 'unexpectedly,' that semantically shows that the President's statement is abrupt to the general expectation; the verb, *guai* (怪) 'to blame,' which semantically indicates that the Host interprets the President's statement as inappropriate. Also, the reflexive, *ta zi ji* (他自己) 'they themselves,' as well as the negation of verb, *bu che* (不撤) 'don't evacuate,' which semantically suggests that the President shifts the responsibility of such tragedy onto the victims' unwillingness of leaving the scene. By doing so, the Host achieves the illocutionary goal of condemning the President for shrinking the responsibility of remedy affairs. In all, these semantic and syntactic devices make the utterance deviate from the seeming function of informing since the indirect quotation does not accurately¹¹ represent President Ma's words (violation of quality maxim). Moreover, the deviated indirect quotation with the negative evaluation words also performs the speech act of condemning the President.

Following the demonstration of Searle (1975) on page 17, the detailed inferential process of this type of indirect condemnation is represented below as the representative example. The following inferential process of each indirect speech act is conducted in this way.

Step 1: In the beginning of the show, the Host has made statement to give the information that President Ma said that people in the damaged area didn't realize they should have evacuated much earlier and should not have stayed where they lived. (*facts about the conversation*)

¹¹ See the word-to-word transcription of President Ma's interview in footnote 12 on page 44.

- Step 2: Hearers assume that the Host is cooperating in the conversation and that therefore his statement is intended to be relevant and true. (*Cooperative Principle: relevancy maxim, quality maxim*)
- Step 3: A direct quotation must have exact wording with that of the original statement. (*definition*)
- Step 4: But according to the original news video¹², the wording of Host's quotation is different from President Ma's statement. And so the Host's utterance is not a direct quotation. (*inference from Step 1 and Step 3*)
- Step 5: An indirect quotation must keep the meaning of the original statement. (*definition*)
- Step 6: There are discrepancies between the original statement of Ma and the indirect quotation of it. For example, the word, *guai* (怪) 'to blame,' which pinpoints the President's improper statement, and, the reflexive, *ta zi ji* (他自己) 'they themselves,' which specifies the responsibility of the massive death on the typhoon victims themselves. (*semantic implication*)
- Step 7: The negative semantic elements added in the Host's quotation deviate from the President's neutral meaning. Therefore, it is not an indirect quotation. (*inference from Step 5 and Step 6*)
- Step 8: Since the Host's quotation is not true, his Primary Speech Act must differ from his literal meaning. (*inference from Step 4 and Step 7*)
- Step 9: Hearers know that the main focus of political talk show is to provide information of news event and to give evaluation (either positive or negative) to the news event. (*factual background information*)
- Step 10: Therefore, the Host probably gives evaluation to Ma's statement. (*inference from step 8 and Step 9*)
- Step 11: An essential condition on negative evaluation is to show disapproval of someone/something. (*theory of speech act: Felicity Condition*)
- Step 12: The modifier before the Host's quotation, *jing ran* (竟然) 'unexpectedly,' and the added negative word, *guai* (怪) 'to blame,' indicate that the Host does not approve of the President's statement. (*semantic implication*)
- Step 13: Therefore, the Host's Primary Speech Act is to negatively evaluate President Ma for his statement, i.e., a speech act of condemnation.

¹² Journalist: should Taiwan not have been more prepared for for this weather that was coming
 President Ma: no...this area...this is the first time in many years. That is why, they aren't..they were not fully prepared. If they were, they should have been evacuated there much earlier. Just because they stayed in where they live, and..but..you see..they didn't..they didn't realize how serious the..uh..the disaster was.

(inference from step 9 and Step 12)

2. Indirect condemnation by clarification

Another Secondary Speech Act expressing condemnation is *clarification*.

Example (24) represents such an indirect speech act.

(24)

- 1 M5: <L2 我毋知影舊年七百六十五萬人選出來這種總統竟然是這種 L2>
比畜生還不如的總統 我不客氣的講你比畜生還不如 <L2 那有 L2>
怎麼會有這麼沒有人性的總統 <L2 家己毋知影檢討 L2> 還去怪村民說
啊你你們 不聽話 你們啊 一副就說這些人是刁民
- 2 Host: 噠
- 3 M5: 那我想到舊年嘛是罵台灣人講 cynical
- 4 Host: [噠]
- 5 M5: [憤]世忌俗 原來他從去年到現在<L2 tsi 經 經過一年个時間 L2>
- 6 Host: 噠
- 7 M5: <L2 完全無改變 L2>
- 8 M5: <L2 我想台灣人這改 你愛醒起來啊 L2>
- 9 Host: 噠
- 10 M5: 這個總統已經不值得我們去支持他

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In Turn 1, speaker M5 directly condemns the President by saying that the President is not even comparable to brutes because he denies the government's responsibility on the mudslide disaster and he shifts the duty of the tragedy onto the victims themselves. Then, from Turn 3 to Turn 5, speaker M5 reviews the President's speech made in last year for calling Taiwanese 'cynical.' Judging from these two events, speaker M5 concludes that the President has a consistent tendency of blaming his people. Further, speaker M5 deduces that the President did not change his ruling style in these years.

It appears that Turn 5 and Turn 7 are sententially clarifications of the vagueness about what kind of person President Ma is. The modifier, *yuan lai* (原來) ‘as it turns out,’ semantically indicates the transition from vagueness to clearness on the issue of Ma’s ruling style. However, it should be noticed that the clarification of ‘what kind of ruling-style President Ma has’ does not follow the original topic—the typhoon rescue action. Such violation of the relevance maxim (Grice, 1975) marks that the clarification is not genuine. Indeed, by pointing out the President’s consistent ruling style along with the Taiwan Southern Min semantic modifier, *uan tsuan* (完全) ‘completely,’ and the Taiwan Southern Min negation of verb, *bo kai pian* (無改變) ‘no change,’ speaker M5 strongly condemns the President for his inappropriateness and incompetence on the rescue action. The later topic flow (Turn 8 to Turn 10) confirms our inference for speaker M5 continues the topic of the President’s inappropriateness.

3. Indirect condemnation by correction

The third type of Secondary Speech Act expressing the illocutionary goal of condemnation is *correction*. Excerpt (25) represents such indirect speech act.

(25)

- 1 M3: 這個 馬總統今天用英文 hon
- 2 Host: [嗯]
- 3 M3: [對]eh 國外媒體記者講說是 居民不撤[[ho]]
- 4 Host: [[嗯]]
- 5 M3: 這裡我要拿出 鐵的證據 hon 我要講他說謊

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

As represented in Turn 1 and Turn 3 of (25), speaker M3 restarts the topic of the President’s inappropriate statement; later, in Turn 5, speaker M3 takes such

inappropriateness as falsity, and thus accuses President Ma of lying. If we look at the statement from Turn 1 to Turn 3 and the utterance of Turn 5 at the same time, we would find that the accusation means the President's statement is untrue. The semantic entailment of *shuo huang* (說謊) 'lying' serves as a negation to the President's declaration. That is, it is false that the residents of the stricken region are unwilling to be evacuated before the typhoon. In addition to correcting the falseness of the President's statement, speaker M3's utterance in Turn 5, *shuo huang* (說謊) 'lying,' also implies that President Ma intentionally gives untrue information to the media and purposely misleads his people. By which, speaker M3 condemns the President for his shameful behavior. In sum, this utterance has two Primary Speech Acts: one is a cross-turn direct correction, and the other is an indirect condemnation led by the aversive connotation of lying.

4. Indirect condemnation by agreement

The fourth type of indirect condemnation is delivered by the Secondary Speech Act: *agreement*. When one speaker shows his/her agreement to other speakers' condemnation, he/she adopts others' inferential content as well as their illocutionary goal—condemnation. Excerpt (26) represents this type of indirect speech act.

(26)

→ M7: ...另外我要強調 ho 我覺得今天這個成大副教授喔 啊成大副校長
講得很對 成大今天副校長昨天在中常會裡面 eh 國民黨中常會裡面
放炮他說 hon 他說這種狀況 ho 就是要水淹總統府啦

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In Turn 1 of excerpt (26), speaker M7 expresses his agreement to the professor's criticism of the government. The verb, *jue de* (覺得) 'feel,' and the modifier, *dui* (對) 'right,' semantically relates speaker M7's approval to the associate professor's

criticism. However, this approval itself is not the real goal of speaker M7 for it is not relevant to the ongoing topic ‘the aftermath of the typhoon.’ Once the relevance maxim is flouted, speaker M7’s agreement no longer sustains as the illocutionary purpose. Even though the approval attitude is a stray from the topic, the content is still relevant to it. By agreeing with the professor’s criticism of the government, speaker M7 inherits the professor’s attitude, which regards President Ma as an indifferent leader for his ‘ostrich mentality’ (駝鳥心態)¹³, and indirectly expresses his condemnation toward the government.

5. Indirect condemnation by concession

The fifth type of indirect condemnation is expressed by *concession*. Excerpt (27) demonstrates such an indirect speech act.

(27)

M7: ...他這句話就是告訴我們 <L2 今馬个總統今馬 eh 領導人 L2> 領導人 根本沒有辦法感同身受 你非要水淹總統府讓他親自體民 體會災民的無奈災民的痛苦 他才有辦法感同身受 我真的 再次重申 如果你無能也就罷了 如果你真的 無能也就罷了 但是 不要無恥 不要無恥到 還把這個 災民的這個生命 還拿來開玩笑還指責災民 我真的覺得一點天良都沒有

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In the beginning of excerpt (27), speaker M7 comments on the President’s inappropriate statements during the post-disaster operation and criticizes that the President is unable to empathize with typhoon victims. After the criticism, M7 makes a concession that he would forgive the President’s incompetent governance, but he

¹³ 【2009-08-13/聯合報/A11 版/8 8 世紀水患 重建檢討】「讓總統府淹水 政府才知水患苦」成大副校長黃煌輝 談政府因應之道 治水駝鳥心態要改變 不要過了就忘了痛苦
<http://udndata.com/ndapp/Print?id=5007847&udnbdid=udndata&date=2009-08-13>

cannot accept that the President jokes about victims' lives. The verb, *ba le* (罷了) 'forget it,' semantically indicates that M7's given-in to the dissatisfied status quo. However, this concession is not genuine since M7's following conversation is the comparison of current and former President's post-disaster management; that is, M7 does not sincerely forgive the President's incompetent governance (the violation of sincerity maxim). In fact, based on the premise of the seeming concession, M7 points out that the President is ineffective on his leadership and indifferent to his people at the same time. In all, the concession is just a way to express M7's condemnation to the President.

6. Indirect condemnation by apology

The sixth type of Secondary Speech Act performing the Primary Speech Act of condemnation is *apology*, as demonstrated in (28).

(28)

Host: <L2 這是 這是 到目前喔 L2> 這個是 ui 林邊鄉喔 林邊鄉永樂村
請大家看 他們在清污泥 第一個 水還沒有完全退 第二個 污泥是
→ 這樣 家裡面啊 家園殘破 <L2 好 但是 歹勢 L2> 這個還算稍微比
較幸運的 <L2 為啥物 是厝淹爾 L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

The Host starts the conversation with reporting the terrible damage in Linbian village (林邊鄉). Later, with a transition of a Taiwan Southern Min apology, *phainn se* (歹勢) 'sorry,' the Host claims that the present damaged situation should be counted as fine and lucky because it does not involve any death. The apology in (28) represents that the Host is aware of the fact that the succeeding utterances, *zhe ge hai suan shao wei bi jiao xing yun de* (這個還算稍微比較幸運的) 'this (situation) is fine and lucky,' is impolite to his addressees, especially to those living in the damaged area.

Still, the Host deliberately gives the inappropriate speech although he knows the situation is already miserable enough. Such violation of politeness principles reveals that the apology is not the Host's real illocutionary goal. In fact, the seeming apology (and the following utterances) cautions the audience that there are still places facing situation even worse than this, which implies the seriousness of the government's inefficiency in remedying the catastrophe. It is in this implication that condemnation is formed and hence recognized.

7. Indirect condemnation by praising

The seventh type of secondary speech act conveying the illocutionary goal of condemnation is *praising*. Excerpt (29) is an example.

(29)

- 1 M2: <L2...我去共 看彼資料內底 佇災區內底進行 一萬外遍个 L2>野戰
小手[術]
- 2 Host: [嗯]hen
- 3 M2: <L2 佇个 L2>野 野戰<L2 个 L2>悍馬車<L2 頂懸內底 L2>小手[術]
- 4 Host: <L2 [是]L2>
- 5 M2: <L2 當然嘛救千幾人个命出||來||L2>
- 6 Host: [[啊]]哈哈
- 7 M2: <L2 這是足 重要个這 政府危機處理能力就佇遮啦-L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

From Turn 1 to 3 of excerpt (29), speaker M2 gives information about the rescue achievements in another natural disaster—the 921 earthquake. Then, from Turn 5 to 7, Speaker M2 praises the remarkable result of the rescue operation launched by the former government. Despite that lots of information is given, the rescue information of the former government is neither related to the present disaster (the violation of relevance maxim) nor helpful to the current rescue operation (due to different nature

of disasters). However, by praising the former rescue experience of the 921 earthquake in 1999, speaker M2 juxtaposes the current rescue action with the former. In this juxtaposition, the ineffectiveness of the current rescue action is emphasized, and through the implication of such inadequacy, M2 indirectly condemns the government for its ineffective operation.

8. Indirect condemnation by sympathizing

The eighth type of indirect condemnation is performed through *sympathizing*. Excerpt (30) demonstrates such indirect speech act.

(30)

- 1 M5: 這個總統已經不值得我們去支持他
- 2 Host: <L2[是]L2>
- 3 M5: [我]從此我也不會再稱呼他總統 可是 弘儀我覺得今天我看到小林村的畫面<L2 我真艱苦 L2>
- 4 Host: 嗯
- 5 M5: 更可惡是<L2 這政府 L2>從頭到尾都在騙我們

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In terms of the literal meaning, Turn 3 of excerpt (30) shows speaker M5's sympathy for the victims of Xiaolin village (小林村). The compliment, *jin kan-khoo* (真艱苦) 'very sad,' semantically indicates M5's upset for the casualties. However, the sympathy is not the only illocutionary purpose of the utterance in the conversational context. As represented, the M5's sympathy in Turn 3 is followed by a vivid condemnation of the government—*ke wu* (可惡) 'hateful.' Such juxtaposition of the victims' plight and the government's misdeed creates contrast and exposes the government's malpractice even further. In all, speaker M5 performs his condemnation toward the government in the expression of sympathizing the typhoon victims.

9. Indirect condemnation by worrying

Worrying is ninth Secondary Speech Act performing the act—condemnation, as represented in (31).

(31)

→ M6: 主持人講一個關鍵 全面動起來終於動起來 但是 它是一個 有計劃性的 被掌控而且可以期待結果的動員嗎 我很擔心又是一場亂動 大家都在動但是是一個 沒有計畫沒有組織的亂動 我這個批評很難聽因為 你將心比心你看那些老百姓 真的 他們都是社會的弱勢[者]

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In excerpt (31), speaker M6 uses the performative verb, *dan xin* (擔心) ‘to worry,’ to literally express his concern of the government’s rescue action after the typhoon. Judging from the entailment of the verb *dan xin*, speaker M6 should be tormenting with care for the government’s future plan. However, the underlined utterance is actually a negative evaluation instead of a worrying, as what speaker M6 revealed in the embedded NP, *luan dong* (亂動) ‘a mess.’ With such conflicting lexical usages, speaker M6 violates the sincerity condition of a worrying, and condemns the government’s rescue action indeed.

The latter utterance of speaker M6 confirms our inference. In the following speech, speaker M6 refers his previous utterance as a criticism (*pi ping* (批評) ‘criticism’) of the government. In all, speaker M6 condemns the government’s ineffective rescue action from the beginning to the end of excerpt (31).

10. Indirect condemnation by defense

In the data, *defense* is the tenth type of Secondary Speech Act adopted to achieve the illocutionary goal of condemnation. Excerpt (32) demonstrates such indirect speech act.

(32)

- 1 M3: 人呢 人在哪裡 <L2 到這馬 第幾工閣毋知 拄才 L2> 劉鄉長 <L2 講一句 ho 我是聽落艱苦伊講 欲辦 L2> 頭七法會啊 <L2 鄉長已經佇攢這個代誌矣 L2>
- 2 Host: 嗯
- 3 M3: <L2 到這馬連 L2> 遺體 <L2 閣猶未揣 啊這個時陣咱講 L2> 終於出動了 ho 我覺得太諷刺了
- 4 Host: 嗯
- 5 M3: 的確有很多困難 但是 真的太慢了到了

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

From Turn 1 to Turn 3, speaker M3 criticizes the government for its inefficiency of the post-disaster management. Then, in Turn 5, speaker M3 defends the government by pointing out that there are lots of difficulties to overcome during the rescue action. The modified noun, *hen duo kun nan* (很多困難) ‘many difficulties,’ indicates the reason that delays the rescue progress. By showing the difficulties, speaker M3 resists the government from his prior condemnation, and, therefore, literally performs the speech act—defense.

However, judging from the contextual structure, defense of this kind is not genuine. In Turn 5, speaker M3 continues to criticize the government and uses the modifier, *tai man* (太慢) ‘too slow,’ to describe the inefficiency. In other words, defense in this case is more like a lead to introduce the core negative evaluation following behind. The condemnations, which follow the defense, indicate that speaker

M3 does not intend to speak for the government. In fact, the seeming defense lays the foundation for the subsequent criticism. With the defense, speaker M3 reveals himself as someone who sympathizing for the difficulties that the government is facing; and, under such premise, speaker M3 criticizes his government for the degree of slowness, instead of the slowness itself. In all, the seeming defense actually functions as a basis by which speaker M3 reveals the fact that the government's action is below expectation, and hence he expresses the illocutionary goal of condemning the government.

11. Indirect condemnation by suggestion

The eleventh Secondary Speech Act performing the illocutionary function of condemnation is *suggestion*. Excerpt (33) represents such indirect condemnation.

(33)

- 1 Host: 所以年晃<L2in 遮个人應該是講 總統意思是講 L2>死了活該才對
ne
- 2 M5: <L2 講實在毋是 若毋是這馬上佇 si 上電視 hoL2>
- 3 Host: 欸
- 4 M5: <L2 我真正足想欲橋出來 L2>
- 5 Host: hen
- 6 M5: <L2 那有一个總統 看到家己人民死到遮悽慘佇怪村民講 L2> 是
你們自己不逃的
- 7 Host: 欸
- 8 M5: 你乾脆就講說這些人該死算了 <L2 哪有這種總統啊 L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In the beginning of (33), the Host asks speaker M5 if the President's statement means that victims deserve to die in the mudslide. In response to the Host's question, speaker M5 answers with a declaration (Turn 4) that he would shout filthy language (to the President) if he was not on air. In the next turn, speaker M5 questions the

inappropriateness of the President's statement. And finally, in Turn 9, speaker M5 repeats the Host's question and suggests the President say these victims should have died. The second person pronoun and its following verb complement syntactically mark the utterance as an imperative. The modifier, *gan cui* (乾脆) '[why don't you] just...,' marks the proposed act and makes the utterance a suggestion.

Nonetheless, the suggestion is not as genuine as it appears. In terms of propositional condition, the suggested act will not be the future act of the hearer since it is neither suitable nor possible in the social context. For the same reason, the speech does not fulfill the sincerity condition of a suggestion. That is, speaker does not suggest that the President say these improper words. In fact, this unsuitable suggestion echoes with speaker M5's previous turn which questions the President's drop of clanger, and these juxtaposed turns highlight the improper words that came out of the President. By such a ridiculous suggestion, speaker M5 condemns the President's inappropriate reaction in the remedy affairs.

12. Indirect condemnation by request

The twelfth type of indirect condemnation in the corpus is performed through the Secondary Speech Act—*request*. Request here, in the form of a rhetorical question, is for eliciting the disapproval from the hearers, namely the audience. Excerpt (34) represents such indirect condemnation.

(34)

- 1 Host: ...這個是 ui 林邊鄉喔 林邊鄉永樂村 請大家看 他們在清污泥
第一個 水還沒有完全退 第二個 污泥是這樣 家裡面啊 家園殘
破 <L2 好 但是 歹勢 L2> 這個還算稍微比較幸運的 <L2 為啥物
是厝淹爾 L2>
- 2 M5: <L2 人閣活 ehL2>
- 3 Host: <L2 好 人閣活 leh 但是 遐个 L2>活埋的人是活該 那我也請教
博文 所以 這些人其實 是 也是活該嗎

In the beginning of (34), the Host reports the stricken scene of the Typhoon Morakot flood. It is depicted that the fluid mud covers the ground and the homeland is broken. Subsequently, the Host comments that the depicted circumstances should be called lucky since there is no casualty, and then, he raises a question about whether the casualties deserve death or not. From the question form and the common humanity that nobody should die from an unnatural cause, it is inferred the Host's utterance is a rhetorical question. He uses death as a strong sarcasm in opposition to the President's indifference to the victims. Obviously, the Host does not think that the casualty deserves death; however, by saying the opposite of what he means, the Host induces an unpleasant feeling which is related to the President's inappropriate statements. In this way, the Host conveys his condemnation toward the absurdity in the President's word.

13. Indirect condemnation by warning

In the data, the last type of indirect condemnation is performed through *warning*, as represented in (35).

(35)

- 1 M1: <L2 伊講人民無去準備啊 原來彼擺政見伊講政府準備好 ah 啊這馬竟然是人人[民無準備好]nehL2>
- 2 Host: [人民<L2 無準備好 L2>]
- 3 ? : 欸
- 4 M1: <L2 是伊準備好人民無準備好 ahL2>
- 5 Host: <L2 是 L2>
- 6 M1: <L2 算今日發生這個代誌啊 今日伊欲來辯解欲來解釋 攞予伊去講無要緊 但是我認為 今日台灣人民你家已來堅強起來 你共伊堅強確實有影 你家已無堅強你欲閣依靠這個政府个救援 會講我頭拄仔講个 無定你佇遐等救援个時陣你家已先倒落去[ah]L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

Speaker M1 condemns the President for shifting the responsibility of the massive death onto his people. And, in Turn 6, speaker M1 suggests that Taiwanese should depend on themselves; he also says that if victims still counts on the government's help, they may fall down before the authority sends the rescue team. According to the condition (trusting the government) and the potential danger (falling down) stated by speaker M1, the utterance is semantically qualified as a warning.

In addition to the warning, another pragmatic function is delivered through the underlined utterance. In speaker M1's utterance, it is implied that the government is unable to promptly assist the victims after the disaster, and by such implicature, speaker M1 implicitly condemns the administration for their ineffectiveness on the rescue action.

3.4.3.1.2. Praising

Praising is one of the expressive speech acts that are indirectly expressed in our corpus. In the data, two Secondary Speech Acts are identified as the medium for praising, including, *informing*, and *request*. Examples and inferential processes of these indirect praisings are demonstrated in the following paragraphs.

1. Indirect praising by informing

Informing is one secondary speech act which expresses praising. By giving supportive information, speakers reveal their positive evaluation to the referential target.

(36)

- 1 M1: 因為救災總動員喔 單單這 今天上午 用大型的運輸直升機
2 Host: [嗯]

- 3 M1: 六個架次 就救出了兩百二十一個 空投的物資
 4 Host: 嗯
 → 5 M1: 八百一十八公斤我們就知道 救援總動員 na 對這一次的救災的效果有多大 我舉這個例子 大家可以看出來效果有[多大]

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

Example (36) is an example of praising expressed by informing. From Turn1 to Turn5, speaker M1 reports the rescue achievements, including the weight of the airdrops as well as the number of the rescued victims. From linguistic aspect, this utterance provides several pieces of numeral information; however, from hearers' aspect, the provided information is too trivial and unnecessary (which constitutes violation of quantity maxim). That is, hearers do not need to know exactly how many sorties were there in today's rescue operation or how many kilograms the supply is. In fact, by piling up the numeral information, M1 depicts the government's accomplishment in accumulation, and establishes an image of competence. With such an impression, M1 indirectly gives positive description to the government and therefore fulfills the illocutionary goal of praising.

2. Indirect praising by request

The other type of Secondary Speech Act serving the illocutionary goal of praising is *request*. Request here, in the form of a rhetorical question, is for eliciting the approval from the hearers, namely the audience. Example (37) demonstrates such an indirect speech act.

(37)

- 1 M1: ...到了今天 所有的 救災的資源 以南台灣來說 以高雄來說 八軍團 全體投入了 救援總動員今天才開始 我要講他的效果
 2 Host: 嗯
 → 3 M1: 今天才開始效果有多大呢 大家知道堰 dang4 湖潰提 堰 dang4 湖潰提就影響到下游的 寶來國中裡面的那 五百[個] 受困的人民

- 4 Host: [嗯]
5 M1: 因為救災總動員喔 單單這 今天上午 用大型的運輸直升[[機]]
6 Host: [嗯]
7 M1: 六個架次 就救出了兩百二十一個 空投的物資
8 Host: 嗯
9 M1: 八百一十八公斤...

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

From Turn 1 to Turn 3 of excerpt (37), M1 reports that the military force has joined the rescue action and raises a rhetorical question about how well the military force works in the rescue operation; subsequently, M1 reports the details of rescue achievements. It appears that, by the rhetorical question (Turn 3), M1 requests for hearers' attention to elicit the detailed reports afterwards. However, the rhetorical question is not just for arousing hearers' attention for its presumption that the military force contributes 'a lot' in the operation. Under the presumption, every reported achievement is in the category of 'great contribution.' That is, M1 positively evaluates every rescue achievement that he reports, and that indirectly makes the rhetorical question a praising to the rescue operation.

3.4.3.1.3. Sympathizing

Sympathizing is the second type of expressive speech act indirectly expressed in the data. In the corpus, the Secondary Speech Acts achieving the illocutionary goal of sympathizing are *informing*, and *suggestion*. Speakers use these Secondary Speech Acts to express their psychological harmony with the referred targets. Example of each indirect sympathizing is demonstrated below.

1. Indirect sympathizing by informing

Excerpt (38) exemplifies *informing* as the medium to serve the illocutionary function of sympathizing.

(38)

- 1 Host: [[希望一切]] 謝謝謝謝 希望一切[平安 no]
- 2 M2: [謝謝]
- 3 Host: 所以這是我們剛剛聽到的最新的一些這種訊息啊 所以目前沒出
來的 幾百人可能就這樣子了

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the preceding conversation of excerpt (38), speaker M2 reports the massive casualties stricken by the landslide in Xiaolin village (小林村)—about 400 villagers were killed by the natural disaster. After M2's report, the Host concludes the conversation by saying that people who are not present in the scene may be 'this way'—an understatement of 'being killed by the natural disaster.' By the deictic, the Host concludes the report of the landslide. However, as far as the information quantity is concerned, Turn 3 is not a qualified informing. First of all, the Host's understatement—*zhe yang* (這樣) 'this way'—does not provide any novel information to the hearers (information less than what is needed). Second, the information about the casualties is repeated and therefore redundant (information more than what is needed). In sum, the Host does not give any information. Instead, by the understatement, the Host reveals that he feels the desperation as the victims felt. And that represents his sympathy toward the typhoon victims. In all, Turn 3 of excerpt (38) is the Host's sympathizing expressed by the Secondary Speech Act—informing.

2. Indirect sympathizing by suggestion

The other type of indirect sympathizing is performed through the Secondary Speech Act: *suggestion*. Excerpt (39) represents such indirect speech act.

(39)

- 1 M5: 現在的一個[標準]
- 2 Host: [嗯]

- 3 M5: 就是 任何一個在 八八那天逃過水劫的人 現在飢寒交迫不知下落
→ 的人 沒有一個人 **當政府動起來的時候要有一個 決心** 因為他們在
飢寒交迫 可能還有各種疾病 都在發生 這個時候 政府 要讓我們
覺得 他們終於動起來的效果我只有一个檢驗標準 沒有一個人...

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

From Turn1 to Turn 3, speaker M5 gives advice to the government on the aftermath of the typhoon; he suggests that the government should be resolute to the rescue action because victims may still suffer from hunger, cold, or diseases then. The modal, *yao* (要) ‘should,’ semantically reveal that speaker M5 regards the following verb phrase, *you yi ge jue xin* (有一個決心) ‘to have a determination,’ as the suitable solution to the current issue. Moreover, speaker M5 juxtaposes the miserable condition of victims with his suggestion to the government; such information organization reinforces the urgency of his suggestion. Semantically speaking, speaker M5 performs the act of suggestion on Turn 3.

However, if we judge from the contextual structure of excerpt (39), we would find that the suggestion is not speaker M5’s sole focus. As represented in the excerpt, speaker M5 mentions the current status of victims twice. In the first time, victims are described as ‘suffering from hunger and cold’ (飢寒交迫) and ‘losing track of’ (不知下落); in the second time, speaker M5 adds diseases to the plight. Such repeated referring indicates speaker M5’s concern for the victims. That is, in addition to suggestion, the utterance (highlighted in boldface) in Turn 3 also conceals speaker M5’s sympathy toward the victims.

3.4.3.1.4. Defense

Defense is also found indirectly expressed in the analyzed data. In the corpus of this study, *informing*, *agreement*, and *inquiry* are the Secondary Speech Acts applied

to achieve their illocutionary goal of defense. The example and the inferential process of each indirect defense are represented below.

1. Indirect defense by informing

One type of indirect defense is performed through *informing*. Supportive information serves concrete evidence to educe defense for the referential target.

(40)

- 1 M1: ...剛才提到說現在災區搞清楚了沒有
 - 2 Host: 嗯
 - 3 M1: 我想到了今天 應該基本搞清楚了 可是搞清楚以後 更重要的工作是什麼 所有的災區它對外的交[通]
 - 4 Host: [嗯]
 - 5 M1: 對外的橋跟路都斷了...
- [2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

Excerpt (40) targets the indirect defense expressed by the Secondary Speech Act—*informing*. In Turn 1, speaker M1 cites a previous question about whether the damaged areas have been specified or not. Subsequently, in Turn 3, speaker M1 self-provides the information and states that the damaged areas probably have been made clear so far. Speaker M1's answer—a report of the post-disaster management, makes the utterance a speech act of informing.

However, the informing is not the speaker's genuine intention. First, the truth value of the report is unknown. As revealed by the verb, *xiang* (想) 'think,' the report is purely based on speaker M1's assumption. In other words, the utterance does not fulfill the quality maxim of CP. Second, the provided information is not clear. Specifically, the modifier, *ji ben* (基本) 'basic,' does not designate the degree of completion on the collected information. Also, the modal, *ying gai* (應該) 'probably,' implies that speaker M1's answer may or may not have happened. Based on these two

semantic markers, the utterance violates the manner maxim of CP. In sum, Turn 3 of excerpt (40) does not perform the illocutionary purpose—informing. As a matter of fact, the underlined utterance implies that the government has, at least, ‘some’ achievement on the rescue action. By such implication, speaker M1 defends the government against the others’ criticism. In all, speaker M1 expresses his defense for the government by the Secondary Speech Act of informing.

2. Indirect defense by agreement

In the corpus, the illocutionary goal of defense is also achieved by *agreement*. Speakers, who perform this type of indirect defense, show their support for someone or something by agreeing with another speaker’s support for the same target. Example (41) represents such indirect speech act.

(41)

- 1 Host: 嗯 所以這這是目前 最新的這種狀況 這聽起來 eh 非常令人痛心喔 那但是 最近這幾天 eh 如果說 eh 大規模的去搶救的話 會有所改變嗎 鄉長
- 2 M2: 應該來不及啦 因為那個那個 啊發生的太突然 na
- 3 Host: 嗯
- 4 M2: hai 啊發生的太突然 na
- 5 Host: 就第一時間 已經造成了
- 6 M2: [來不]及
- 7 Host: 嗯
- 8 M2: 來不及

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the beginning of the excerpt, the Host expresses his sympathy toward the landslide-affected area and asks the town chief whether a large-scale rescue would make any difference to the tragic situation or not. In response to the Host’s question, speaker M2 answers that a large-scale rescue would make no difference because the

landslide happens too abruptly (from Turn 2 and Turn 4). Subsequently, the Host paraphrases speaker M2's answers, and restates that the landslide instantly caused death. The paraphrase, *tu ran* (突然) 'abruptly' and *di yi shi jian* (第一時間) 'instantly,' semantically indicates that speaker M2 and the Host share the same view on the suddenness of the landslide. In other words, the Host agrees with speaker M2's opinion on the event.

However, what speaker M2 said is not simply the assessment of the unperformed large-scale rescue action. By pointing out the abruptness of the landslide, speaker M2 implies that the tragic situation would remain the same no matter how fast the rescue action was, and that the landslide victims were killed by the natural disaster instead of the government's delayed rescue. In other word, speaker M2 defends the government against the criticism of delayed rescue as proposed by the pan-green clique. As to the Host, who shows his agreement to speaker M2's opinion, also adapts speaker M2's support for the government and, therefore, achieve the illocutionary goal of defending for the government.

3. **Indirect defense by request**

The last type of Secondary Speech Act performing the speech act of defense is *request*. In the form of a rhetorical question, the request here is performed for eliciting the understanding from the hearers, namely the audience. In excerpt (42), the Host employs this indirect speech act to defend for the government's ineffective rescue action.

(42)

J1: ...那麼今天救援大部分都是來自 包括六龜 包括桃源鄉 還有 這個那馬夏鄉還有 小林村 不過小林村的數字大概只有個位數 只有三個人 為什麼這麼少呢 根據災民在現場告訴我們說 其實 他們在小林村 ts 撤離的時候 就已經發現整個小林村 全部幾乎都被土石流掩埋...

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the beginning of excerpt (42), speaker J1 informs the number of rescued victims and their belonging villages. J1 specifically reports that the number of survivors from Xiaolin village (小林村) is only single-digit; then she raises a rhetorical question about the few survivors and answers it. According to the conversational structure, the rhetorical question functions as a request for hearers' attention so as to point out the rapidness of the disaster afterwards. That is, the rhetorical question is just an opening for the actual illocutionary purpose following behind. As for excerpt (42), since the answer to the question is a defense for the government's ineffective rescue, the illocutionary purpose can thus be inferred as defense.

3.4.3.2. Assertives

In the corpus, the indirect speech acts in the category of *assertive* is *informing*. This Primary Speech Act of the indirect assertives is achieved by violating certain communicative principles of the Secondary Speech Acts. Table 9 represents these Primary Speech Acts in accordance with the linguistic expressions, Secondary Speech Acts, and the violated pragmatic principles. Examples and the inferential process of each type of indirect assertives are illustrated in 3.4.3.2.1.

Table 9. Linguistic devices of *Indirect Assertives* emerged in this study

Primary Speech Act	Secondary Speech Act	Linguistic devices	Violation of pragmatic principles
Informing	Confirmation	<i>Syntactic</i> —tag question	FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential CP—quantity
	Inquiry	<i>Syntactic</i> —A-not-A question, question word	FC—propositional, preparatory, sincerity, essential CP—quantity

3.4.3.2.1. Informing

The indirect assertives in the analyzed data is *informing*. In the present study, two types of Secondary Speech Act are identified as means to express informing, namely, *confirmation*, and *inquiry*.

1. Indirect informing by confirmation

(43)

- 1 M5: ...<L2 前兩工 L2>
- 2 Host: 欸
- 3 M5: 軍聞社 ho 國防部个 單位<L2 講啊 L2> 特戰隊進去之後看到小林村
→ 很多人在生還<L2 咱毋是閣足歡[喜个嘛著無]L2>
- 4 Host: [hen] hen
- 5 M5: 結果都在騙人耶...

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

Excerpt (43) exemplifies informing expressed by the Secondary Speech Act—*confirmation*. From Turn 1 to 3, speaker M5 reminds the others how happy they were when they heard the news that there were lots of survivors found in the damaged area. Moreover, in the end of Turn 3, speaker M5 asks the hearers for an affirmation of this mentioned proposition. A Taiwan Southern Min tag question, *tioh bo* (對無) ‘[is it] right or not?’, conveys speaker M5’s need for hearers’ confirmation.

However, given the fact that the speakers in the show also participated in the earlier episodes, speaker M5’s request violates two requisites of confirmation: the

quantity maxim of CP and the sincerity condition of felicity conditions. First, in terms of the quantity maxim of CP, the request is redundant since the answer to the request is known already. The fact that ‘they were happy to know there were lots of survivors found in the damaged area’ is the shared experience and known for both speaker M5 and the other guests. That is, speaker M5 asks for more information than he actually needs. Second, based on the fact that speaker M5 recognized the other guests’ comprehensibility of the proposition (for their shared experience), it is estimated that speaker M5 does not sincerely wish for affirmative answers to his confirmation.

In all, the request in (43) is not serving the purpose of confirmation; in fact, by utilizing the Secondary Speech Act—confirmation, speaker M5 represents the expressed proposition to the audience who are novel to their conversation, namely, those who did not watch the show about the other day. To these addressees, this seeming confirmation provides information about the stricken area, and therefore performs the act of informing.

2. Indirect informing by inquiry

Another Secondary Speech Act that delivers the purpose of informing is *inquiry*. Similar to request, the speech act of inquiry is to ask the hearer to do some action for the speaker. The difference between *inquiry* and *request* lies in the context of the thing that the speaker asks for. As defined in 3.4.2.3.1 and 3.4.2.3.2 on page 36 and 37, in an *inquiry*, what the speaker wants is the hearer’s contribution of information; whereas, in a *request*, the speaker asks the hearer to do favors other than providing information. In terms of the preparatory condition, an *inquiry* is felicitous when the speaker does not know the answer to the *inquiry* proposed by himself or herself; in terms of the sincerity condition, an *inquiry* is established only when the speaker wants the information. Example (44) represents this type of indirect informing.

(44)

→ Host: ...這是我們稍後也立刻回來 到底er我們剛剛看到的小林鄉或者是桃源到底發生了什麼事情 稍後是 高雄縣桃源的一位鄉民 他現在 XX 他也要跟社會大眾 來報告一些狀況 立刻回來

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In example (44), the host concludes the section of the show with a question about the status quo of the stricken village. It seems that the host is inquiring information from the other participants of the show. However, as far as talk-show production process is concerned, the host has the draft of the each speaker's speech, and therefore has already known the status quo of the stricken village. That is, the host does not sincerely want the information (violation of sincerity maxim). Instead, this utterance opens the topics of the next section. Therefore, by such inquiry, the host gives his audience the information of following topics.

3.4.3.3. Directives

In the talk shows examined in this study, there are two types of *indirect directives*: *request* and *suggestion*. Table 10 displays these two directives with their mediated Secondary Speech Acts, the linguistic features of the Secondary Speech Acts, and the violated pragmatic principles that indirectly reveals the Primary Speech Act. Examples and the inferential process of these indirect directives are demonstrated from 3.4.3.3.1 to 3.4.3.3.2.

Table 10. Linguistic devices of *Indirect Directives* emerged in this study

Primary Speech Act	Secondary Speech Act	Linguistic devices	Violation of pragmatic principles
Request	Informing	<i>Syntactic</i> —direct/indirect quotation <i>Semantic</i> —information content	CP—quantity, relation FC—essential
	Inquiry	<i>Syntactic</i> —A-not A question	FC—essential
Suggestion	Clarification	<i>Semantic</i> —lexical content	CP—quantity
	Request	<i>Syntactic</i> —question word	CP—sincerity

3.4.3.3.1. Request

In the collected data, there are two types of Secondary Speech Act expressing the illocutionary act of request, including *informing* and *inquiry*. The following examples demonstrate each type of the indirect request.

1. Indirect request by informing

Excerpt (45) illustrates the indirect request expressed by *informing*.

(45)

→ J1: ...那麼另外呢我們剛剛也在跟 高雄縣政府再一次 聯繫 他說 目前為止要提醒 全台灣的觀眾朋友 目前物資都已經足夠 不用再送物資了 那麼之前也發布訊息說需要小型發電機 不過到現在為止 小型發電機也 夠了

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the excerpt, speaker J1 quotes the statement of Kaohsiung County Government and gives information about not donating supplies and equipment to Kaohsiung for the moment. Based on the quotation marker, *shuo* (說) ‘say’ as well as the information content, J1 fulfills a journalist’s duty by giving information. Nonetheless, since the quote is originally a request from the government to the people, J1 therefore inherits the original illocutionary purpose. That is, J1 does not simply

want the hearer to obtain the information and do nothing; instead, she is also requesting the hearers to do what she said in the reports.

2. Indirect request by inquiry

The last type of Secondary Speech Act performing the illocutionary goal of request is *inquiry*, as represented in (46). By asking for information, speakers

(46)

- 1 M2: ...我們也跟他們 eh 做了一個 啊 一個 一個 ha 跟他們做了一個
啊口頭預定我們在 預定 啊在今 啊在這個禮拜的星期六 啊們做
啊 頭[七]
- 2 Host: [嗯]
- 3 M2: ho 做 我們
- 4 Host: 是
- 5 M2: 啊台灣人習俗的頭[七]啊 ho
- 6 Host: [嗯]
- 7 M2: 做一個法會 hen 在我們甲仙鄉公所從早上九點
- 8 Host: 是
- 9 M2: 啊我們做一個頭七的一個法會 那些 啊 受難家屬 XX 這個家屬
啊他們要求 啊是不是政府能夠 啊 能夠從寬 啊來 來發放這慰問
慰助金

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the excerpt, M2 tells the Host that there will be a ceremony for victims in the coming Saturday, and he expresses the bereaved's inquiry about if the government allows loose verification of the relief funds. The A-not-A question, *shi bu shi* (是不是) 'yes or no,' syntactically indicates that the underlined utterance is an inquiry. However, the utterance is not a genuine inquiry. In terms of preparatory condition, what speaker M2 wants is not the government's response; instead, speaker M2 asks the authority to help the victims on the remedy affairs after the natural disaster. That is, what speaker M2 intends to get from his speech is not simply a yes/no response to his question, but

the actual aids to the bereaved. The intention of getting the addressee to do something for the speaker qualifies the speech as a request even though it is couched in the form of a question.

3.4.3.3.2. Suggestion

In the data, suggestion is expressed by two Secondary Speech Act—*clarification* and *request*. Excerpt (47) and (48) demonstrate each type of indirect suggestion.

1. Indirect suggestion by clarification

In excerpt (47), suggestion is indirectly expressed by *clarification*.

(47)

- 1 M2: [李]登輝總統<L2 个時陣彼陣 L2> 下了三道 命令 第一道命令<L2 是啥貨 就是 L2> 組織通訊部隊
- 2 Host: hen
- 3 M2: 通訊兵<L2 个 調台灣全島佇 本島內底个 L2>通訊兵 <L2 趕 L2> 集結<L2 甚至閣派 L2>空中預警機
- 4 Host: 欸
- 5 M2: <L2 去空中 ne 做一个 L2>求救電話<L2 个 个這個 這個 L2>連站
- 6 Host: 欸
- 7 M2: <L2 這個 L2>空中預警機 ne 發揮三天 搶救前三天 部隊<L2 抑未 L2>進去<L2 个時陣 neL2> 剛好 接了 九千多通
- 8 Host: 欸
- 9 M2: 接駁的這樣的一個電話 因為 <L2 第一个這個通信兵這個一定愛先入去 L2>
- 10 Host: <L2 是 L2>

[大話新聞, 三立新聞台, August 13, 2009]

In the beginning of the excerpt, speaker M2 reviews one of the policy decisions (organizing the news dispatch troops) made in the remedy affairs of the 921 earthquake in 1999. Details and effects of that policy are depicted from Turn 3 to Turn 9. Later in Turn 9, speaker M2 explains why the policy is made by stating it is a

necessary operation. The conjunction, *yin wei* (因為) ‘because,’ semantically shows that Turn 9 is a clarification to the motivations behind the given policy decision. However, in close examination, it is noticed that speaker M2 does not offer any new information in this turn. Basically, what he said is ‘the policy should be executed because it has to be executed,’ which is a tautology and a violation of quantity maxim. In a word, it is not a genuine clarification. However, the use of Taiwan Southern Min modals, including *it ting* (一定) ‘must’ and *ai* (愛) ‘have to’ reinforce the necessity of the policy. In all, by performing obscure clarification and stating that the policy is necessary, speaker M2 suggests that it is also what the current government should do in the post-disaster management.

2. Indirect suggestion by request

The other Secondary Speech Act expressing suggestion is request, as represented in (48). Request here, in the form of a rhetorical question, is performed for eliciting the approval from the hearers, namely the audience, of the speaker’s proposed solution.

(48)

- 1 F: ...確定災區的情況之後 接下去 其實此時此刻該要做的 已經是分區細膩的救災跟安置[[了]]
- 2 Host: [[我們]]所有的設備都有喔
- 3 F: 對 是[分]區喔
- 4 Host: [嗯]
- 5 F: 什麼叫做分區 就是說 你 [不]能夠讓中央去
- 6 Host: [嗯]
- 7 F: 完完全全的說 啊 今天這邊你去啊就 大家都像抓蝦一樣 你今天去小林村 明天去新發 部落 然後後天你可能要去梅山鄉

[2100 全民開講, TVBS, August 13, 2009]

In the above excerpt, speaker F suggests possible remedies for rescuing the trapped victims. It is recommended that the government should carefully rescue people and arrange their shelters zone by zone. To further explain her ‘zone-by-zone’ solution, speaker F raises a rhetorical question in Turn 5 and later answers it with the prohibitions of rescue operation. Base on the violation of adjacency pairs, it is observed that the rhetorical question is designed to lead out the details of the suggested remedies and it is therefore a part of the speech act—suggestion.

3.5. Summary

This study intends to study the ideological difference between the pragmatic strategies applied in two political talk shows, namely *DaHuanXingWen* (大話新聞) and *QuanMinJaiJiang* (全民開講). Speech acts in these two shows are categorized into direct and indirect speech act based on the identity of the primary and secondary illocutionary acts. There are 12 types of direct speech acts and 26 types of indirect speech acts identified in the collected data. Detailed categorization of the speech acts are listed in Table 11. The distribution of these categorized speech acts are analyzed in the next chapter.

Table 11. The categorization of *direct* and *indirect* speech acts emerged in this study

Direct speech act	Category	Purposes of speech acts	
	<i>Assertive</i>	<i>informing, confirmation, correction, justification</i>	
	<i>Expressive</i>	<i>thanking, praising, sympathizing, condemnation</i>	
	<i>Directive</i>	<i>request, suggestion, inquiry, warning</i>	
Indirect speech act	Category	Primary speech act	Secondary speech act
	Assertive	<i>Informing</i>	<i>confirmation, inquiry</i>
		<i>Praising</i>	<i>informing, request</i>
		<i>Sympathizing</i>	<i>informing, suggestion</i>
	Expressive	<i>Defense</i>	<i>informing, agreement, request</i>
		<i>Condemnation</i>	<i>informing, clarification, correction, agreement, concession, apology, praising, sympathizing, worrying, defense, suggestion, request, warning</i>
		<i>Request</i>	<i>informing, inquiry</i>
		<i>Suggestion</i>	<i>clarification, request</i>

Chapter 4

Data Analysis

This chapter depicts the quantitative analysis of speech acts collected from the six episodes of the two shows. Speech acts are first analyzed in general. Then, condemnation, the major speech act in political talk shows is examined.

4.1. Quantitative Analyses of Speech Act

This section represents the quantitative analysis and the preliminary findings of the speech acts performed in two political talk shows that hold opposite ideologies. Speech acts are first analyzed with their pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness). Then, these acts are examined with the categorization proposed by Searle (1965). Finally, the illocutionary purposes of the collected speech acts are explored. For the simplicity of presentation, *DaHuaXinWen* (大話新聞) is abbreviated as *DaHua*, and *QuanMinKaiJiang* (全民開講) as *QuanMin* in the following sections.

4.1.1. Direct and Indirect Speech Acts in The Talk Shows

This section represents the directness and indirectness of the speech acts performed in the talk-show data. It is hypothesized in this study that indirect speech act is more often used than direct speech act in political talk shows (see hypothesis A on page 4 of this thesis), and that the pragmatic strategies are applied differently in ideologically opposite shows (see hypothesis C-1 on page 5 of this thesis). Table 12 presents how direct and indirect speech acts are used in *DaHua* and *QuanMin*, and Table 13 compares the distribution of direct and indirect speech acts of the two shows.

Table 12. Comparison of *direct* and *indirect* speech acts in the two individual talk shows

Names of talk show Pragmatic strategies	大話新聞	全民開講
Direct speech act	12.58 (165)	31.62 (346)
Indirect speech act	87.42 (1147)	69.94 (805)
Total	100.00 (1312)	100.00 (1151)

Note: $\chi^2 = 112.064$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.000$

According to Table 12, indirect speech act is generally performed more frequently than direct speech act in political talk shows. The result is consistent with hypothesis A. As to the ideological influence on the individual talk show, the frequency gap between direct and indirect speech act varies according to their political attitudes. Specifically, among the speech acts used in each show, *DaHua* uses indirect speech act 6.95 times more often than direct speech act (87.42% vs. 12.58%) but *QuanMin* only uses indirect speech act 2.33 times more often than direct speech act (69.94% vs. 31.62%).

Table 13. Cross-show comparison of *direct* and *indirect* speech acts

Names of talk show Pragmatic strategies	大話新聞	全民開講	Total
Direct speech act	32.29 (165)	67.71 (346)	100.00 (511)
Indirect speech act	58.76 (1147)	41.24 (805)	100.00 (1952)

Note: $\chi^2 = 112.064$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.000$

According to Table 13, *QuanMin* uses direct speech act 2.08 times more often than *DaHua* does (67.71% vs. 32.29%); on the contrary, *DaHua* uses indirect speech act 1.42 times more often than direct speech act does (58.76% vs. 41.24%). Such distributional disparity does not conform to hypothesis C-1. In fact, it is the show challenging the government that uses more indirect speech acts. The great amount of indirect speech act in *DaHua* is due to its heavy condemnation toward the government

(a type of SA that is mostly expressed indirectly¹⁴). As to the minor difference between the frequency of indirect speech act and direct speech act in *QuanMin*, it is because *QuanMin* puts its efforts on giving information (the type of direct SA often expressed directly) as well as condemning the government. In all, political ideology affects the pragmatic strategies applied in the talk shows: *DaHua*, holding the opposition political party's stance, tends to perform more indirect speech acts, while *QuanMin*, as the supporter of the ruling party, performs more direct speech act.

4.1.2. Speech Acts Categories in the Talk Shows

This section represents the distribution of illocutionary acts by Searle's categorization (1979): *assertive*, *expressive*, *directive*, *commissive*, and *declarative*. Due to the purpose of commentary and the necessity of filling background information in political talk shows, this thesis hypothesizes that the frequency order of illocutionary categories is: expressive > assertive > directive > commissive > declarative (see hypothesis B-1 on page 4 of this thesis), and that political inclination would result in different choice of speech act categories (see hypothesis C-2 on page 5 of this thesis).

4.1.2.1. Speech Acts Categories

This section depicts the distribution of the three speech act categories: assertive, expressive, directive, commissive, and declarative. Table 14 demonstrates how the speech act categories are used in *DaHua* and *QuanMin*, and Table 15 compares the distribution of speech acts categories between the two shows.

¹⁴ Details represented in Table 24 and Table 25

Table 14. Comparison of speech act categories in the two individual talk shows

Names of talk show Speech act Categories	大話新聞	全民開講
Assertive	6.71 (88)	29.11 (335)
Expressive	92.00 (1207)	59.77 (688)
Directive	1.30 (17)	11.12 (128)
Total	100.00 (1312)	100.00 (1151)

Note: $\chi^2 = 362.369$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.000$

Table 14 exhibits that, in terms of illocutionary act categories in political talk show, Expressive is the most often used category, followed by Assertive, and Directive the least. Comparing this distribution with hypothesis B-1, it is found that, except for the fact that Declarative and Commissive are not applied to the genre of political talk show, the frequency of speech act categories is consistent with hypothesis B-1. Expressive, the category expressing the psychological status of the speaker, takes up the largest part of speech act categories because of the commentary nature in political talk show; Assertive, the category giving factual information, ranks second due to the recurring reports of background information about news events; Directive, the category asking the hearers to do something, is the least common category due to the limit of one-way communication. Though the pattern of using the three types of illocutionary acts (namely Assertive, Expressive, and Directive) appears to be the same in the two political talk shows, the use of each type of illocutionary act reveals distributional differences, as represented in Table 15.

Table 15. Cross-show comparison of speech act categories

Names of talk show Speech act Categories	大話新聞	全民開講	Total
Assertive	20.80 (88)	79.20 (335)	100.00 (423)
Expressive	63.69 (1207)	36.31 (688)	100.00 (1895)
Directive	11.72 (17)	88.28 (128)	100.00 (145)

Note: $\chi^2 = 362.369$, $df = 2$, $p = 0.000$

In Table 15, it is revealed that, on the part of Expressive, *DaHua* uses it 1.75 times more often than *QuanMin* does (63.69% vs. 36.31%); as to Assertive, *QuanMin* conversely performs it 3.81 times more than *DaHua* does (79.20% vs. 20.80%); in terms of Directive, *QuanMin* overwhelmingly uses it 7.53 times more often than *DaHua* does (88.28% vs. 11.72%). Such distribution of speech act categories is strongly related to political inclinations. *DaHua*, holding the opposite political stance from the ruling party, focuses solely on criticizing the government's post-catastrophe management and hence uses more Expressive than *QuanMin* does. On the contrary, *QuanMin*, standing on the same side with the ruling party, focuses more on giving information about natural catastrophe so as to absolve the government from malpractice, and consequently performs more Assertive than *DaHua* does. This result is consistent with hypothesis C-2. Also, to show its support to the government, *QuanMin* gives much suggestion to the catastrophic event and therefore performs many Directives. However, such frequent usage does not appear in *DaHua* because the act means believing in the ruling party, which is against *DaHua*'s political stance. In all, political ideology affects the speech act categories performed in the talk shows: Expressive is more preferable for the opposition party (*DaHua*) while Assertive and Directive are much more preferred for people holding a stance of supporting the ruling party (*QuanMin*).

4.1.2.2. Speech Acts Categories and Pragmatic Strategies

To discuss further on the use of speech acts in political talk shows, the following paragraphs examine the interaction between pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness) and illocutionary act categories. Table 16 displays the use of direct and indirect speech act categories in *DaHua* and *QuanMin*, and Table 17 compares the distribution of direct and indirect speech act categories between the two shows.

Table 16. Comparison of *direct* and *indirect* speech act category in the two individual talk shows

Names of talk show Speech act Categories	大話新聞	全民開講
Direct speech act		
Assertive	50.30 (83)	55.78 (193)
Expressive	40.61 (67)	17.05 (59)
Directive	9.09 (15)	27.17 (94)
Total	100.00 (165)	100.00 (346)
Note: $\chi^2 = 42.661, df = 2, p = 0.000$		
Indirect speech act		
Assertive	0.44 (5)	17.64 (142)
Expressive	99.39 (1140)	78.14 (629)
Directive	0.17 (2)	4.22 (34)
Total	100.00 (1147)	100.00 (805)
Note: $\chi^2 = 1218.507, df = 2, p = 0.000$		

Similar to the patterns found in Table 12 and Table 14, it is noticed in Table 16 that the frequency gap of illocutionary act categories in direct/indirect expression exhibits some distributional differences between the two shows. First, *DaHua* uses direct Assertive nearly 10% more than direct Expressive (50.30% vs. 40.61%), yet the gap increases to 38.73% in *QuanMin* (55.78% vs. 17.05%). Second, indirect Expressive is 98.95% more than indirect Assertive in *DaHua* (99.39% vs. 0.44%) while only 60.5% in *QuanMin* (78.14% vs. 17.64%). Third, direct Directive is minor in *DaHua* (9.09%) but it takes up nearly one-third of the direct speech act in *QuanMin* (27.17%). In all, in terms of direct speech act, *QuanMin* performs more direct Assertive and direct Directive, and *DaHua* expresses more indirect Expressive; in terms of indirect speech act, the two shows share the same pattern of using speech act categories. In other words, hypothesis B-1 is only verified in indirect speech act.

Table 17. Cross-show comparison of categories of *direct* and *indirect* speech acts

Names of Speech act Categories \ talk show	大話新聞	全民開講	Total
Direct Assertive	30.18 (83)	70.18 (193)	100.00 (275)
Indirect Assertive	3.40 (5)	99.32 (142)	100.00 (147)
Direct Expressive	53.17 (67)	46.83 (59)	100.00 (126)
Indirect Expressive	64.44 (1140)	35.56 (629)	100.00 (1769)
Direct Directive	13.76 (15)	86.24 (94)	100.00 (109)
Indirect Directive	5.56 (2)	94.44 (34)	100.00 (36)

Note: $\chi^2 = 396.511$, $df = 5$, $p = 0.000$

In Table 17, the distributional divergence between the two is even clearer. Hypothesis C-2 is verified in both direct and indirect speech act category. Overall, the tendency of using direct Assertive and direct Directive over indirect ones in *QuanMin* is the consequence of concerning hearers' comprehension toward factual information. As to the high frequency of using indirect Expressive over direct one in *DaHua*, it is for the purpose of impartial report as well as the illocutionary force. In terms of the nature of Expressive—expressing subjective judgment, indirect expression conceals the political inclination of the show and maintains impartial report in a sense; as for the force of Expressive, indirectness helps to accumulate the illocutionary force of illocutionary acts and intensifies *DaHua*'s condemnation to the government.

4.1.3. Illocutionary Purposes of Speech Act Categories in the Talk Shows

All the utterances in the data are examined and identified to their illocutionary purposes. This section represents the distribution of these illocutionary purposes in the ideologically opposite talk shows and displays the results by illocutionary act category.

4.1.3.1. Illocutionary Purposes of Assertive

Table 18 and exhibits the illocutionary purposes under the category of Assertive in *DaHua* and *QuanMin*, and Table 19 compares the distribution of these illocutionary purposes between the two shows.

Table 18. Comparison of illocutionary purposes of Assertive in the two individual shows¹⁵

names of talk show		大話新聞	全民開講
speech act categories			
Assertive	informing	93.18 (82)	60.00 (201)
	defense	0.00 (0)	36.42 (122)
	clarification	3.41 (3)	0.90 (3)
	correction	2.27 (2)	0.90 (3)
	agreement	0.00 (0)	0.90 (3)
	justification	0.00 (0)	0.60 (2)
	confirmation	1.14 (1)	0.30 (1)
Total		100.00 (88)	100.00 (335)

Note: $\chi^2 = 50.088$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.000$

As Table 18 indicates, among the illocutionary purposes of Assertive, informing (giving factual information) is the main speech act performed in political talk shows (93.18% in *DaHua* and 60.00% in *QuanMin*). Such a high frequency of use is a consequence of speakers' need to provide background information about the landslide and the post-disaster situation in order to lay the ground for the coming commentary.

¹⁵ The column in shade is highlighted for its significant number of distribution.

Table 19. Cross-show comparison of illocutionary purposes of Assertive¹⁶

names of talk show		大話新聞	全民開講	Total
		speech act categories		
Assertive	informing	28.98 (82)	71.02 (201)	100.00 (283)
	defense	0.00 (0)	100.00 (122)	100.00 (122)
	clarification	50.00 (3)	50.00 (3)	100.00 (6)
	correction	40.00 (2)	60.00 (3)	100.00 (5)
	agreement	0.00 (0)	100.00 (3)	100.00 (3)
	justification	0.00 (0)	100.00 (2)	100.00 (2)
	confirmation	50.00 (1)	50.00 (1)	100.00 (2)

Note: $\chi^2=50.088$, $df=6$, $p=0.000$

Nonetheless, according to Table 19, the frequency of informing varies in the two shows. Specifically, the pan-blue party show, *QuanMin*, performs informing 2.45 times more often than *DaHua* does (71.02% vs. 28.98%). By providing large amount of information about the disaster, *QuanMin* focuses on the natural causes of massive death and therefore alleviates the blame onto the ruling party's malpractice. In addition to the frequency gap of informing, another illocutionary purpose—defense—also represents distributional divergence. In Table 19, it exhibits that defense is an act performed only in *QuanMin* and never in *DaHua*. This all-or-none distribution clearly reflects that *QuanMin*, as a pan-blue show, tends to perform the speech acts that are beneficial to the government; but *DaHua*, the pan-green show, is reluctant to perform such supportive illocutionary acts.

4.1.3.2. Illocutionary Purposes of Expressive

In addition to the distributional divergence revealed in using illocutionary purposes of Assertive, the illocutionary purposes of Expressive also distribute differently in the two shows. Table 20 demonstrates the illocutionary purposes under the category of Expressive in *DaHua* and *QuanMin* and Table 21 compares the distribution of these illocutionary purposes between the two shows.

¹⁶ Ibid note 15.

Table 20. Comparison of illocutionary purposes of Expressive in the two individual talk shows¹⁷

speech act categories \ names of talk show		大話新聞	全民開講
		Expressive	condemnation
praising	1.82 (22)		2.33 (16)
sympathizing	0.99 (12)		5.38 (37)
thanking	0.08 (1)		0.15 (1)
apology	0.00 (0)		0.15 (1)
Total		100.00 (1207)	100.00 (688)

Note: $\chi^2 = 36.231$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.000$

As represented in Table 20, condemnation accounts for the majority (over 90%) of Expressive in both shows. This high frequency of use indicates that criticism, especially the negative ones, is the main purpose of political talk shows.

Table 21. Cross-show comparison of illocutionary purposes of Expressive¹⁸

speech act categories \ names of talk show		大話新聞	全民開講	Total
		Expressive	condemnation	64.93 (1172)
praising	57.89 (22)		42.11 (16)	100.00 (38)
sympathizing	24.49 (12)		75.51 (37)	100.00 (49)
thanking	50.00 (1)		50.00 (1)	100.00 (2)
apology	0.00 (0)		100.00 (1)	100.00 (1)

Note: $\chi^2 = 36.231$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.000$

Nonetheless, as represented in Table 21, there is distributional divergence of the use of condemnation in the two shows. Specifically, *DaHua* performs condemnation 1.85 times more often than *QuanMin* does (64.93% vs. 35.07%). This distributional divergence is the consequence of two factors. First, *DaHua*, the pan-green show, gives large amount of criticism to serve the obligation of supervising the government. Second, the pan-blue show uses relatively less condemnation in order to minimize unfavorable evaluation to the government.

¹⁷ Ibid note 15 on page 79.

¹⁸ Ibid note 15 on page 79.

4.1.3.3. Illocutionary Purposes of Directive

It is not only the illocutionary purposes of Assertive and Expressive exhibiting distributional divergence, those of Directive also reveal different pattern of use.

Table 22 displays the illocutionary purposes under the category of Directive in *DaHua* and *QuanMin* and Table 23 compares the distribution of these illocutionary purposes between the two shows.

Table 22. Comparison of illocutionary purposes of Directive in the two individual talk shows¹⁹

speech act categories \ names of talk show		大話新聞	全民開講
		Directive	suggestion
request	11.76 (2)		11.72 (15)
inquiry	0.00 (0)		16.41 (21)
warning	0.00 (0)		14.06 (18)
Total		100.00 (17)	100.00 (128)

Note: $\chi^2 = 7.443$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.059$

In terms of Directive, Table 22 shows that suggestion is used most often in both shows. However, the suggested resolutions in the two shows are different from each other: *DaHua* proposes advice for the typhoon victims while *QuanMin* puts forward guideline of rescue and plans of reconstruction for the government. These different kinds of ‘suggestion’ indicate the ideological divergence between the two shows.

Table 23. Cross-show comparison of illocutionary purposes of Directive²⁰

speech act categories \ names of talk show		大話新聞	全民開講	Total
		Directive	suggestion	16.85 (15)
request	11.76 (2)		88.24 (15)	100.00 (17)
inquiry	0.00 (0)		100.00 (21)	100.00 (21)
warning	0.00 (0)		100.00 (18)	100.00 (18)

Note: $\chi^2 = 7.443$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.059$

¹⁹ Ibid note 15 on page 79.

²⁰ Ibid note 15 on page 79.

Moreover, Table 23 presents the distributional divergence in the two shows. Specifically, *QuanMin* uses suggestion 4.93 times more often than *DaHua* does (83.15% vs. 16.85%). Such divergence in distribution, again, indicates that *QuanMin* devotes its attention to helping the government and giving beneficial instruction while *DaHua* avoids doing so.

4.1.3.4. Illocutionary Purposes of Speech Act Categories and the Pragmatic

Strategies Related

As represented in Figure 4 (see page 27 of this thesis), when speakers perform each illocutionary act, they can achieve it either directly or indirectly. That is, pragmatic strategies play important roles in the process. Table 24 and Table 25 display the distribution of all the illocutionary purposes in the two shows by pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness)

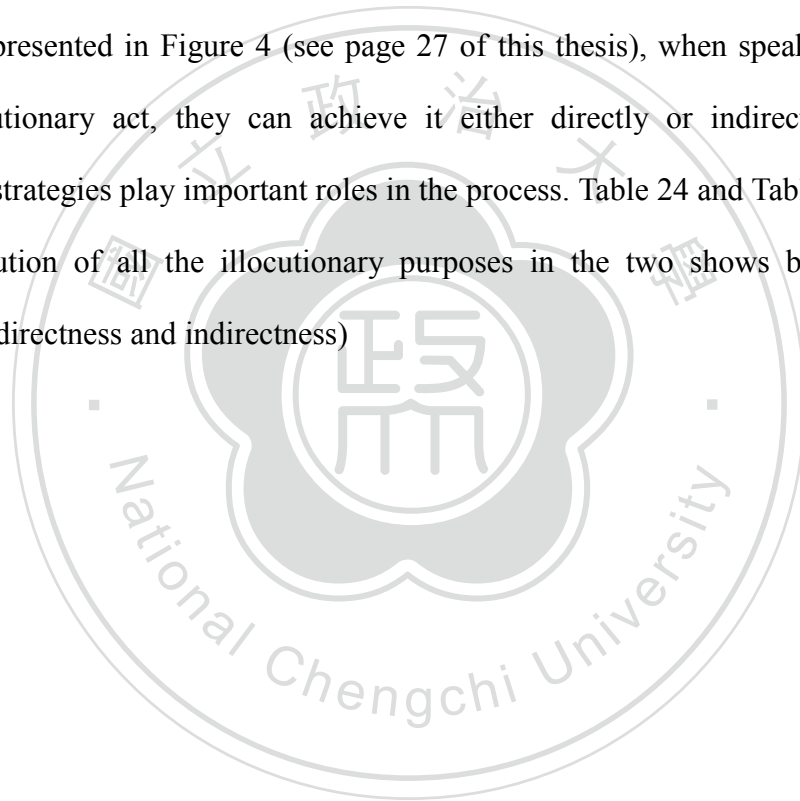


Table 24. Comparison of *direct* and *indirect* illocutionary purposes in the two individual talk shows²¹

speech act categories		names of talk show	大話新聞	全民開講
Direct	Assertive	informing	5.87 (77)	15.46 (178)
		clarification	0.23 (3)	0.26 (3)
		correction	0.15 (2)	0.26 (3)
		justification	0.00 (0)	0.17 (2)
		confirmation	0.08 (1)	0.26 (3)
		agreement	0.00 (0)	0.09 (1)
		defense	0.00 (0)	0.26 (3)
	Expressive	condemnation	3.96 (52)	3.48 (40)
		sympathizing	0.53 (7)	1.39 (16)
		praising	0.53 (7)	0.09 (1)
		thanking	0.08 (1)	0.09 (1)
		apology	0.00 (0)	0.09 (1)
	Directive	suggestion	0.99 (13)	4.69 (54)
request		0.15 (2)	0.78 (9)	
inquiry		0.00 (0)	1.82 (21)	
warning		0.00 (0)	0.87 (10)	
Indirect	Assertive	informing	0.38 (5)	2.00 (23)
		defense	0.00 (0)	10.34 (119)
	Expressive	condemnation	85.37 (1120)	51.52 (593)
		sympathizing	0.38 (5)	1.82 (21)
		praising	1.14 (15)	1.30 (15)
	Directive	suggestion	0.15 (2)	1.74 (20)
		request	0.00 (0)	0.52 (6)
warning		0.00 (0)	0.70 (8)	
Total			100.00 (1312)	100.00 (1151)

Note: $\chi^2 = 440.97$, $df = 23$, $p = 0.000$

Table 24 indicates that speakers in political talk show incline to express some illocutionary purposes directly and others indirectly. Specifically, informing and suggestion are illocutionary purposes that are more often conveyed in indirect strategy²²; hearers' ease of comprehension accounts for such phenomenon. In contrast, condemnation and praising are more often performed by indirect strategy in the two

²¹ The column in shade is highlighted for its significant number or the great difference between the two shows

²² Direct informing vs. indirect informing—*DaHua* (5.87% vs. 0.38%); *QuanMin* (15.46% vs. 2.00%)
Direct suggestion vs. indirect suggestion—*DaHua* (0.99% vs. 0.15%); *QuanMin* (4.69% vs. 1.74%)

shows²³; that is a consequence of concealing the show's partiality as well as increasing the force of condemnation.

Table 25. Cross-show comparison of *direct* and *indirect* illocutionary purposes²⁴

speech act categories		names of talk show	大話新聞	全民開講	Total
Direct	Assertive	informing	30.20 (77)	69.80 (178)	100.00 (255)
		clarification	50.00 (3)	50.00 (3)	100.00 (6)
		correction	40.00 (2)	60.00 (3)	100.00 (5)
		justification	0.00 (0)	100.00 (2)	100.00 (2)
		confirmation	50.00 (1)	50.00 (1)	100.00 (2)
		agreement	0.00 (0)	100.00 (3)	100.00 (1)
		defense	0.00 (0)	100.00 (3)	100.00 (3)
	Expressive	condemnation	56.52 (52)	43.48 (40)	100.00 (92)
		sympathizing	30.43 (7)	69.57 (16)	100.00 (23)
		praising	87.50 (7)	12.50 (1)	100.00 (8)
		thanking	50.00 (1)	50.00 (1)	100.00 (2)
		apology	0.00 (0)	100.00 (1)	100.00 (1)
	Directive	suggestion	19.40 (13)	80.60 (54)	100.00 (67)
		request	18.18 (2)	81.82 (9)	100.00 (11)
inquiry		0.00 (0)	100.00 (21)	100.00 (21)	
warning		0.00 (0)	100.00 (10)	100.00 (10)	
Indirect	Assertive	informing	17.86 (5)	82.14 (23)	100.00 (28)
		defense	0.00 (0)	100.00 (119)	100.00 (119)
	Expressive	condemnation	65.38 (1120)	34.62 (593)	100.00 (1713)
		praising	50.00 (15)	50.00 (15)	100.00 (30)
		sympathizing	19.23 (5)	80.77 (21)	100.00 (26)
	Directive	request	0.00 (0)	100.00 (6)	100.00 (6)
		suggestion	9.09 (2)	90.91 (20)	100.00 (22)
warning		0.00 (0)	100.00 (8)	100.00 (8)	

Note: $\chi^2 = 440.97$, $df = 23$, $p = 0.000$

Despite the general pattern indicated in Table 24, there is different distribution between the illocutionary purposes in the two shows. Table 25 demonstrates distributional divergence on direct and indirect speech acts in *DaHua* and *QuanMin*. It is shown that *QuanMin* uses informing and suggestion more often than *DaHua* does, either directly or indirectly; contrarily, *DaHua* uses both direct and indirect

²³ Indirect condemnation vs. direct condemnation—*DaHua* (85.37% vs. 3.96%); *QuanMin* (51.52% vs. 3.48%)
Indirect praising vs. direct praising—*DaHua* (1.14% vs. 0.53%); *QuanMin* (1.30% vs. 0.09%)

²⁴ Ibid 21 on page 83.

condemnation more often than *QuanMin* does. Another noteworthy divergence is the distribution of defense. As exhibited, both direct and indirect defense never appear in *DaHua*. Figure 5 represents the main illocutionary purposes (including indirect condemnation, direct informing, direct suggestion, and indirect defense) in political talk shows.

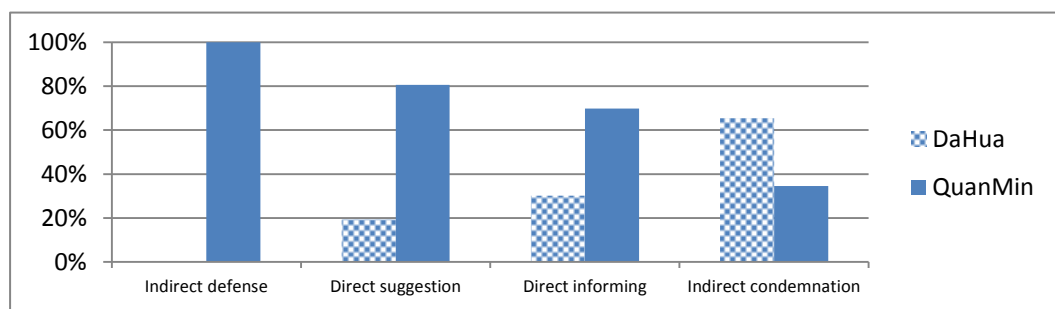


Figure 5. Cross-show comparison of major illocutionary purposes

It shows that political talk shows perform more speech act that is favorable to their political position (or unfavorable to the opposite side) and that they use less speech act that is unfavorable to their political position (or favorable to the opposite side). And therefore, as far as speech act that favors the ruling party speaking, *QuanMin*, being a supporter of the ruling party, uses informing, defense, and suggestion more to help the government and alleviate the blame on it, while *DaHua*, a supporter of the opposition party, does not do so; on the contrary, as far as speech acts that are against the ruling party, *DaHua* is devoted to condemning the government, while *QuanMin* avoids doing that.

4.2. Quantitative Analyses of Condemnation

This section represents the distribution of the major speech act in political talk shows—condemnation. In the following paragraphs, condemnation is analyzed from the pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness) and the number of layer.

4.2.1. Direct and Indirect Condemnations

Table 26 and Table 27 display the distribution of condemnation by the pragmatic strategy (directness and indirectness).

Table 26. Comparison of *direct* and *indirect* condemnation in the two individual talk shows

names of talk show types of condemnation	大話新聞	全民開講
Direct Condemnation	4.44 (52)	6.32 (40)
Indirect Condemnation	95.56 (1120)	93.68 (593)
Total	100.00 (1172)	100.00 (633)

Note: $\chi^2=3.01$, $df=1$, $p=0.083$

As represented in Table 24, condemnation is the most frequently applied illocutionary purpose in the two political talk shows. Table 26 further indicates that, as far as pragmatic strategies are concerned, indirect condemnation is used overwhelmingly more than direct one in both *DaHua* and *QuanMin*. Such distribution is due to the concern of the appropriateness and the force of condemnation. On the one hand, when performing indirect condemnation, speakers conceal their illocutionary purposes in other forms and, by that, they avoid shaping the image of irrational (partial) commentary and forge the impression of rational (impartial) discussion in the show; on the other hand, condemnation is more forceful when expressed indirectly.

Table 27. Cross-show comparison of *direct* and *indirect* condemnation

names of talk show types of condemnation	大話新聞	全民開講	Total
Direct Condemnation	56.52 (52)	43.48 (40)	100.00 (92)
Indirect Condemnation	65.38 (1120)	34.62 (593)	100.00 (1713)

Note: $\chi^2=3.01$, $df=1$, $p=0.083$

Though *DaHua* and *QuanMin* share similar pattern of using indirect condemnation over direct ones, there is different amount of condemnation applied in the two shows. Specifically, *DaHua* uses direct condemnation 1.3 times more than *QuanMin* does (56.52% vs. 43.48%), and performs indirect condemnation 1.89 times more than *QuanMin* does (65.38% vs. 34.62%). It shows that the pan-green show, *DaHua*, devotes more on the action which is harmful to the ruling party; by doing so, *DaHua* serves its function of a pro-opposition party—supervising the government’s post-catastrophe action.

4.2.2. Two-layered Condemnations and Multi-layered Condemnations

To further examine the use of condemnation in political talk shows, this thesis identifies condemnation by different degree of indirectness. Two types of indirect condemnation are classified: *two-layered condemnations* refer to condemnations that are derived from a single process of inference, and *multi-layered condemnations* are those derived from multiple inferences.²⁵ Table 28 presents the use of *two-layered condemnation* and *multi-layered condemnation* in *DaHua* and *QuanMin*, and Table 29 compares the distribution of these two types of condemnation in the two shows.

Table 28. Comparison of *two-layered* and *multi-layered condemnation* in the two individual talk shows

types of condemnation \ names of talk show	大話新聞	全民開講
	% (n.)	% (n.)
Multi-layered	87.68 (982)	86.00 (510)
Two-layered	12.32 (138)	14.00 (83)
Total	100.00 (1120)	100.00 (593)

Note: $\chi^2 = 0.968$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.325$

²⁵ The inferential process of indirect condemnation (example (23) on page 41) is the representative example of multi-layered condemnation in this study.

It is earlier indicated (in Table 26) that indirect condemnation is the speech act used most often in political talk shows. Table 28 further describes that indirect condemnations with longer inferential process are preferred in the two shows. Specifically, multi-layered condemnations are used over 6 times more often than two-layered ones (*DaHua*: 87.68% vs. 12.32%; *QuanMin*: 86% vs. 14%). This result is consistent with our inference—when it comes to condemnation, more indirect is more preferable.

Table 29. Cross-show comparison of *two-layered* and *multi-layered* condemnation

types of condemnation	names of talk show	大話新聞	全民開講	Total
		% (n.)	% (n.)	% (n.)
Multi-layered		65.82 (982)	34.18 (510)	100.00 (1492)
Two-layered		62.44 (138)	37.56 (83)	100.00 (221)

Note: $\chi^2 = 0.968$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.325$

In spite of the shared pattern, Table 29 reveals distributional difference between two-layered and multi-layered condemnations in the two shows. As represented, be it two-layered or multi-layered, *DaHua* (the pan-green show) uses both types more than *QuanMin* (the pan-blue show) does. It is again confirmed that political talk shows are devoted to hurting those of the opposite stance and avoiding hurting those on their side. That is, the amount of two-layered and multi-layered condemnations varies by the political stances of the shows.

4.2.3. Secondary Speech Acts of Multi-layered Condemnations

Since the number of multi-layered condemnation is significant, this thesis would focus on it. Table 30 and Table 31 represent the distribution of multi-layered condemnation by its Secondary Speech Act.

Table 30. Comparison of *multi-layered condemnation* in the two individual talk shows²⁶

speech act of Indirect condemnation	Names of talk show	Multi-layered <i>Indirect condemnation</i>	
		大話新聞	全民開講
		% (n.)	% (n.)
Informing		52.14 (512)	60.20 (307)
Request		19.04 (187)	14.71 (75)
Clarification		9.37 (92)	7.45 (38)
Suggestion		5.50 (54)	3.53 (18)
Praising		3.97 (39)	2.16 (11)
Correction		2.55 (25)	2.75 (14)
Justification		1.02 (10)	2.16 (11)
Inquiry		1.53 (15)	0.98 (5)
Concession		1.22 (12)	1.18 (6)
Warning		0.51 (5)	0.98 (5)
Sympathizing		1.32 (13)	1.18 (6)
Agreement		0.92 (9)	1.18 (6)
Apology		0.81 (8)	0.78 (4)
Confirmation		0.10 (1)	0.78 (4)
Total		100.00 (982)	100.00 (510)

Note: $\chi^2 = 24.941$, $df = 13$, $p = 0.024$

In Table 30, multi-layered condemnation is further subcategorized into 14 types of Secondary Speech Act. Among them, informing, request, clarification, suggestion, and praising represent more than 85% of indirect condemnation. First, informing is the most-frequently-used Secondary Speech Act performing condemnation in political talk shows. Referring to factual information, speakers increase their credibility of the criticism and therefore enhance their illocutionary force. Second, request, which is composed of rhetorical question, asking for information, and appealing for hearers' empathy, is used to perform about 16.88% of indirect condemnation. By this type of Secondary Speech Act, speakers resort their condemnation to hearers' solidarity to the victims and their detachment to the ruling party. Third, suggestion conveys nearly 5% of indirect condemnation in political talk shows. Speakers who adopt this Secondary Speech Act either give 'true' suggestion that indicates the government's inadequacy in

²⁶ Ibid note 15 on page 79.

the rescue action, or give ‘false’ suggestion that is sarcastic to the government’s malpractice. And fourth, praising covers over 2.16% of use in both shows. In this type of Secondary Speech Act, speakers praise the volunteers’ devotion to the rescue action and, by that, they condemn the government for not having the same devotedness. In all, multi-layered indirect condemnation is mostly wrapped in secondary speech acts of Assertives and Directives.

Table 31. Cross-show comparison of *multi-layered condemnation*²⁷

SSA of Indirect condemnation	Names of talk show	Multi-layered <i>Indirect condemnation</i>		
		大話新聞	全民開講	Total
		% (n.)	% (n.)	% (n.)
Informing		62.52 (512)	37.48 (307)	100.00 (819)
Request		71.37 (187)	28.63 (75)	100.00 (262)
Clarification		70.77 (92)	29.23 (38)	100.00 (130)
Suggestion		75.00 (54)	25.00 (18)	100.00 (72)
Praising		78.00 (39)	22.00 (11)	100.00 (50)
Correction		64.10 (25)	35.90 (14)	100.00 (39)
Justification		47.62 (10)	52.38 (11)	100.00 (21)
Inquiry		75.00 (15)	25.00 (5)	100.00 (20)
Concession		66.67 (12)	33.33 (6)	100.00 (18)
Warning		50.00 (5)	50.00 (5)	100.00 (10)
Sympathizing		68.42 (13)	31.58 (6)	100.00 (19)
Agreement		60.00 (9)	40.00 (6)	100.00 (15)
Apology		66.67 (8)	33.33 (4)	100.00 (12)
Confirmation		20.00 (1)	80.00 (4)	100.00 (5)

Note: $\chi^2=24.941$, $df=13$, $p=0.024$

Despite the similar ways of expressing condemnation, in Table 31, *DaHua* and *QuanMin* display different distribution and referential content of multi-layered condemnation. In terms of the distribution, *DaHua* uses each type of secondary speech act more than *QuanMin* does. And that reflects *DaHua*’s involvement of criticizing the government and *QuanMin*’s avoidance of blemishing the government. In terms of referential content, the two shows focus on different topics in the

²⁷ Ibid note 15 on page 79.

multi-layered condemnations. For example, when using the Secondary Speech Act—informing, *DaHua* focuses on the topics that are hostile to the ruling party, including the President's inappropriate statements and the massive victims waiting for rescue while *QuanMin* concentrates on the disaster itself, including the details of the typhoon and the landslide afterwards. The former way ascribes the delayed rescue to the government's malpractice while the latter refers to the natural causes as the source of ineffective rescue. In this way, *DaHua* considers the massive victim as a man-made disaster caused by the ruling party, but *QuanMin* regards it as a natural disaster.



Chapter 5

Conclusion

This chapter concludes the thesis based on the general findings of the previous chapter. And, based on the result of the present study, this chapter offers suggestion for future sociopragmatic studies on political talk shows.

5.1. Summary of The Major Findings

This section depicts the findings of this thesis. Section 5.1.1 depicts this research's study questions, hypotheses of speech acts in the political talk shows and the corresponding findings. Section 5.1.2 presents the findings about the use of condemnation in specific.

5.1.1. Speech Acts in General

To answer the study questions and verify the hypotheses of this study, findings of the illocutionary acts in political shows can be divided into three parts: pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness of speech acts), speech act categories, and the influence of political ideologies.

1. Strategies of directness and indirectness of speech acts

Research question A: How strategies of directness and indirectness are applied in political talk shows?

Hypothesis A: In political talk shows, indirect speech acts are more frequently used than direct speech act in order to avoid impoliteness which may cause lawsuits.

Finding A: The statistical results of this study show that indirect speech act is performed significantly more frequently than indirect speech act in political talk shows. Hypothesis A is thus verified.

2. *Choices of speech act categories and illocutionary purposes*

Research question B: What illocutionary purposes are sought in political talk shows?

Hypothesis B-1: In political talk shows, the priority order of the types of illocutionary acts is: expressive > assertive > directive > commissive > declarative. To be specific, based on the commentary nature of political talk shows, expressive is more frequently used than the other four types of illocutionary act. Also, since offering factual information for commentary is necessary, assertive is the second important category of speech act.

Finding B-1: It is found in the study that, in general, Expressive is the most often used category, followed by Assertive, and Directive the least. The same order of frequency is found in the use of indirect speech act categories. However, in direct speech act categories, the order of frequency is: Assertive > Expressive > Directive. In all, hypothesis B-1 is verified only in indirect speech act categories, not in direct ones.

Hypothesis B-2: Due to the commentary nature of political talk shows, the major illocutionary act used is condemnation. Moreover, in order to build the background knowledge for the commentary, informing is bound to be performed in political talk shows, and that makes informing the second important illocutionary act.

Finding B-2: In general, condemnation is prone to be the speech act used the most and followed by informing. That is, hypothesis B-2 is verified in this study. What should be noticed is that hypothesis B-2 cannot be established once the factor of directness and indirectness strategies is involved. In fact, the frequency of the three major illocutionary purposes in each political talk show varies, as displayed below.

- i. Illocutionary purposes that are directly expressed:

DaHua: Informing > Condemnation > Suggestion

QuanMin: Informing > Suggestion > Condemnation

- ii. Illocutionary purposes that are indirectly expressed:

DaHua: Condemnation > Praising > informing

QuanMin: Condemnation > Informing > Suggestion

Such results indicate that *DaHua*, being against the ruling party in political inclination, avoid giving supportive speech (i.e. suggestion) to the government in direct speech act, while *QuanMin* is prone to do so. In indirect speech act, *DaHua* focuses more on praising the volunteers and giving information against the government in order to emphasize the President's incompetence, while *QuanMin* resorts the disaster itself and gives more information about the current situation and proposes resolution to the government.

3. *Influences of political ideologies*

Research question C: How political ideology affects choices of strategies of directness and indirectness applied in political talk shows?

Hypothesis C-1: Political inclination will determine choices between direct and indirect speech acts. The talk shows inclining to the ruling party (i.e. pan-blue clique) tend to use indirect speech acts more to reduce the threats to the government's face, while the opposition political party (i.e. pan-green clique) uses more direct speech acts in order to show their intensive opposition to the government and condemnation to the governmental policies.

Finding C-1: The data of this study shows that *QuanMin* uses direct speech act more often than *DaHua*, and *DaHua* uses indirect speech act more often than *QuanMin* does. In other words, Hypothesis C-1 is not verified. This phenomenon may be

regarded as that the concern of avoiding lawsuits and maintaining pseudo-impartiality overrides the need to express one's political-ideological inclination; or, more likely, that condemnation can be achieved through indirect speech acts, but lawsuits and impartiality cannot be avoided through direct speech acts.

Hypothesis C-2: To weaken comments against the government, the show of the pan-blue clique uses assertives more frequently, especially informing, to lead the audience to focus on experiential facts. On the contrary, the show of pan-green clique, in order to convey comments against the government, uses expressives more frequently, especially condemnation, to describe their role to supervise and to evaluate the government's performance.

Finding C-2: Moreover, the results show that, in terms of Expressives, *DaHua* uses them more than *QuanMin* does, and in terms of Assertives and Directives, *QuanMin* uses these two types more than *DaHua* does. That is, the findings conform to hypothesis C-2. In addition, *QuanMin* uses Assertives (mostly informing) more often than *DaHua* does both directly and indirectly, and *DaHua* uses both direct and indirect Expressives (mostly condemnation) more often than *QuanMin* does. In addition, Directives (mostly suggestion) is an illocutionary purpose that *QuanMin* uses more often than *DaHua* does. That is, Hypothesis C-2 is also verified in both direct and indirect speech act category. In all, political ideology affects the way that speakers apply pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness), speech act categories, and illocutionary purposes.

5.1.2. Condemnation in Specific

Condemnation is the major illocutionary act performed in political talk shows. This section presents findings related to this type of speech act from the aspects of

pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness), the degree of indirectness, and the secondary speech act that delivers condemnation.

1. Indirect condemnation is used overwhelmingly more than direct one in both *DaHua* and *QuanMin*. This may result from speakers' avoidance of impoliteness which may cause lawsuits or the intention to maintain the pseudo-impartiality of the talk show.
2. Multi-layered condemnations are used more often than two-layered ones in both *DaHua* and *QuanMin*. In other words, indirect condemnations with longer inferential process are preferred in political talk shows. This result echoes with the above finding that speakers are prone to use indirectness to avoid lawsuits and maintain impartiality. Moreover, *DaHua* uses both types of indirect condemnation more than *QuanMin* does. This phenomenon reveals *DaHua*'s political inclination as the opposition to the ruling party.
3. The two political talk shows share similar ways of choosing the secondary speech acts to express condemnation, namely Assertives and Directives. It shows that speakers tend to use fact-oriented speech or to act like they bear the government's interest in mind when they condemn the ruling party. Still, *DaHua* uses each type of secondary speech act more than *QuanMin* does.

5.2. Concluding Remarks

The analyses and discussion of Chapter 4 have examined the relationship between speech acts and ideologies of political talk shows. It shows that political talk shows utilize some pragmatic strategies to achieve their goal of criticizing or supporting the government. Political talk shows that stand in the opposition to the ruling party (i.e. pan-green clique) tend to have indirect opinion-oriented speech; in contrast, talk shows that stand with the ruling party (i.e. pan-blue clique) incline to

perform direct fact-oriented speech more. That is, the former cannot blatantly attack the government, while the latter have to support the government discreetly. Such result reveals that intentions, ‘ideology’ in specific, are mostly tactfully wrapped in the verbal expressions. Under the premise that inferred meanings outweigh literal meanings, researchers should pay more attention on the pragmatic use of speech.

5.3. Limitations and Suggestions

This thesis attempts to examine the ideological difference of political talk shows from their uses of illocutionary acts, and tries to retrieve the ideological influences in the pragmatic strategies (directness and indirectness), speech act categories, and illocutionary purposes performed in the data. However, some limitations exist in this study. Possible solutions to these limitations could become directions for the related studies in the future.

First, the categorization of illocutionary purposes in this study is exhaustive but not completed. Although the current categorization is already a long list, certain types of illocutionary acts can be further categorized. For example, suggestion can be classified into advice and mild condemnation if possible. With a more detailed classification of the illocutionary, the ideological differences between political shows may become clearer.

Second, to simplify the multifarious categories of the speech acts in this study, the categorization system should be readjusted. For instance, the analysis of text structure is an option to start with. Specifically, it is observed in the data that certain speech acts appear in sequence. For example, condemnations are often conducted after piles of informing, and defenses would not appear without several clauses of clarification following behind. It is suggested that, behind the detailed categories of speech acts, there is a higher hierarchy in the categorization system, such as

comparison, contrast, and irony. With a higher level categorization, researchers may locate speakers' intentions even more precisely.

Third, the social factor of the study is restricted. Specifically, the political ideological factor applied in this thesis covers only the most representative sides—the blue-and-green opposition in Taiwan. In fact, based on the status quo in Taiwan, there are several different camps of 'greens' and 'blues' in the existing political ideologies. Therefore, an expanded social factor—a widened coverage of the political spectrum—is needed in the future studies. It may enable the researchers to observe a more delicate correspondence between the political ideologies and the illocutionary acts in the genre of political talk shows.

Fourth, due to the limited time and the insufficient episodes of the corpus, the linguistic correspondences to the illocutionary acts are not analyzed in the current study. Future studies amending this deficiency may provide both researchers and the general public a better understanding to speech acts performed in political talk shows or other mass media.

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