THE TRANSLATION OF IRONY
IN AUSTRALIAN POLITICAL COMMENTARY TEXTS
FROM ENGLISH INTO ARABIC

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PLEASE NOTE

The greatest amount of care has been taken while scanning this thesis,

and the best possible result has been obtained.
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STATEMENT OF AUTHENTICATION

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution.
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Key to transliteration system used in the study

The transliteration system of Arabic is chosen from various systems currently in use (see Aman, 1984; Haywood & Nahmad, 1965). For consistency, I have departed in some features from the adopted systems.

- The 'ٌ' of the definite article is not elided with suf letters, e.g. الشاعر الثائر: al-sha'bu al-thā'īru;
- Geminated consonants, i.e. with ّ: shadda, are doubled, whether represented in English with one letter or two letters, e.g. المذكّر والمؤتّم: al-mudhakkaru wa-al-mu'annathu, تأخر: ta'akhkhara.
- Morpheme boundaries are not marked but the coordination particles: و: wa and: ف: fa as well as the definite article ال: al are marked, e.g. wa-al-makhraj;
- Long vowels are written as ّأ: e.g. هذه: ḥadhith; ّى: e.g. تاجيل: ṭaṭīlu; ّع: as in موضوع: mawdu;
- Doubled vowels are written as 'iyy' (final form ّى), e.g. رسمي: rasmiyy; 'uwu' (final form ّى), e.g. مدعو: maduww.

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Table 1 Transliteration system
| ش | sin | s |
| ص | shin | sh |
| ض | säd | š |
| ض | däd | q' |
| ط | ūa' | t |
| ط | dha' | z |
| ع | 'ayn | ' |
| غ | ghayn | gh |
| ف | fa' | f |
| ق | qāf | q |
| ك | kāf | k |
| ل | lām | l |
| م | mīm | m |
| ن | nūn | n |
| ه | hā' | h |
| و | waw | w |
| ي | yā' | y |
| ى | 'alif maqṣūra | a |

**Vowels and diphthongs**

|  | fatha | a |
|  | dhamma | u |
|  | kasra | i |
|  | ā | ā |
|  | ā | ā |
|  | i | i |
|  | ay | aw |

*Note: Previously published Arabic names mentioned in this study may not conform to the above transliteration system.*
ABSTRACT

The main thesis of this study is that the translation of irony from English into Arabic in commentary texts in Australia is not amenable to traditional translation theories. The way Arabic and English speakers employ irony to express themselves reflects the linguistic and cultural distance between both languages. To tackle this problem, the study ventures into a contrastive analysis with reference to a number of linguistic and non-linguistic devices and concepts. It concentrates on the interpretation and the linguistic realisation of irony in both languages by utilising a number of contemporary linguistic models.

The research takes the view that ironic devices are the foundation of the structural development of the texts in question. To demonstrate this, the speech act and conversational theories are used. The interaction between the ironic devices and the text development constitute a framework for the overall rhetorical meaning of the text.

After an overview of the relevant literature of translation, contrastive analysis and comparative stylistics, an analysis/translation model is devised and implemented. A thorough contrastive analysis is made of English and Arabic commentary texts. Similarities and differences between the Arabic and English texts are found. Discrepancies were observed in the form, function and the number of ironic devices used in both languages.

Based on the findings seven general strategies are proposed for the translation of irony in Australian commentary texts from English into Arabic.
INTRODUCTION

Translation theories have focused, in the last twenty years or so, on macro linguistic approaches. They differed in the details of the process of achieving the goal of translation 'equivalence', but they agreed that equivalence is relevant to the texts in hand such as literary or scientific texts; and to the genres of these texts, for example novels, news reports, manuals, etc.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims at setting the strategies for the translation into Arabic of irony found in English editorials and feature articles from Australian newspapers, for the Arabic readership in Australia.

The plan to achieve this consists of five major steps: 1) Describing the lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical devices of irony used in Arabic and English editorials and feature articles; 2) describing the linguistic exponents of the rhetorical devices of irony in English and Arabic, such as how 'a pretended encouragement to the victim (of irony)' device is expressed lexically and/or grammatically; 3) Finding the relation between the ironic devices mentioned above and the coherence and text structure; 4) conducting a contrastive analysis based on the findings; 5) using the findings to suggest strategies for the translation of irony.

The description of irony that will be discussed below pertains to several linguistic disciplines and sub-disciplines: stylistics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, philosophy, behavioural linguistics, psycholinguistics. This stems from the fact that no linguistic theory can account for the description of the posited rhetorical devices. The study will tentatively try to explore this ‘discourse semantic’ area as it is called by van Dijk (1977, p. 4), thus formal devices, i.e. grammatical, lexical and graphological, are
the main concern in this account. However, although irony has been given the rank of
poetry in terms of its reliance on formal devices, I have deliberately excluded the
phonological devices, i.e. alliteration, assonance etc., because of their minor role or
irrelevance to irony. It is important to mention, however, that my description is not
comprehensive by any means, simply because this would be impossible to achieve.
My ambition, however, is to find a method for the identification and analysis of irony
and to see the degree of translation equivalence that can be reached based on the findings.

In what follows, I have given examples of the grammatical, lexical, and graphological
devices found in the texture of the texts. I have also given examples of the rhetori-
cal devices and their linguistic exponents. For illustration purposes I give below brief
eamples of how rhetorical devices will be described linguistically and cross-matched
with the linguistic devices.

Examples of Arabic Devices

Lexical
Synonyms, near-synonyms; semotactic anomalies/contrasts; repetition; collocation;
binominals; root-echo; proverb.

Grammatical
Redundancy; inversion; use of ḥāl; catenative verb construction; free indirect speech;
the use of conditional sentences; occurrence of resumptive pronouns; speech redun-
dancies; exception clause; specification.

Rhetorical devices

• Understatement:
SOURCE Text (ST): wa-hattā 'akūna ṣādiqan
ma'akum... lan yataqāda 'akhtara min 9000
dūlārin 'usbu'īyyan.

TRANSLATION: And, to be honest with you, ...
he will not receive more than $9000 a week.

Linguistic correlates

Grammatical realisation: Prepositional sentence -use of justificational preposition
(modality marker), negation, comparative, adverbial sentence, causal preposition.
• Overstatement
ST: 'asimmu al-gharbu 'adhānanā wa-
daywakhanā ...

Grammatical: nominal verbs depicting
the state of parts of the body.
Lexical: colloquial metaphor.

Translation: The West has deafened our ears
and sickened us...

Examples of English Devices

Lexical
Semotactic anomalies/contrast; repetition; compound words; modality/adverbs; col-
location; use of possessive; personification.

Grammatical
Cleft sentence/inversion; ellipsis; superlatives; free indirect speech.

Graphological
Italics; capitalised words

Rhetorical devices

• Praising in order to blame
Example: Keating creates a natural diversion
to his favour like the Australian flag,,
republicanism,...

Grammatical: reference, ellipsis.
Lexical: lexical choice.

• Overstatement
Example: Collins is an expert, in fact the champion ...

Grammatical: nominal phrase, verb,
adverb, deictic.
Lexical: Near-synonyms, collocation,
numbers.

Given the nature of these devices and the topic, my approach borders between lingui-
stics and literary criticism. Editorials and background features are considered
highly communicative in that they imply strong views and aspire to convey a sig-
nalled message to, and to motivate, the readership. This message is achieved through
various types of linguistic manipulation and usage. Based on the assumption that the
texts at hand pertain to the literary ‘non-technical’ (House 1977) genre, as will be discussed below, these texts will be treated as discourse, which, following Widdowson (1975, p.6), “attempts to show specifically how elements of linguistic text combine to create messages, how, in other words, pieces of [a] literary writing function as a form of communication.”

Setting of the Study

In Chapter 1 I tackle the notion of irony from a literary standpoint. The literary theory, particularly English, dealt comprehensively and methodologically with the notion of irony in ‘literature’. The Arabic literary criticism discussed the notion but did not stop at it as a stylistic phenomenon of the writing, as is the case with many ancient and modern Arab writers. I tried to extract from some of these dispersed discussions clues of irony employed by two famous Arab writers. However, given the intricate definition of irony and for the consistency of the use of the notion, I have contrasted the notion of irony in literature with sarcasm, satire and humour.

In Chapter 2 I discuss the analysis and interpretation of irony from various linguistic perspectives. The aim here is driven by two reasons: 1) to find a consistent norm by which the communicative function of irony could be analysed in Arabic and English; and 2) to be able to suggest plausible strategies for the translation of irony in the texts at hand. The functional theory provides an explanation of the meaning of texts ‘in the real world’, and sees language as communication and studies the co-textual (Hatim and Mason 1990) meaning of the formal features of texts. The stylistic theory accounts for the description and classification of the stylistic markers in the text, but it stops short of giving a constant and plausible account to the integral process of identification of the ‘ironic triggers’ of these stylistic markers. To cover this gap, I discuss and suggest the theory of speech act and the conversational cooperative principles. The discussion posits a three dimensional discursive functional model for the analysis of irony, namely: stylistic, sociolinguistic and rhetorical.
Further, I adopt the structural stylistics and the speech acts theories which prove useful in describing the contribution of ironic devices to the text development, i.e. their use-value in the communication (House 1977).

Chapter 3 concerns itself with the contribution of translation theory to the irony translation. The overview covers the traditional prescriptive theory of translation and the modern linguistic descriptive theory with reference to contrastive analysis and comparative stylistics. The aim is to pinpoint a relevant linguistic methodology that is applicable to the problems of irony translation.

In Chapter 4 I propose a discourse model for the analysis and translation of irony in commentary texts. The model is suggested after discussing the techniques and tools needed for a contrastive analysis on ironic texts. It consists of three components: a micro analysis tackling the texture and structure; a macro analysis describing the features that affect the communicative function of the texture and structure; and the text’s rhetorical meaning to encapsulate the message of the text based on the ironic devices and their role in the text development strategies.

To implement the analysis of the model, I chose eight texts, four in Arabic and four in English. I discussed/justified the devices I used in the analysis and gave the functional meaning of some concepts used in Arabic and English. I have also discussed/justified the data set with particular reference to the English and Arabic commentary texts in Australia. The generic features of the text type at hand along with the temporal, geographical and sociological settings are suggested to have implications on the form and content of political commentaries as well as their translation. The analyses are conducted in appendices A and B.

Chapter 5 studies the results of the analyses and highlights the matches and mismatches on both the texture and structural levels. The results were used to draw con-
clusions about the textual, functional and conversational strategies employed by each language. I discussed the conclusion in three sections: 1) forms and functions of the shared devices and language specific devices found; 2) ironic devices and textuality; and 3) the rhetorical meaning of the texts. In each account, a contrastive analysis is conducted and suggestions are made for translation equivalences on examples from the analysed texts from English into Arabic, particularly in regards to the above forms and functions.

In Chapter 6 I draw on the findings and suggest seven general strategies for the translation of irony in commentary texts from English into Arabic. Each strategy relies on examples of ironic devices from the English texts and on the model devised in chapter 4. These strategies, I assume, could be extended to other text types using irony as a text building style.

In appendix E a full translation of the analysed English texts into Arabic is carried out using the findings and testing the proposed strategies.

Limitations and Delimitations

In this research I have primarily relied on the inroads made in modern linguistics, namely discourse, functional and conversational theories. James’ (1980) conception of contrastive analysis proved a good foundation on which to build a model for the translation of irony.

The study suggests that the field of translation into Arabic needs more comprehensive and scientific research in many important areas. Suffice to think of text types such as, children’s rhymes, scientific, informative not to mention literary texts, to realise the status quo. The present work also points out that each text type requires a different translation approach to account for the ‘dominant’ linguistic features of this particu-
lar text type. This assumption is based on the fact that, in general, the translation theory is too broad and too restrictive. Too broad in terms of the claim that it is applicable to various texts, and too restrictive as far as the prescriptive approaches espoused by some translation models.

In addition to its main significance, this study sets, theoretically, a principled model for explaining the concept of irony from a modern linguistic standpoint. Thus, it is assumed that it may be of use in the translation of irony in any pair of languages. Practically, it provides a functional linguistic framework for an aspect of cross-cultural pragmatics through which new formal translation equivalences can be created.

However, as in any qualitative research, the study focuses on a small manageable size of data. The analyses, results and findings hinge on eight commentary texts. Hence it is important to say that although the study claims a contribution to the theory of translation, its contribution to the practice of translation should be seen as a guide only. By relying on the theoretical finding, other ironic devices and, more restrictively, structural strategies can be found and analysed in authentic commentary texts.
CHAPTER 1

THE CONTRIBUTION OF LITERARY THEORY

1.1 Definition of Irony

Irony is a tool that has been constantly used in literature. However, the study of irony has not matched its prevalence in literature. This stems, at least in the Western world, from the fact that irony is taken for granted or, as Muecke (1969, p. ix) put it “... to be able to be ironical is perhaps part of the definition of our [Western] civilisation ...”. Another factor may well be that irony is such a highly rhetorical and elusive tool that it is difficult to define in terms of its interpretation let alone style and language.

In his attempts to describe the variable features that affect the quality of irony, Muecke (1982, pp. 52-55) recognises the necessity for ironists “...to break with advantage the rules of art” in order to enhance irony. Muecke suggests four principles for a successful irony based on his observation that “A rhetorically effective, an aesthetically pleasing, or simply a striking irony owes its success, it would seem, largely to one or more of a small number of principles and factors” (p. 52).

These principles are: 1) the principle of economy, which implies the use of a few signals; it is used in parody, advice and encouragement, the rhetorical question and other ironical tactics; 2) the principle of high contrast. This takes place when “…there is a disparity between what might be expected and what actually happened.” (p. 53), or when there is antithesis, semotactic anomalies or internal contradiction; 3) the position of the audience, particularly in the theatre where “the quality of the irony depends very much on whether the audience already knows the outcome or true state of affairs or learns of these only when the victim learns.” (p. 54) ; 4) the topic - this factor or principle relates to the importance of emotions in generating and enhancing both the
observer's feelings toward the victim or the topic of the irony and the reader's awareness and appreciation of the irony on an equal footing, among "...the areas in which most emotional capital is invested: religion, love, morality, politics, and history" (p. 55).

This brief introduction indicates the difficulties one faces in attempting to define irony. The task becomes harder when one tries to draw the line between irony, sarcasm, satire and humour in general.

Studies devoted to irony in English have all tackled the concept from a literary/rhetorical perspective, e.g. Booth (1974), Handwerk (1985), Finlay (1990), Muecke (1969), (1982), Muir (1990), Winner (1988). Although they differ in details, these studies unanimously stress the duality of meaning in irony.

The Arabic literary theorists, on the other hand, have not given the same comprehensive account to irony as their English counterparts, especially in modern times. Instead, I have come across many reviews of the literary criticism theory of ancient Arab writers such as Al-Jaḥiz, Ibn al-Muqaffa' and Ibn Khaldūn, as well as reprints of those literary writers' and linguists' actual writings. This lack of modern studies on the topic of irony does not take anything away from the richness and importance of ancient Arab writers, especially Al-Jaḥiz.

1.2 Views on Irony in Classical and Modern Arabic

Irony is found in classical and modern Arabic literature, and its use, and thus definition, has not greatly changed over time. Writing skill was an elite practice in the ancient Arab world. Well-known writers used their skills to impress the Calif, Sultan or Emir governing their era to gain access to their courts and wealth or to save themselves from persecution. This, along with genuine 'outlaw' writers, has its implications for the use of irony whether to conceal one's feeling or to attack certain prominent figures or situations. In other words, irony was motivated by the political situa-
tions as well as the writers' personal views and feelings.

Fear was not the sole reason for irony in Arabic literature. Gifted writers have employed it as an artistic variety and great theorists have ranked it next to poetry in view of the creativity and linguistic competence required by the writer.

Al-Jāḥiz

Although, as ‘Assī (1981) argues, the use of humour in formal writing was not common in the tradition of Arabic literature, Al-Jāḥiz, who lived between 775 and 868 A.D., stands out in employing this mix and in using "...the insinuated joke and droll story" [my translation] (p. 103). ‘Assī, however, stresses the fact that there are no clear-cut concepts in Al-Jāḥiz' literary thinking that could describe that important characteristic of his works, for he uses both formal writing and irony interchangeably. That is proof, the author concluded, that:

... serious writing in Al-Jāḥiz' literature was the objective, and that humour and jokes were only a device to ensure that objective. In so doing, he takes, from his readers the burden of seriousness and the onerous intellectual processing task that accompanies serious topics. [my translation] (p. 104).

Al-Jāḥiz is one prominent writer who gains a great deal of attention in modern criticism in the Arab world. He was a thinker, linguist, rhetorician and a writer. Al-Ṣaghīr Banānī (1986, p.11) argues that Al-Jāḥiz' rhetoric "... does not deny grammar or stop at it, and from this standpoint, it is similar to modern linguistics. It aims at the study of the human parole in a scientific manner" [my translation]. It is also important to stress Al-Jāḥiz' distinction of two kinds of rhetoric, al-bayān and al-tabyīn. However, they both represent al-balāgha, i.e. rhetoric. The former represents the archetype of rhetoric for "... it cannot be learnt neither through practice nor learning. It is a pure nature and an instinct that some have in uttering the right words without a teacher. In addition to that it does not require the opinion of others. al-bayān is parole
that does not need the speaker himself (for it is involuntary) nor the hearer (for it does not consider him) [my translation]” (1986, p.12).

On the other hand “[al-tabyīn ] is directed at everyone, it is grasped through the brain, gained through practice and it necessitates the existence of others: a teacher, a speaker to utter it, and a hearer to accept it. It also, necessarily, requires various types of manipulation, as well as illustration and convincing devices [my translation]” (p. 12).

Furthermore Banāni stresses Al-Jaḥiz’ realistic, not to say linguistic, approach to al-balāgha, i.e. rhetoric. The latter considers that both al-bayān and al-tabyīn are complementary, and it is that which distinguished Al-Jaḥiz’ from his contemporaries who denied al-bayān and its plausibility.¹

In short, Al-Jaḥiz’ approach can be traced in modern literary criticism with its bi-planar view of rhetoric: the intuitive, creative and innate al-bayān, and the linguistic and scientific al-tabyīn.

This revolutionary literary theory of Al-Jaḥiz made him, as some modern critics claim, “...the head of the second school of prose in Arabic literature...” [my translation] (p.14). However, any study of irony in Arabic cannot surpass Al-Jaḥiz’ contribution in this area. His book Al-bukhalā: The Misers [my translation] reflects a criticism of a wide range of social categories in his era: his background and upbringing and his philosophical views placed him among al-muʿtazila, a theological school which introduced speculative dogmatism into Islam. This latter led to his persecution in the reigns of certain Califs, which forced him to:

express [his views and to defend his principles through] insinuation, hint and allusion ...[in addition to his] nature as a satirist, humourist and ironic writer, which benefited him to play the role of social critic in this kind of literary artistic expression, using irony and humour to criticise the evils of the society, whether with direct irony or covert irony in the shape of serious writing that covers his intention, but does not conceal it... [my translation] (Mruwwah 1985, p. 164).
Al-Jāḥiz uses many tactics in his writings, among them:

1. Personification of the abstract. Mruwwah (p. 169) argues that Al-Jāḥiz’ “... judgements and views were rarely in the shape of abstracts and absolutes. On the contrary, they were characterised by personification and embodiment in human examples that have limits, dimensions and dynamism...” [my translation].

2. Symbolism. The characters in The Miser for example “...appear constantly in the frame of the category they belong to and not restricted to their individual, specific and static frame.” [my translation] (p. 169)

3. Exaggeration.

4. Irony displayed.

5. Insinuation.

This perhaps highlights the importance of the social situation in the use of irony in the ancient Arab world as well as in modern times. The only change is the characters, i.e. the victims, and the degree of its dissemination. Irony is no longer a literary elitist form of expression, but a popular everyday event that appears in newspapers, weekly magazines, books etc. This overview of Al-Jāḥiz indicates clearly the similarity of ends and means that motivate and, to an extent, dictate ironic writing in the Arab and Western worlds. Both have, to use Booth’s and Muecke’s terms, stable and instrumental characteristics, and both have used covert, overt and impersonal modes to social corrective ends.

Al-Jāḥiz used two modes of irony. To use Muecke’s terms, they may be called:

1. Ingénue Irony. Al-Jāḥiz presents his ideas and himself under a different character with the intention to defame and mock this person and the social category he belongs to.

2. Impersonal irony. This mode is attributed to him because he manages to use different characters to criticise common social situations. Mruwwah (1985, p. 182)
quotes a dialogue from Al-Jahiz' *The Misers* in which he points to the phenomenon of social disparity:

In the story of Muhammad Bin Abi al-Mu'amtil, Al-Jahiz conducts a conversation with the man about the bread on his table, he finally advises him to feed his dependents [children, servants, etc.] the leftovers of the bread moistened with gravy. This advice brought him to reply: - My dependents - God bless you - are of two kinds: one who deserves better than this, and one who as yet has not reached the stage to enjoy bread [my translation].

Social matters were not the only area where we find irony in Al-Jahiz’ writings. He has, as I mentioned above, his religious philosophy al-mu‘tazila, which was one major factor that made him a political critic of governors and people in power.

This realism in the literature of Al-Jahiz reflects a hortative message:

It takes place in his investigative and scrutinising view about the situation of the people and in the society, he extracts evidence ... or anecdotes in a humouristic style... but while you are laughing ...you feel anger and disgust towards the characters that he is drawing, and towards the social situations that these characters, who unjustly monopolise the goods of life, represent [my translation] (P. 171).

Furthermore, Al-Jahiz did not restrict his irony to prose. He employed “psychological description” in the form of dialogues (p. 175) which enables him to attain his purpose through wit and irony.

One other aspect that relates Al-Jahiz to modern linguistics, namely discourse and psycholinguistics, is, as Mruwwah argues, the importance placed on the meaning of the utterance in his works which shows his “...delicate sense of understanding the relation of language and locution with the state of the mind” [my translation] (p. 175).

1.2.1 Stylistic Aspects of Irony in Arabic

Before discussing the classical Arabic ironic style any further, namely Al-Jahiz, and its
implications for the concept, I will give examples from various writers. These will be restricted to excerpts from famous contemporary literary Arab writers and thinkers.

_Gibran Khalîl Gibran_

Antithesis, contrasting ideas, metaphors, synonyms, rhetorical questions and parallel structure were features of Gibran Khalîl’s prose poems in which he reflects his anger and his ironic views about the duality of the wisdom of the creation, human relations, religions and societies. In his collection of poems _Tears and Laughter_ many examples (in addition to the title) indicate his stylistic preference for antithesis and parallel structure. For example in _The Tempest_ (p. 31) he addresses the night by saying: "'anta zalâmun yarînā 'anwâra al-samā'i, wa-al-nahâru nîrun yaghmirunâ bi-żulmati al-lardî: You are the darkness that shows us the lights of the sky. The day is the light that pervades us with the darkness of the earth [my translation]."

In _The Broken Wings_ (p. 52) he expresses Salmâ Karâmî’s desperate situation and her doubts about the wisdom of God in a string of rhetorical questions, e.g. _limâdhâ tubâdâhî fi-al-'awjâ'i? ... limâdhâ tasaqquhâ bi-qadamayka? ... limâdhâ tuḍrihâ 'alâ al-thulâji?: Why are You exterminating her with pain? Why are You crushing her with your feet? Why are You scattering her on the snow? [my translation].

_Muhammad Al-Mâghût_

In addition to being a known poet and playwright, the Syrian Muhammad Al-Mâghût writes political and social commentaries. For this account I will draw on a review by Gordon Witty of an article from his book _I Will Betray My Country: Ravings of Terror and Freedom_. Witty (1992, p. 74) describes the book as a “fascinating collection of vignettes, monologues, diatribes, and political and social commentary which exude al-Magut’s [sic] trademark cynicism.” Al-Mâghût’s writings are characterised
by the use of Syrian colloquial Arabic, which contrasts with standard Arabic, in his dialogues in addition to puns, metaphors and cultural expressions. The following conversation is an example from Witty's English translation of The Repairman's Dilemma (pp. 88-89). After deciding to become a mechanic, Al-Māghūt describes, with a dramatic irony, the Palestinians’ long futile struggle, hindered by Arab disunity and disorganisation. A Palestinian bus full of freedom fighters stops at his shop and a conversation takes place:

"..."Welcome boys!," I shouted joyfully. "Welcome freedom fighters! Where did you come from? Where have you been?"

"From Palestine," the passengers replied.

"Where are you going?" I asked.

"To Palestine," they answered.

"Good luck, Godspeed! But isn’t it taking you awfully long to get there?"

"What can we do?" they said. "Our drivers are very methodical, and never exceed the posted international speed limits..."

For illustration, I will quote the original Arabic text of the conversation (Al-Māghūt. 1994, pp. 252-253):

- ... wa-ṣarakhtu bihim muḥallīlān muṭaqhibān: ya 'ahlan bi-'abīli al-ma'ārikī. min 'ayna 'atayum? min 'ayna 'an tum qūdimūn?
- al-rukkābū: min falaṣfīna
- wa 'īlā 'ayna 'an tum dhāhāhibīn?
- al-rukkābū: 'īlā falaṣīna
- bi-al-tawfīqī inshā'ā allah. wa-lākin 'alam tata'akhārū kathīrān fi al-wuqūūti?

In this passage the lexical devices indicate strong ironic political views. This is expressed in the use of adverbs: ‘joyfully: muḥallīlān’ awfully: kathīrān; metaphors: e.g. ‘the bus’ to depict the journey of Palestinians to their homeland and ‘drivers: sa'iqīnā’ and ‘international speed limits’ to refer to the Arab leaders who betrayed the cause and submitted to international powers or superpowers. Grammatically, use is made of a reference ‘freedom fighters: 'abīl 'al-ma'ārikī', and rhetorically, he uses
praising in order to blame ‘Our drivers are very methodical, and never exceed the ...’

This sentence also includes an overstatement ‘very methodical’.

In *The Hunchbacked Bird* (1981, p. 463) Al-Māghūt criticises oppression and injustice by way of dialogues between people of different social categories. In one of the dialogues a shoemaker who is a victim of the regime faces a judge who stated to him after he has been accused of kissing his wife in public that:

... you will never know that your whole life is recorded in this file, and that our justice does not sit on the rooftops to enable you to guess its results ... It disappears and emerges whenever it wants, but for the benefit of the State and the safety of the citizens [my translation].

In this passage the writer explicitly uses a lexical chain, or, following Halliday and Hasan (1976), a chain of collocational cohesion, to achieve his ironic views of the justice system: recorded, file, justice, State, safety, citizens. Other lexical devices are the metaphor in ‘sit on the rooftops’ and the standing phrase of Arab politics ‘for the benefit of ... citizens.’ The use of the possessive adjectives, the exclusive ‘our’ and ‘you’ delimits the gap between the victim and the oppressor, while the praise in order to blame represents the overall rhetorical meaning of the sequence.

*Tāha Ḥussain*

*Tāha Ḥussain* is another writer whose writings reflect social, religious and political settings. In an excerpt from *mirāṭu al-dāmiṣrī al-hādīth: ‘The Mirror of Modern Conscience’* [my translation] written in 1949, he attacks corruption through the depiction of social injustice in Egypt by resorting to religious references: hell and heaven, good and evil:

*Wealthy people [the fortunate] are now unwillingly staying in Egypt, because making money obliges them to stay [in Egypt], and because enjoying opulence as they wish [to enjoy] may not be available to them outside Egypt.* [my translation] (1983, p. 106)
In this passage the author employed a number of devices to reflect his ironic intentions. These devices have to be seen in conjunction with the temporal, political and social situation in Egypt in the forties. Irony is obvious in the use of repetition: *Egypt, stay, enjoy*, because the writer departed from the norm and chose to repeat in a short passage the same words rather than using pronouns or synonyms. This casts doubt on his real intention; the use of third person plural excluding the ill-fated majority of miserable people; defence in order to blame is a clear ironic rhetorical device triggered by the adverb: *unwillingly*; and the two subordinating adverb-clauses: *because making* ..., parallel structure is also detected in the use of those adverb-clauses: *because making money ... and because enjoying opulence ...*, the parallel is further enhanced by the use of *mašdar*: participles, i.e. *tadbir*: making...and *al-‘istimā*: enjoying which promotes a non-committal view by not using the long verbal construction in which a pronoun or a noun has to be mentioned: *li‘annahum *ridhā *farādū ‘an yud-abbirū*: because [they] if they wanted to find [them] ; the use of *muḏāri*: the imperfect tense in the indicative mood: *yuqīmūna, yaḍārruhum, yuqīmū, yūḥibbūna, Yas- tamitū, yutāhu*: are staying, obliges, to stay, they wish, to enjoy, be provided, is another grammatical device which has the function of depicting the situation and expounding on the topic in the essay and the exposition (see Abboud et al, 1971) without committing the text, in this instance, to a specific time. The indicative mood also marks detachment, i.e. innocence in this context, since it is grammatically used to make a plain statement (see Hayward & Nahmad 1965).

In brief, irony in Arabic literature plays an integral role in modern writings. I believe that the state of the art in the nineties has not changed considerably given the ‘consistent’ Arab disunity owing mainly, in my view, to international politics executed on the hands of dummy governments, monarchy or military ruling regimes. Arabs have loathed and resisted colonisation and they succeeded in gaining fragile independence only to become under the mercy of a dictator, monarch or ideology. All power holders in the Arab world, as suggested by journalist and author David Pryce-Jones (1990, p. 314),
... have risen through conspiracy and employ comparable methods of self-assertion, money-favouring their friends and persecuting their opponents. All have adjusted internal political relationships in their own interest through the secret police, and by means of torture and murder if need be; and all have tried to adjust external relationships by means of tribal-religious mobilization and warfare. In daily life, those who are ruled in these countries experience compulsion and violence as determining constants. To add to bitterness, the ruled everywhere also have to bear power holders and apologists describing as “revolution” what is physically and mentally suffered as tyranny.

This trend of oppression, greed and corruption has a long history in the Arab life, thus it is not surprising to trace the prolific use of irony fifteen or fourteen centuries back. By asserting this I will refer again to Al-Jahiz to give an insight into the use of irony in his writings.

Al-Jahiz

I have mentioned the importance of the meaning of an utterance to Al-Jahiz. However, a close look at his writings as investigated by Mruwwah (1985, p. 186) shows that he approaches his literature with more variety: “In the Al-Kindi story we come across the register of religious people...and mathematicians...and in the Al-Harthi story... he employed philosophical terminology” [my translation].

He also emphasises at times the importance of form, even by resorting to colloquial ungrammatical writing to convey certain messages and to draw the picture of his characters in their own words. I view this as an essential characteristic of Al-Jahiz. He sacrifices grammar in favour of the discursive rhetorical message. He justifies this by saying “If you find in this book The Misers any soleim or language that is not desinentially inflected and altered utterances, you should consider that we resort to that because parsing loathes this sort, and takes it out of focus. I had no option but to utter the words of rational misers and the stingy savants [sic] as ...” [my translation] (p. 187). For illustration, I will give an example from The Misers in which Al-Jahiz
ironises a greedy ‘savant’ named Aḥmad Bin Khalaf. Through a dialogue the author puts the words in the mouth of Bin Khalaf who gives Al-Jāḥiz a piece of advice: “This winter try to use this kind of soup for your children. Its supply is great, its thinness is abundant, it substitutes lunch, and it has the fullness that saves dinner” [my translation] (cited in Mruwwah, 1985, p. 184).

Here, the author uses a pretended indirect speech act in which consonance is a feature of the irony of the utterance: a) in the form of superlatives ‘azīmatu: great, kathīratu: prolific; b) nouns, al-ghadā’: lunch, al-‘asha’: dinner.

Parallel structure is also seen: short parallel sentences in the second and third, then in the fourth and fifth sentences. Other ironic features include the dramatic innocent advice of the victim of irony to the writer which reveals the victim’s character; and also the overstatement in sentences two and three: *its supply is great, its thinness is abundant.*

*Ibn al-Muqaffa’*

Ibn al-Muqaffa’ was not known for his ironic writing, but he left a wealth of literature, some of which is arguably a translation; namely, in Mruwwah’s view, one third of the famous *Kalīla wa Dimna*. The relevance of referring to this great writer is that he uses strategies such as insinuation and personification of animals to conceal his intended meaning. Nevertheless, Mruwwah (1985, p. 136) argues that Ibn al-Muqaffa’ created the “metaphoric insinuated style” in Arabic literature which was driven by political and social situations.

Layla Sa’deddin (1988) argues that Aḥmad Shawqī (died 1932), who is considered ‘the’ best contemporary fable writer in the Arab world, had been influenced, among others, by Ibn al-Muqaffa’s and La Fontaine’s fables. Motivated, again, by the polit-
ical and social situation in his country Egypt, he adopted, according to Sa'deddin, twelve among his fifty two fables from Ibn al-Muqaffa'. In his tale 'ummatu al-
'arānibi wa-al-fīli: The Nation of Hares and the Elephant [my translation], Shawqī
was a social reformer who depicted the oppression that his people, described as the
hares, suffer at the hand of the invader, the elephant, and tries to call on their unity to
fight and gain independence.

To conclude, it is clear that although irony has been scarcely, if ever, analysed in
Arabic literary theory, there is strong evidence that this form of writing has been con-
stantly used throughout the history of the Arabic language. The reason for this lack of
literary works on irony is simply because of the view held by ancient and to an extent
modern Arabs. Poetry was regarded as synonymous with literature and prose was
only given a stance when the wave of poetry declined. In fi nazarıyyati al-'adab: The
Theory of Literature [my translation], Al-Maḏī (1986) stresses that no serious scien-
tific studies have been done on Arabic literature or, as he put it, “on the criticism her-
itage of ‘poetry’”. He views that the existing dispersed studies on Arabic literature
and the history of Arabic criticism were eclectic [see Mruwwah, 1985] and exposito-
ry [see Banānī, 1986] rather than based on research and investigation (Al-Maḏī, 1986,
p. 197) [my translation]. Recent works have tackled this issue from two perspectives.

The first is a modern view of literature that encompasses the written word in general.
This was influenced by Western literary theory to a large extent and it exists in the
form of literary criticism where texts are viewed from various angles and where the
form of the text is dynamically influenced by many factors that could be labelled as:
1) Macro-criticism such as: the occasion of the text, the writer, structure; philosop-
hical stance which deals with ideas and their faithfulness to reality and the writer’s hon-
esty; psychological, i.e. the sentiments and the state of the readership and the situa-
tion. 2) Micro-criticism which encompasses style, i.e. the lexical and grammatical
usage, articulation, correctness and other formal usage, e.g. short/long words, con-
structions, e.g. complexity, redundancies, vulgarity, ungrammaticality, rhetoric, originality, musicality and text-type; imagination, i.e. simile and metaphors (See Abū Muslih 1983, pp. 38-39)

The second perspective was obsessed by poetic theory although it looked into and was influenced by the great western literary theorists such as Aristotle who inspired great literary writers and critics such as Ibn Sina and Ibn Rushd. Perhaps, Al-Jahiz again stands out in regard to his theory of rhetoric which distinguishes between form and meaning (see Al-Madī 1986, pp. 202-211).

1.3 Views on Irony in English

The discussion of irony in English is based on two major contributors to the concept of irony, namely Wayne Booth and D.C. Muecke. As with Arabic, reference is made to a number of texts written by famous English authors which are perceived as ironic.

Wayne Booth

a. Classification.

Booth classifies irony in two forms: stable and unstable; each is divided into local and infinite on two levels: Covert and overt (1974, p. 235). Stable irony involves two steps: The authors offer an unequivocal invitation to reconstruct, and this reconstruction is not to be later undermined (p. 233). Unstable irony, on the other hand, implies that “...no stable reconstruction can be made out of the ruins revealed through the irony.” (p. 240). The covert and overt scale refers to the “degree of openness or disguise” (p. 234 [italics in original]) of the author’s irony, while the local and infinite scale represents the “... ground covered by the reconstruction or assertion ... How far is the reader asked to travel on the road to complete negation, and how does he know where to stop?” (p. 234).
b. **Clues of ironic intention.**

For the purpose of the study I will concentrate on the interpretation of irony which is important to the perception and ultimately the translation of irony. Examples from my data (in appendices C and D) will be used to substantiate the classifications. Booth identifies the strategies or the ‘clues’, to use his word, in stable irony and suggests the following (pp. 53-86):

1. Straightforward warnings, i.e. signals in the author’s own voice
   
   i) In titles, e.g. English Text 2 (ET2), ‘An election in search of a date’.
   
   ii) In epigraphs, e.g. Arabic Text 1 (AT1), ‘al-mudḥik al-mubkī: The laughable tearful [matter]’
   
   iii) Other direct clues by the author, such as parallelism, juxtaposition of incompatibles, e.g. ET2, II/5 ‘picking the right election date ... [needs] alchemy.

2. Known Error Proclaimed.

   i) Popular expressions, when the writer makes deliberate errors, e.g. AT3, IX/17 ‘fa-hal bi-al-lawni waḥdahu yahyā al-‘insān? : Is it by colour alone that man survives?’ This device would also come under word play for the ‘correct’ version is: ‘It is not by bread alone that man survives’.

   ii) Historical fact, as in ET3, VII/28 ‘... who [Dr Hewson] thought *Hey Hey It’s Thursday Night* was a better medium to sell his complex policies’, the impact of the utterance arises from the substitution of Saturday with Thursday which is a blunt error regarding a television program that has been running for 20 years.

   iii) Conventional judgment. This clue relates to the common knowledge and assumptions between the writer and the readers, e.g. in AT3, V/11 ‘wa-law kāna al-sayyid Morgan ya‘ī mā yaqūlū: ‘And if Mr Morgan was knowing what he was saying ...’. The intended opposite meaning of the honorific title
*al-sayyid:* Mr, is detected by intelligent readers from the context and because honorific title is incompatible with the accusation of ignorance.

3. Conflicts of facts within the work, or two contradictory statements, e.g. sequence VII in ET3 'John Howard, the most experienced ... is the obvious choice. ... Howard’s problem is that he is almost as closely identified with the hard-right policies of John Hewson as Hewson himself.'

4. Clashes of style, e.g. the continuation of the above sequence 'He may, however, be able to discard the dead weight of the industrial relations baggage he put together and present himself as a born-again moderate.' Here the clash is clear in the contradiction between the lexical choice 'dead', 'baggage' used for package, 'moderate' used for Christian, the writer's point of view triggered by the auxiliary 'may' and the previous advice to the Liberals, i.e. Howard is the most experienced etc.

5. Conflicts of belief. Under this heading Booth, (1974, p. 75) includes the notion of 'Illogicality'. "Every reader knows, or thinks he knows, what is 'logical'. Violations of normal reasoning processes will be subject to exactly the same manipulations as violations of other beliefs or knowledge." For example in AT2, IV/8 wa-qāma ... yuṣādīlū ḍifā'an 'an Salman Rushdie al-maskūn al-ladḥī yatabdaddadahu al-muslimūna al-barbara: And it [the West] began ... arguing in defence of the poor Salman Rushdie who is threatened by the barbarian muslims. Simply, the violation to the logicality of the argument is based on the contextual meaning mainly the following two rhetorical questions: why this defence of Rushdie? Is it a defence of democracy and freedom of speech? Or a defence of a writer who offended Islam and abused the messenger of muslims? The lexical choice 'offended' and 'absurd' reflects, interpersonally, the writer's opposing opinion about Rushdie. Hence the second rhetorical question stands as the intended answer to the question, i.e. 'it's a defence of a writer who ...'.
Furthermore, Booth (p. 196), posits the difficulties of identifying ironies even for literary critics. Literary evaluation of ironies requires, in his view, different processes. He specifies four types of processes where the “...justification in each process differs from all the others ...”: 1) judging parts as they contribute to whole works, 2) judging completed works according to their own implicit standards, their intentions, 3) judging parts according to universally desirable qualities, critical constants, 4) judging kinds compared with other kinds. The first two types, “...the criteria [of possible evaluations] are found ‘in’ the particular work...[in its] inferred intentions...”, while the other two “...lead us away from the individual work to other works, other kinds...” but, he adds “There seems to be no definable limit to the number of larger contexts that particular literary works can be fitted into and judged by...”. Booth’s second and third type of process above would also be measured linguistically as intertextuality which, as argued by de Beaugrande (1980, p. 20),

...subsumes the relationships between a given text and other relevant texts encountered in prior experience, with or without mediation. A reply in conversation...or a recall protocol of a text just read...illustrate intertextuality with very little mediation. More extensive mediation obtains when replies or criticisms are directed to texts written down at some earlier time.

Adopting Hume, Booth (1974, pp. 221-229) goes one psychological step further to defend his view of the impossibility of giving a plausible and exact interpretation of irony: the non-existence of common sentiments of human nature. He quotes “Those finer emotions of the mind are of a very tender and delicate nature, and require the concurrence of many favourable circumstances to make them play with facility and exactness, according to their general and established principles.” He names five crippling handicaps that hinder the judgment of irony; namely: “Ignorance, Inability to pay attention, Prejudice, Lack of Practice, and the Emotional Inadequacy.” (p. 222).

Booth’s rather pessimistic view in terms of the impossibility of an absolute interpretation of irony does not help the cause of this study although his clues for interpreta-
tion may be of use later in the analysis. However, I suggest again that part of Booth’s literary insight into the identification of irony can be ‘regulated’ linguistically under the banner of intertextuality which is, in de Beaugrande’s view “… the major factor in the establishment of TEXT TYPES …, where expectations are formed for whole classes of language occurrences.” (p. 20) [Emphasis in original].

D.C. Muecke

Muecke (1982, pp. 3-4) gives a list of great writers in the Western world to support his view that irony and great literature are inseparable. He stresses, however, the importance of being earnest if irony is to be established, i.e. one cannot be ironic unless there is earnestness already to play off against - just as there is no print unless there is a contrastingly coloured page to print on. Further, in his introduction, Muecke stresses that irony is corrective. He likens it in language to an intellectual or literary painting that can be ironic to make a statement or convey a message, while irony is intrusive “when it is intent upon formal perfection or technical innovation or absolute expression…” (1982, p. 5).

a. Philosophical classification.

On the classification level, Muecke differentiates between two classes of irony: observable irony and instrumental irony. The instrumental is used when someone realises a purpose using language ironically, while the observable irony could be unintentional and hence representable in art. Thus irony in his view is either specific or general (see explanation on these latter notions below). He emphasises that instrumental irony is dynamic and requires readership participation since it relies on the formal aspect of the language. Most of the observable irony comes to us “...ready-made, already observed by someone else and presented fully-formed in drama, fiction, paintings and drawings, proverbs and sayings, so that the role of the audience or reader is much less active than that of the reader challenged to a game of interpretation by an Instrumental Ironist” (1982, p. 42).
Muecke further gives a clearer definition to instrumental and observable irony although he admits that it is not always possible to distinguish between the two:

...in general the distinction is clear: In his [use of] Instrumental Irony the ironist says something in order to have it rejected as false, mal à propos, one-sided etc.; in presenting an Observable Irony the ironist presents something ironic - a situation, a sequence of events, a character, a belief, etc. - that exists or is to be thought of as existing independently of the presentation. (p. 56).

One might assume that Muecke is referring in the former to irony expressed linguistically, while the latter refers to irony expressed non-linguistically. This observation is based on Muecke’s wider classification of irony which distinguishes between two categories: 1) Specific Irony, which encompasses sub-classifications and modes, and which is characteristic of the society’s ideology and established values and; 2) General Irony, described by Kierkegaard (cited in Muecke 1969, p. 120) as ‘Irony in the eminent sense’, which denotes “...life itself or any general aspect of life seen as fundamentally and inescapably an ironic state of affairs.”.

b. Functions and interpretation of irony.

In The Compass of Irony (1969) Muecke introduces the idea that irony becomes in our modern age an attitude to life and a way of organising one’s response to and coming to terms with the world. Thus apart from giving “...a general account of the formal qualities of irony and a classification...” (p. ix) he touches on the functions, topics, and - most importantly - the cultural significance of irony.

Muecke also considers irony as an art closely related to wit. He emphasises in his attempted definition that irony depends largely on the message and the content rather than the form and its effect on the senses. In this context he says “... [irony] is intellectual rather than musical, nearer to the mind than to the senses, reflective and self-conscious rather than lyrical and self-absorbed.” (p. 6). This lack of concern for form is, perhaps, where the literary theory falls short of being useful on its own to the study
of translation of irony (see linguistic discussion in Chapter Two). Thus, the need to provide a ‘consistent’ and ‘reliable’ evidence that language, in the written form, is the vehicle that both the writer and the reader use in order to convey and perceive irony. Furthermore, in his discussion of the duality of irony, Muecke considers the function of Simple Irony, the most familiar kind of irony, as corrective. He then stresses that “...To ironize something (in this class of irony) is to place it, without comment, in whatever context will invalidate or correct it; to see something as ironic is to see it in such a context.” (p. 23). Muecke (p. 29) also states briefly that we need an ironic intention in addition to the formal requirements of irony, such as confrontation or juxtaposition of contradictory, incongruous, or otherwise incompatible elements and that one should be seen as ‘invalidating’ the other’. This intention could be, perhaps, best identified from the context.

Relevant to the overall study is Muecke’s concession that, from a literary criticism point of view, the classification of ironic devices in a piece of writing is “preliminary to literary discussion” and “critical evaluation of actual irony would still have to be done”. (p. 41) . Thus, there is a need for a holistic approach to the analysis of ironic texts as it will be discussed in Chapter Four.

Muecke gives also an important insight into the relationship of the reader to the degree of subtlety and fineness of irony. He believes that if the ironist is depending on the prior experience and knowledge of the reader/listener there is “... less scope for an ironist to be subtle...” (p. 53). By subtlety he means the ‘fineness’ and ‘delicacy’ with which ironists “... disclose their real meaning.”(p. 53)

Further, Muecke distinguishes three grades of irony “... according to the degree to which the real meaning is concealed...”(p. 53) (cf. Booth above), namely: overt, covert and private; and four modes “... according to the kind of relationship between the ironist and the irony.” (p. 53): impersonal irony, self-disparaging irony, ingenu irony, and dramatized irony.
"In Overt Irony the victim or the reader or both are meant to see the ironist's real meaning at once....Covert Irony is [on the other hand] that it is intended not to be seen but rather to be detected." (pp. 54-56). Covert Irony requires both an intention and a formal signal to this intention. In giving an account of how we can perceive Covert Irony, Muecke states that we must be aware "...of a contradiction between what is ostensibly the writer's or speaker's opinion, line of argument, etc., and the whole context within which the opinion of line of argument is presented." In his explanation of the 'whole context' he refers to: 1) our experience and prior knowledge of the ostensibly meaning: Its truth, the author's real opinion and the author's real character; 2) the author's internal contradiction: A contradiction of facts or opinion, a logical contradiction, a discordant tone in speaking, any discrepancy between what is ostensibly said and the language in which it is expressed. Muecke's notion of context paves the way to a later discussion of Grice's conversational maxims.

The four modes of irony represent the other face of the concept as perceived by Muecke, who tackles the modes with many examples. Impersonal Irony is given the most prominent place and classification, "[its]...distinguishing quality...is the absence of the ironist as a person; we have only his words" (p. 64). He suggests an extensive list (pp. 67-86) of what he calls the 'principal techniques employed in Impersonal irony', though he admits that his list is not comprehensive by any means. The main types are:

I. Praising in order to blame

This may take several forms:

a) Praise for desirable qualities known to be lacking.

b) Praise for having undesirable qualities or for lacking desirable qualities.

c) Inappropriate or irrelevant praise.

II. Blaming in order to praise

a) Blame for undesirable qualities known to be lacking.
b) Blame for having desirable qualities or for lacking undesirable qualities.

c) Inappropriate or irrelevant blame.

III. Pretended agreement with the victim.
IV. Pretended advice or encouragement to the victim.
V. The rhetorical question.
VI. Pretended doubt.
VII. Pretended error or ignorance.
VIII. Innuendo and insinuation.
IX. Irony by analogy.
X. Ambiguity.
XI. Pretended omission of censure.
XI. Pretended attack upon the victim’s opponent.
XIII. Pretended defence of the victim.
XIV. Misrepresentation, or false statement.
XV. Internal contradiction.
XVI. Fallacious reasoning.
XVII. Stylistically signalled irony.

a) The ironical manner, for example using “... excessively latinate vocabulary and a hackneyed urbanity.” (p. 76)

b) Stylistic ‘Placing’, By using words which are slightly out of place, or have certain connotations, by repeating a word or phrase, or by changing his style or using the victim’s. (p. 77)

c) Parody.

d) Mock-heroic.

e) Burlesque.

f) Travesty.

XVIII. Understatement.
XIX. Overstatement.
XX. Irony displayed
In the second mode, Self-disparaging Irony:

The ironist is present not simply as an impersonal voice but, in disguise, as a person with certain characteristics. And the sort of person the ironist presents himself as being is our guide to his real opinion. He understates or overstates himself, assuming such qualities as ignorance, deference, complaisance, co-operativeness, naivety, over-enthusiasm, eagerness to learn, and inability to understand (p. 87).

For example in Arabic Text 2, IV/8, the writer insults muslims (himself) by depicting them as barbar wa-mutakhallifun, i.e. ‘barbaric and backward’ for wanting to kill Rushdie only to undermine his statement in the following sentence, simply because he [Rushdie] wrote a book in which he expresses his opinion.

In Ingénu Irony the writer presents himself as an ingénu; this mode does not require the ‘full powers’ of the ironist since its “...effectiveness ... comes from its economy of means; mere common sense or even simple innocence or ignorance may suffice to see through the ... complexities of hypocrisies ...or pierce the protective tissues of conventional idées reçues.” (p. 91).

Perhaps the best definition we can give of Dramatized Irony is Muecke’s (p. 93) description: “Dramatized Irony, though it may be used as a weapon, is very often the expression of a comic or ironic vision”. In other terms, this kind of irony exists courtesy of a situation or event as well as of an ironist who perceives, feels, suffers from that situation or event and whose function “is simply to present ironic situations or events to our sense of irony.” (p. 92).

Muecke further posits that the use of Dramatized Irony in literature has reigned since the latter half of the eighteenth century where irony is more likely to be found in that form rather than being merely purposeful “...with an obligation to be morally profitable, to instruct as well to delight.” (p. 94).
This last observation may well fit the state of the art of irony in pure literature. However, it lacks clear distinction between Dramatized Irony and Impersonal Irony, for both require a sense of wit, detachment, whether idiosyncratic or employed, as well as a situation or an event whether it motivates the Impersonal Ironist or inspires the Dramatized Ironist.

Muecke’s four modes fit his two classifications discussed above. The Impersonal, Self-Disparaging and *Ingénu* ironies relate to what he called Specific Irony where linguistic manipulation plays a major role in what the writer really wants to say, while the fourth mode, the Dramatised Irony borders on the class of General Irony.

Irony in political commentary articles on the other hand opposes the idea of irony as art for art’s sake, but has the seeds of both dramatised and impersonal irony. In this text type, the commentator depends first, on his sense of vision and his ability to read the news as well as what is between the lines of the news, and second, on his linguistic ability, be it an expression of his character or talent. Thus, there are no clear cut political ironists in the commentary text type; they exist side by side with the everyday political analysts gifted with an ironic competence enough to rank them as Impersonal Ironists. Among those internationally known ironists in the Arab world are the Syrian political writer Muhammad Al-Maghūt (discussed above) and the Lebanese Ghassan Touweini. In the English press in Australia there are Peter Smark, Alan Ramsey and Gerard Henderson to name a few.

Based on the above exposition, my topic falls under the heading of Muecke’s Specific irony with special focus on the overt and covert grades and the impersonal and self-disparaging irony classes. Bear in mind that both instrumental and observable irony are used in political commentary texts.
1.3.1 Stylistic Aspects of Irony in English

In the following discourse, I will give examples from a few English texts, perceived as ironic, and I will focus on the features of irony.

*Jane Austen*

From *Pride and Prejudice* (cited in Little 1978, P. 63) I will adopt the following opening sentence:

> It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a large fortune must be in want of a wife.

This generalisation means obviously the reverse of what is said. It is an ironic criticism of the idea of marriage and the role of women in general. This is marked by the adverb: 'universally' which is an overstated generalisation. Rhetorically, the implied congruity between 'single man - with large fortune' / wife, could be labelled under Muecke's misrepresentation above.

*Jonathan Swift*

In *Gulliver’s travels*, Swift attacks the nobles in his voyage to the Houyhnhnms by satirising the layman’s appearance. In describing a conversation with his master he says:

> One day in discourse, my master, having heard me mention the nobility of my country, was pleased to make me a compliment which I could not pretend to deserve: that he was sure I must have been born to some noble family, because I far exceeded in shape, colour, and cleanliness, all the Yahoos of his nation ... [because] I was ... endowed with the faculty of speech, [and] ... some rudiments of reason ... (1950 edition, pp. 290-291).

In this passage irony is marked by a few linguistic and rhetorical devices, namely:
The negation: ‘a compliment I could not pretend to deserve’; free indirect speech: must have been born to some noble family; overstatement: using modal verbs: I must have been, adjective: far; blame in order to praise: the yahoos in reference to laymen; and lastly the understatement when saying that he is ‘endowed with the faculty of speech and has some rudiments of reason’. Irony is triggered here by the lexical choice: ‘endowed’, ‘faculty’ and ‘rudiments’.

George Bernard Shaw

Bernard Shaw is described as a satirist, controversialist, critic, pundit, wit, intellectual buffoon and dramatist. All these traits in my opinion are characteristic of ironists.

The following passage is from The Shewing-up of Blanco Posnet and Fanny’s First Play written in 1909 in which Shaw criticises the London Theatre being closely associated with the intellectual revival of British theatre. In this book he sets the scene of the events in a town hall in a territory of the United States of America rather than the intended country. This strategy is not new to ironists/satirists. It is used by almost all Arab playwrights; Al-Maghut for example uses Tanzania in his plays to conceal his intended country.

THE CENSORSHIP
This little play is really a religious tract in dramatic form. If our silly censorship would permit its performance, it might possibly help to set right-side-up the perverted conscience and re-invigorate the starved self-respect of our considerable class of loose-lived playgoers whose point of honour is to deride all official and conventional sermons. As it is, it only gives me an opportunity of telling the story of the Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament which sat last year to inquire into the working of the censorship, against which it was alleged by myself and others that as its imbecility and mischievousness could not be fully illustrated within the limits of decorum imposed on the press, it could only be dealt with by a parliamentary body subject to no such limits. (1987, p. 7)

Shaw’s first sentence hides his intention, but he hastens to give a hint in his second
sentence ‘silly censorship’. Subtle lexical expressions are used to refer to his loathing of censorship and the regime behind it. He uses a complex sentence (the third) laden with compound words: ‘loose-lived, right-side-up, self-respect’ and; adjectives: perverted, starved, considerable’.

Other features include stylistic placing in the form of semotactic anomalies (see discussion on the function of ironic devices in Chapter Four): ‘imbecility and mischievousness’/ ‘decorum’ and; understatements: ‘it might possibly help’; ‘could not be fully illustrated’.

Punch

This is an excerpt from an article in Punch, a well-known satirical English magazine, describing medical professionals:

For all practical purposes, nurses have the hardest, the most wearing and the most exhausting job in the NHS, with the possible exception of the patients. The point is that the entire focus of a nurse’s life is looking after sick, demanding, frightened people with a wide range of mental or physical problems, i.e. doctors. (March 26, 1986, p. 31)

The irony here is centred in the conclusion of each sentence, i.e. in the climax: ‘patients’ and ‘doctors’. The understatement ‘with the possible exception of the patients’ exaggerates the role of the nurses. While the second sentence ends with the unexpected word ‘doctors’ attributing to them all the connotations of the previous adjectives, i.e. sick, demanding, frightened, with mental or physical problems.

1.4 Borderline of Irony with Sarcasm, Satire and Humour.

The complex definition of irony and the examples given above, though not comprehensive, show the complexity of the term with reference to two major ‘ironologists’,
to use Muecke’s terminology. However, a further explanation should be sought if we are to come a step closer to understanding irony. That is, how do we differentiate between irony on the one hand and sarcasm, satire, and humour on the other? The distinction is essential for the following reasons: 1) These forms of writing share similar methods with irony, but, to different ends and in different settings, thus a comparison will enable us to identify those devices that are considered ironic or not, for example, those that are comic; 2) There is a thin line, at times, between irony and sarcasm, and the reliance on heavy explicit irony, bordering on sarcasm, particularly in certain Arabic commentary texts in Australia. This latter factor is, perhaps, a function of the freedom of speech in this country and a feeling of alienation and hostility, which explains the topics of the Arabic commentaries. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter Four.

In The Oxford Book of Humorous Prose Frank Muir touches explicitly on some of the characteristics of irony when he defines in his ‘own personal theory about comedy’ the words ‘comedy’, ‘wit’, ‘buffoonery’, and ‘humour’. Comedy in some of its forms shares with irony a corrective purpose. He calls such comedy satiric, denoting an attack on somebody using “invective, parody, mockery, or anything else which might wound.” (Muir 1990, p. xxvi). However, irony differs strategically from comedy; the former is reserved and a means to an end, while the latter is public and an end in itself.

With wit, irony shares elitist language such as poetic references, paradoxes and puns. The definition of wit, as an upper social class offensive weapon classifies it as one of the devices of irony. This is not confined to English only. Irony is widely used in oral, i.e. colloquial, and written standard Arabic; in both forms a certain degree of linguistic competence is required by the speaker/writer to utter/write and understand ironic speech/es or text/s.
Muir relates English humour to the English culture, the environment of a free society and individuality. Furthermore, he considers humour a variety of irony confined to and originating from England. "[European] Visitors were dismayed ... by the way the English used irony to a degree unknown across the Channel, not only literary irony employed in satirical humour ... but also in ordinary conversation when wrong words were used but the sense came through clearly..." (p. xxix). He then argues that "satire expressed through humour was found to be more widely effective ... [and] had a deeper appeal" (p. xxxii). Any Arab can perhaps argue with Muir’s exaggerated and subjective view of humour. The Egyptian sense of humour is well known in the Arab world, and so is that of other Arab countries, as seen in Lebanese and Syrian ironic-humouristic plays. Humour is part of Arab life; one can almost argue that humour kept the Arab spirit going in the darkest of recent times. Egyptians and, indeed, all Arabs ironised their defeat in 1967. Arabs laugh at their misery, whether it stems from political oppression or economic depression, in their gatherings in cafés, in literary writing, for example, Ţāha Ḥussain, Nagīb Mahfūz and Marūn ‘Abbūd, and through their comic actors who have subtly or explicitly used humour and irony since plays were introduced to the Arab World. Historic evidence for the inherent nature of humour in the Arabic culture is documented and is further illustrated in my discussion on Al-Ẓāhirī and Ibn al-Muqaffa’.

Booth (1974, p. 179n) addresses the difference between satire and irony in arguing that one of Fielding’s works is ironic:

Clearly this notion [that works like Fielding’s are not ironic, because they are morally clear], often put as a distinction between irony, which must be ambiguous, and satire, which is making a clear point, depends entirely on one’s definition. If the ‘ironist has nothing to prove,’ if he must play ‘with those very epistemological possibilities that eat away proof’... then of course Fielding is not an ironist... There is no point in quarrelling about definitions, so long as we remember that in almost all discussions of ‘irony’ and ‘the ironist’ we must figure out what silent modifiers, like stable or satiric or ambiguous or metaphysical, are implied.

Muecke shares Booth’s views. He attacks some literary critics who draw the line
between irony and satire when they claim that the former deals with the absurd and the morals of the universe while the latter treats the ridiculous and the manners of man. He sees that “Nothing is gained by denying the name of irony to the corrective irony of Jonathan Wild, and certainly nothing by confusing corrective irony with satire, which need not even employ irony.” (1969, p. 28) [italics in original].

Booth believes that only irony that implies a victim is ironic satire; “...irony is used in some satire, not in all; some irony is satiric, much is not. And the same distinctions hold for sarcasm.” (1974, p. 30) On the other hand, irony is often a means to some didactic end, and may also be found in an aesthetic form. “There may even be an ironic literary genre in a further sense: works written for the sake of the irony, not works using irony for tragic or comic or satiric or eulogistic ends.” [italics in original] (p. 101)

Further, Booth describes ironic satire as “... probably the most widespread genre using stable irony...” (p. 140). The view that irony could be employed for satiric ends brings some sort of relief to the uneasy question of whether an utterance is to be labelled ironic or satiric.

Muecke perhaps dispels the mist that surrounds the identification of irony when he says in his Compass of Irony (1969, p. 5):

>The concept of irony is also obscured by the frequent and close conjunction of irony with satire and with such phenomena as the comic, the grotesque, the humourous, and the absurd. As a result there is a tendency to define irony in terms of the qualities of these other things, some of which defy definition even more successfully than irony. But irony is not essentially related to satire, and when it is related in practice it is a relationship of means to end...

Muecke admits the elusiveness and diversity of the forms and functions of irony for it may function as “... a weapon in a satirical attack” (p. 3), while some sarcasm which is, in his definition, found in the Impersonal Irony mode, merely represent forms of
irony: “Sarcasm has been called the crudest form of irony ...” (p. 54). But this is only when the ostensible meaning is not the intended meaning. His definition of sarcasm relates to the tone in overt irony which “... may be either congruous with the real meaning, and it is then that we have sarcasm or ‘bitter irony’, or an exaggeration of the tone appropriate to the ostensible meaning, in which we speak of ‘heavy irony’.” (p. 54). For example a sarcasm such as ‘You are a nice sort of friend!’ is not for a moment plausible in its literal sense; the tone conveys reproach so strongly that no feeling of contradiction is possible.

Irony in commentary must, no doubt, conform with Muecke’s (1969, pp. 232-233) notion that irony is related to satiric, heuristic, and rhetorical ends:

Irony may be used as a rhetorical device to enforce one’s meaning. It may be used, in any of the Four Modes, as a satiric device to attack a point of view or to expose folly, hypocrisy, or vanity. It may be used as an heuristic device to lead one’s readers to see that things are not so simple or certain as they seem, or perhaps not so complex or doubtful as they seem. It is probable that most irony is rhetorical, satirical, or heuristic. In such cases it is the end that must justify the means.

Furthermore, Muecke (p. 56) sheds light on the closeness of irony to sarcasm when he says, “The line beyond which Overt Irony will be regarded as having degenerated beyond sarcasm or understatement into direct language will very frequently be a matter of individual judgement.”

To conclude, Arabic and English have a wealth of irony in their respective literatures. Arabic classification and stylistic studies on irony are neglected, ancient and, when they exist, scattered. However, a critical analysis of many literary texts may show an unexplored area of meaning. By contrast, English enjoys a number of studies on irony, its classifications, modes, clues and interpretations. In addition, English provides us with a refined definition of irony in contrast with closely related concepts, such as sarcasm, satire, wit and others.
The above overview provides a broad but necessary definition of irony and many classifications that are needed for its description. Focusing on the topic of this study, it seems that Booth's class of Specific Irony is congruous with the characteristics of irony in political commentary texts, namely: Purpose, situation/event, victim of irony, readership participation, cultural setting, i.e. values, conventions etc., and a writer who employs irony as a tool to enforce his/her views. This identification enables us to use the relevant literary notions of modes and grades as exposed above. The study will primarily rely, literary wise, on the English classifications of irony and on notions from the contribution of Al-Jahiz to the rhetoric of irony in Arabic.
Notes

1 Ibn Khaldūn (died 1388 A.D.) posits three different kinds in his *al-muqaddima (Prolegomena)* when discussing the so-called by the Arabs, 'ilm al-bayān: 'ilm al-balāgha, 'ilm al-bayān and 'ilm al-bādī'. The first concerns with the...

... descriptions and situations that match through the utterance all the circumstances ...; the second looks into the signification of the verbal requisite and its referent, that is the metaphor and the metonymy ..., this is called the science of al-bayān. They [the Arabs] also added another class concerned with the embellishment of the *parole* and the enhancement of it with a kind of composition: [this is achieved] either by the use of a rhymed prose that separates the *parole*; a paronomasia that makes comparison between its utterances; a setting (an ornamentation) that divides its metres; an insinuation (an allegory) to cover the intended meaning by suggesting a meaning that is more subtle, giving that they share the same expression; or an antithesis by the use of a juxtaposition of contrasting ideas, and so on. They called this the science of *al-bādī*: good style or rhetoric (1993, p. 474) [my translation].
CHAPTER 2

THE CONTRIBUTION OF LINGUISTIC THEORY

It seems an arduous, if not impossible, task to tackle the topic of irony from a linguistic perspective. However, the question is whether the classifications and general descriptions discussed in Chapter One, are objective enough for enquiries into areas such as language teaching and translation. Literary criticism and literary theory provide us with the sensitivity to recognise the text type, to understand the meaning, and, more importantly, to extract the weaknesses and strengths in a text. This is quite essential, but, perhaps, not sufficient for a purpose such as the topic of translation.

What we need in addition to the identification of ironic texts and their formal structure, i.e. grammar and lexis, and the devices that are less subject to this immediate formal identification, i.e. the rhetorical devices, is a closer analysis that gives an explanation of the communicative function of those devices, as well as the grammatical and lexical descriptions of the rhetorical devices. In other words, to be able to ‘work’ with ironic texts we need to move towards a more objective and applicable approach to those texts.

2.1 Literary Criticism and Linguistics

Recent studies of literary criticism have given linguistics more credit in the analysis and interpretation of texts. Thus, it is only logical for any linguistic discussion to take into consideration these studies, not only for scientific reasons but also for their importance in the analysis and translation process.

Modern literary criticism claims that it has shifted its methodology of analysis in the
past thirty years or so. This claim is supported by two factors: (1) the rise of "new schools or movements (for example, deconstruction, reader-response criticism, feminist criticism)." (Lodge 1988, p. x); (2) the reaction against structuralism.¹

Literary criticism has been affected by the recent theorization of literary studies which has borrowed its terms and concepts very largely from other disciplines - linguistics, psychoanalysis, philosophy, marxism...The aim of this collective enterprise [theory] would appear to be nothing less than a totalizing account of human consciousness and human culture (or else a tireless demonstration of the impossibility of such a project) (p. xi).

The above claim suggests that modern literary approaches in its modern multifarious disciplines has moved a step forward towards accepting the importance of linguistics in the processes of understanding and producing language.

De Saussure advocates that "linguistic structure seems to be the one thing that is independently definable and provides something our minds can satisfactorily grasp" (1986 edition, p. 9); it allows us, in his view, to "relate all other manifestations of language to it [i.e. psychology, anthropology, sociology, prescriptive grammar and so on]" (p. 9) [italics in original].

The linguistic analysis of Jakobson, the famous Russian formalist, also contributed to modern literary theory in two ways:

One was his identification of the rhetorical figures, metaphor and metonymy, as models for two fundamental ways of organizing discourse that can be traced in every kind of cultural production... The other was his attempt to understand 'literariness' - to define in linguistic terms what makes a verbal message a work of art (Lodge 1988, p. 31).

Both 'ideas' are constitutive of this thesis: Finding a constant rhetorical, or formal, ironic device in commentary texts and finding a linguistic model that could be constantly applied to understand, and consequently, analyse the ironic style that delights
the reader while at the same time it communicates a message to him/her in these texts. To consider irony as a motivated manipulation of verbal structure and to assign to it, to use Jakobson’s version of stylistic function, a poetic function (Taylor 1980, p. 43) is to agree with Jakobson’s claim (1988, p. 32) that “Poetics deals with problems of verbal structure ...” and that “Since linguistics is the global science of verbal structure, poetics may be regarded as an integral part of linguistics.” (p. 32)

In his model of the functions of language based on ‘the constitutive factors in any speech event’, Jakobson (pp. 35-38) postulated six factors each of which has a specific corresponding function in verbal communication:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Function</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addresser</td>
<td>Emotive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>Referential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Message</td>
<td>Poetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact</td>
<td>Phatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Metalingual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressee</td>
<td>Conative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2.1* Jakobson’s functional model

In his account of the poetic message in poems he argued that a linguist is offered by the formal structures of texts, e.g. repetition, parallel structure etc., ‘peculiar [and] intricate problems’. These problems promote the supremacy of poetic function over referential function and make the latter ambiguous. This ambiguity, Jakobson argued, triggered by the formal constituents in the message, “... makes reiterable not only the constituent sequences of the poetic message but the whole message as well.” (p. 50). Now, if we consider the latter hypothesis of Jakobson’s as an analysis of ironic texts for translation purposes and not for linguistic analysis as such, one could obviously relate irony to, and identify it with poetics in terms of the problems posed to him/her through the structure and the formal constituents in the overall message.
MacCabe, on the other hand, attacks Saussure's systematic model and his distinction between *langue* and *parole* and suggests that "on the level of meaning language is always discourse" (cited in Lodge 1988, p. 440). He also argues that language can be divorced "... from its situation in order to study phonology, morphology and syntax where differences of situation contribute only secondary characteristics" (p. 440), but at the level of meaning, one cannot perform the same operation "... where the relations of a text to its socio-historical conditions (of both production and reception) are not secondary but constitutive." (p. 440).

This literary criticism insight forms an essential base to my approach. When analysing the meaning of the textual structure one cannot separate the uses of structure from their relations to pragmatics, sociolinguistics or stylistics. This distinction, in MacCabe's terms, "... reproduces a distinction between logic and rhetoric..." (p. 440). We have seen in the literary discussion on irony that it is impossible to grasp any ironic meaning by reference to semantics alone. In fact, we have to refer to the pragmatic, social, stylistic, temporal or political setting. For example, meaning can only be given to the compound word 'Metherell-like' [in English Text 1 VI/15] in its use; that means we must be aware of the political and ideological setting to be able to decipher its true meaning. In other words, the 'true' meaning and the inference of the utterance stems from: The political scandal that the former minister was involved in, i.e. tax evasion; the attempt of the then Premier to give him, in an allegedly fraudulent manner, a senior position after Metherell was forced to resign; its stylistic usage, i.e. as compound; and the text type where the compound word is used, i.e. a political commentary on political corruption. The analysis can be shown diagrammatically as follows:

\[
\text{Sociological and ideological situation} \rightarrow \text{Context of situation} \rightarrow \text{Stylistic usage} \\
\text{(political situation)} \rightarrow \text{(text type, subject matter)} \rightarrow \text{(Form, i.e. lexis, grammar etc)}
\]

*Figure 2.2 macro-analysis approach*
2.2 Modern Linguistics and Irony

Translation theories have in the last two decades explored linguistics and expanded its application to translation. Modern linguistic approaches have proved their indispensability to translation. These approaches have agreed on treating texts as process rather than product. Van Dijk (1977, pp. 6-7) proposes the notion of ‘macro-structural semantic description’ which

... defines the meaning of parts of a discourse and of the whole discourse on the basis of the meaning of the individual sentences ... [this] level of semantic analysis not only has important COGNITIVE IMPLICATIONS, explaining the processes of comprehension and retention of discourse, but that these cognitive implications are also GRAMMATICALLY relevant to the adequate description of the use of certain connectives, PRO-forms, determiners, adverbs, and the distinction of paragraphs in written language or paragraph markers in oral speech of some natural languages. [Emphasis in original]

De Beaugrande (1980, p. 70) also implies a process approach to texts’ building/comprehension when he assumes that “The relationship of a text to alternative versions, such as a paraphrase, summary, or a recall protocol, is not a match of words and phrases, but of underlying conceptual-relational patterns.” The knowledge of the process of text production equips the translator with the necessary normal plan of action in text formation, which will eventually enable him/her to perform his/her two roles: as analyst and as text producer. Any translation activity or training of translators starts with an analysis: the comprehensiveness of which is relevant to the text at hand; to explore the formal features, such as, grammatical, lexical, phonological and graphological, of the text. In his Contrastive Analysis, Carl James (1980, p. 63) quotes Corder who sees “... the whole Applied Linguistics as involving a first, a second and a third ‘order of application’ and talks of description and comparison being the first and second of these.” [italics in original]. This, in translation, simply means first, to understand the meaning of formal features of the original text and their role in the formation of texts. The next step is producing an equivalent text in the target
language which requires a sound linguistic and cultural competence in that language. Both performance tasks, i.e. analysis and text production, share the need for linguistic and extra-linguistic competence.

From this standpoint, I will briefly venture into the disciplines that linguistics draws on today such as philosophy, psychology and sociology. In so doing, the emphasis will focus on modern linguistics given its relevance to my topic.

Modern linguistics has shifted towards a more conciliatory stance between the usual dichotomies that dominated it in the past. Knowing the rules of usage of the language, essential as it is, cannot function in isolation from its rules of use. What a speaker/writer says is significant to a hearer/reader when the latter activates his/her linguistic experience in conjunction with the extra-linguistic ones, the context of situation, the culture of the language, the geographical factor and "the temporal provenance of a piece of language" (Crystal and Davy 1973, pp. 75-76).

The postulation of such an approach to language leads us into the domain of applied linguistics.

My review of the theory of linguistics is built on modern linguistic approaches to language as well as the findings of Muecke and Booth discussed in Chapter One. The review aims at giving their findings a linguistic justification that might explain how these authors perceived irony and classified it, and also at finding out whether the linguistic constituents of irony in political commentary texts can provide us with the foundation on which we can build our own perception and production of irony in such texts. Further, I will discuss whether formal devices such as metaphor, lexical choice, reference etc. can be conceived of or can be categorised as ironic.
2.3 Exploring Communicative Function

The communicative function of texts is "a banner which everybody [involved in language studies] wants to march behind." (Widdowson 1979, p. 2). This concept also comes under a different category, namely the rhetorical purpose of texts (Hatim and Mason 1990). Widdowson (1979, p. 3) claims that the communicative approach stems from the concerns of the inapplicability of the structural approach to language in use.

I will take this hypothesis as my starting point in the discussion of the appropriateness of linguistics to my topic and see where it will lead us.

The relationship between the study of language and the study of communicational behaviour has been the purpose of stylistic analysis. For traditional linguistics "...the crux of the communicational act is seen to lie in the causal relation between the sounds [/utterances] uttered [/written] by a speaker[/writer] and the meaning that these sounds [/utterances] have for his hearer(s) [/reader(s)]" (Taylor 1980, p. 6).

Taylor suggests that Modern linguistics has approached the study of language from a perspective of two ‘common-sense’ assumptions about language: "... first that it is by the use of a language that we communicate, and second, that a language is a system which fixes, for all its users, the relations between expressions and contents." (p. 7). These two assumptions give relevance to stylistic analysis given "...the critical pragmatic difficulty in the analysis of the expression and content planes of verbal communication." (p. 7). The meaning of an expression, though the same in form, varies "...with the particular occasion of its utterance" (p. 8). This could be through the stylistic usage, the situational register, etc. So in order to be able to isolate any invariant properties in speech we must

...include all the communicational content of an utterance as part of its meaning [which] would by some linguists be called confusion of ‘connotation’ with ‘denotation’ ...[or] confusion of ‘situational meaning’ with ‘linguistic meaning’ ...[however], linguistic analysis depends on the isolation of a particular domain of communicational content from which sameness of form may be measured (p. 11).
The question is, of course, with what method are we to determine the 'criterial balance' by which we can measure the linguistic meaning of the communicational content.

Taylor (p. 13) believes philosophical theories of meaning "which isolate the phenomena of linguistic meaning within the wider range of communicational or interactional relevance ... are not, in general, used to ground the practical application of a linguistic method based on the model of the inter-determinism of form and meaning." However, he later states that "It is [the] common-sense notion [i.e. the intuitions] which provides a ground to the balance of criterial perspective on which linguistic analysis depends" (p. 13). That means that one needs to react to a particular linguistic device before classifying it.

The analysis of the structure of forms and meanings, with reference to the commonsense notion of 'means the same', i.e. the identification of the content 'core' of an utterance, may provide the linguist with the tool "...to reproduce analytically our everyday 'competence' in dealing with speech." (p. 14). This identification must be coupled with a linguistic justification. All, in the end, depends on whether the analyst sees that an utterance has an effect on communication and whether s/he sees this effect as part of the linguistic meaning. If she/he does, she/he can claim the identification of the difference between meaning and form; if she/he does not, she/he can claim that the formal difference, that is, choice, is stylistic. This "...approach to the determinism of meaning and form is the practical foundation of modern linguistic analysis." (p. 15) and is of primary importance to the classification of irony from non-irony since the former relies on the difference between meaning and form.

2.3.1 Structural and Descriptive Stylistics

In his critique of structural stylistics, Taylor argues that structural stylistics aims "...to explain certain common-sense intuitions about verbal communication that are not explicable - at least not at face value - within the ... linguistic model." (Taylor 1980,
p. 16). He goes on to say that stylisticians use the methodology of linguistic analysis but they begin their analysis from a general notion of the function of language in communication to set up the criteria by which there may be a particular stylistic function.

Despite this embedded Taylorian criticism of stylistics, if we take a close look at how language is perceived for example in political commentaries and how it has its first impact on the reader or listener, we realise the importance of the stylistic methodology. When we read ‘Keating is a maestro of manipulation’ [English text 4 VIII/12] we understand immediately that the writer is communicating to us that he views Keating as an opportunist (in a political sense) and we infer its ironic impact because of the lexical choice and the juxtaposition of incompatibles, i.e. maestro and manipulation, but we do not understand the utterance’s ironic inference because, grammatically, manipulation stands as complement to maestro. This ‘ironic’ rule of use, this delicacy of categorisation, to use Halliday’s term, which is either learned or part of the gifted writer’s linguistic competence, has an important relevance for language incumbents: writers, teachers, ‘students’ of irony, critics, translators etc. for practical and descriptive purposes only. Enkvist (1964, p. 39) argues in Linguistics and Style that “... no stylistic analysis should start by studying linguistic behaviour in terms of absurdly detailed, transitory, and unique contextual constellations. We have to climb to higher rungs on the hierarchical ladder of contexts before we arrive at meaningful descriptions of styles.” To defend stylistics further, we can, perhaps, pose the following question: is it not that linguistic analysis as explained by Taylor above depends primarily on “the common-sense notion which provides a ground to the balance of criterial perspective on which linguistic analysis depends”?

On the other hand, the functional perspective of structural stylistics according to Bally (a student of de Saussure) is based on discovering “…the structural source of non-conceptual [affective] communication by examining the relations between elements of the language from the point of thought [and not meaning-differentiation]. Different
elements of the language would be seen to correlate with different non-conceptual values.” (Taylor 1980, p. 21).

In critically opposing Bally for his description of the two poles of interaction: “Thought [which] tends towards personal, affective, integral expression; [and] la langue towards the clear and effective communication of thoughts.” (Bally in Taylor 1980, p. 22), Taylor reveals, unintentionally perhaps, that Bally’s approach endangers the success of the speech act by stretching the limits of the communicable because the further an individual strays from conventional norms in an effort to communicate his personal thoughts, the greater the possibilities of expression; but, at the same time, the greater the ambiguity. This criticism has the seeds of a model for texts of unconventional and ambiguous structure which are not amenable to immediate interpretation, such as poetry, puns, sarcasm, irony, jokes. What the analysis of these forms of writing exactly needs is, as Bally defines stylistics, a discipline that recognises “...the effect of personal expression on language” (p. 23), that is the rhetorocity of language.

However, Bally did not divorce the non-conceptual expressions from linguistics as a basic fundamental that we all as language users need to communicate. He claims that this is due to two facts. “First, many expressive signs have become socialised.” (p. 31).

In other words, their use became part of the social convention just as the conceptual content of signs has become available to all members of the linguistic community. For example, the utterance ‘there IS a chance you (Keating) can do it’ (English text 4 XII/18) evokes its ironic meaning to the reader through his/her linguistic experience of the ‘unconventional’ use of capitalised IS which expresses the writer’s amazement and disbelief that a chance is still there for a new term for Keating despite or due to his political manipulation. The anaphoric reference ‘you’ and the context of situation, of course, are essential factors to assign irony to the writer’s intention; for capitalised words may be used to express emphasis on a concept, e.g. ‘we need to speak of a GRAMMAR of discourse’. To put it in Bally’s (p. 31) perspective:
The potential it [an expression] has to evoke a mental image is independent of context and interlocutor. The expressive-content which it evokes comes automatically, in the same way as does a concept. The only difference is that the relation between the expressive-form and its affective content is motivated; while the relation between form and concept is arbitrary.

Taylor assigns to this insight a principle: "...something that is inter-subjectively available to all speakers at all times must belong to the means [the language] which they habitually employ to achieve communication" (p. 31).

The second inference, i.e. principle that underlies Bally’s model objectivises the first rather general statement: "The sign is understood and perceived not on its own but in relation to the other signs of the system. There is, in particular, a constant opposition, in the minds of speakers, between what is expressive and what is not." (Bally 1952, p. 96). Hence, The system provides us with a model that by relying on and comparing utterances with it we can both express ourselves creatively and, consequently, perceive creative expressions.

These two principles seem to suggest two things: 1) competence has precedence over performance, whether this performance comes in the shape of creative and original, motivated affective, or arbitrary expression. 2) The need for a system proves that affective expressions are conventional, in the social sense, in the end result and are, to use Taylor’s words (p. 31), “part of the holistic system of la langue.”

The weakness of Bally’s model, according to Taylor, is its subjectivity. Part of the problem lies in that communicational function is to be found in the structure of the language, which creates the dilemma of identifying the different functional parts of the content. “Evidently, this dilemma stems from the impossibility of observing the stylistic contents on which the crucial analysis of the expression-plane depends.” (p. 37)

Having identified the stylistic contents, Bally structured his model as follows:
Considering irony, one can argue with Bally that a pure linguistic approach may carry difficulties for the analysis. In fact, Bally’s affective content above relates to irony to a great extent. For example, it would be difficult to find the meaning of the rhetorical question “Mud?” (English Text 1, III/6, in Appendix D) by simply substituting it with another in the same context. We rather need to see it as an entity itself, that has an evaluative and expressive effect, i.e. irony. This derives from the use of the combination of the connotative meaning of ‘mud’ and the question mark.

Jakobson, as briefly discussed in the literary criticism section above, played an essential role in the development of modern stylistics. This stems from his realistic linguistic approach to the analysis of style. Although Jakobson, as Taylor argues, shares with Bally his ‘linguistic reductionism’, he went on from where Bally and his successors left off and gave a more objective method of analysis. He, as I mentioned above, proposes six functions of the language: Emotive, referential, poetic, phatic, metalinguual and conative; he assigns the emphasis to the poetic function, i.e. the message of the speech. His study of this function “...focuses its analysis on the linguistic organization of that message.” (Taylor 1980, p. 44) He, like Bally, did not deny the role of situational factors in communication. A prior analysis of these factors, chosen from some particular linguistic feature of the utterance according to their relevance to the interpretation of the utterance, is needed in their views. Grammar and stylistic structure are the organising principles of the message in literary style. Grammar is ‘obligatory for a message’ while stylistic structure is ‘superimposed’.
A message acquires an expressive function, that Jakobson also calls

...a secondary communicational function besides that of transmitting meaning, as a result of a specific type of structure being superimposed on the variable features in its expression-plane. Its conceptual meaning is communicated due to the relation it bears to the rules of the language. Many of the expression-features, however, remain variable. (p. 46)

Jakobson’s mention of a ‘specific type of structure’ above means that there are certain devices that enable us to either articulate or understand the true meaning of a message. Let us take an example of a superimposed structural device from Arabic Text 1 (AT1) in Appendices, sequence II, utterance 4 (II/4): wa-al-yawm, ‘amadan ‘aw muta’ammi-dan, najidu ‘anna ra’isa ḥukūmati New South Wales ...yuḥāwilu ‘an yujarriba fīnā ḥād-hayni al-qawīlayni ... ‘[lit.] And today, willfully or premittently, we find that the Premier of the government of NSW ... is trying to test these two sayings on us ...’.

Willfully or premittently, in a conceptual sense, means either by will or, in the legal sense, according to a previous plan in the intention to get personal benefit regardless of the rights of others. The use of these two near synonymous terms, called binomial (Emery, 1991), is perfectly grammatical: an adverbial clause. Their juxtaposition is likely to be found in Arabic. What is interesting, in fact, is the impact (Nida 1990) they create, and, the peculiarities evoked in us due to the “deliberate manipulation of ‘gapping’ [semantic gaps]...” (Hatim 1989, p. 27) which I think, tentatively, is typical of through argumentative style in Arabic (for illustration of this style, see the communicative function of the structure in the analysis of Arabic text one in the appendices).

The influence of these two adverbs on the whole meaning of the utterance stems from: 1) their metaphoric, abstract and unusual use in the context; 2) their place in the foreground of the utterance which is also a deviation from the syntactic norm in Arabic which usually postpones the use of the adverbs until after the verbal sentence, i.e. wa-al-yawma najidu ‘anna ...yuḥāwilu ‘amadan ‘aw muta’ammi’dan ... [lit.] today, we find that ... he is trying willfully or premittently ... .
The reliance of the interpretation of the example above on the utterance, 'the two sayings', in sequence two which is a cataphoric reference to the sayings in sequence one, suggests that structural stylistic devices are an essential constituent in the building of the structure of the whole text. Following Austin's theory of language (1962), Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 175) argue that every sequence in the text has its propositional meaning and illocutionary force, which parallels Jakobson's conceptual meaning of the message and its second communicational function respectively. The authors perceive these sequences as elements that constitute text as a structured unit.

To support this discussion about stylistic structure and its implications on the interpretation of irony from a Jakobsonian view, it would be best to quote his "...most famous and influential paragraph in modern stylistics..." (Taylor 1980, p. 54):

What is the empirical linguistic criterion of the poetic functions? In particular, what is the indispensable feature inherent in any piece of poetry? To answer this question we must recall the two basic modes of arrangement used in verbal behaviour, selection and combination ... The selection is produced on the base of equivalence, similarity [sic.] and dissimilarity, synonymity and antonymity, while the combination, the build up of the sequence, is based on contiguity. The poetic function projects the principle of equivalence from the axis of selection into the axis of combination. Equivalence is promoted to the constitutive device of the sequence. (Jakobson in Taylor 1980, p. 54) [emphasis in bold is mine].

Hence, any account of the communicational function of ironic devices in a particular text must consider their integral role in the macro-text formation. This is very important for any interlingual text reproduction process such as translation. Once the strategies of text formation and the linguistic devices with which these strategies come to life are identified in the two languages in question, the task of finding translation equivalence from one to another or vice versa becomes more systematic and leaves less room for misinterpretations and mistranslations (see Bensoussan & Rosenhouse, 1990).
Riffaterre criticises Jakobson’s theory of stylistic structure and accuses it of being dependent on “... the analysis of the message as a verbal chain, as exhibiting a ‘set toward’ the grammar of the code.” (Riffaterre in Taylor 1980, p. 64). He argues that a theory of communicational interaction must be seen as a “...subjective reality, constituted by the perceptual faculties of addressee and addressee.” (p. 66). Furthermore, he stresses the role of the reader in the interaction and finds that the ‘unpredictable’ elements in the message - another way of saying structural ambiguity in the text - are responsible for the reader’s response to the message. Thus, the stylistic structure of a message to Riffaterre is seen as “... a structure of individual features which are rendered unpredictable by one, or a pattern of more than one, contextual features. Contrast within context, the whole forms a stylistic unit which is only unpredictable due to the juxtaposition of the two parts.” (p. 71). Perhaps this matches, to an extent, the idea of ‘foregrounding’ in the literary theory which is described by Stephens (1992, p. 148) as “Any strategy or device which causes a segment of a text to stand out prominently against its context (the background). [It] May be achieved by register shift (whether to a different, or higher, or lower register); sudden overwording; figurative language; unusual word-order or sentence structure; et cetera.” It is important to note here that the ‘unpredictability’ strategy or, to use de Beaugrande’s (1980, p. 257) terms, the “writers’ outplanning their readership or their selection of improbable pathways”, is not necessarily used for ironic purposes. Halliday (1967) views that predictability is an integral part of given/new information theory and is linked to recoverability. The thematic content of a sentence is predictable when it is recoverable from available information in the preceding sentence.

Nevertheless, Riffaterre’s view, following Taylor, eliminates the importance of the code as a determinant of the ‘unpredictability’. This, instead, is assigned to the clash of the ‘contrastive feature, i.e. unpredictability and the context, i.e. the equivalence of
a set of features’, ‘... both determines and is determined by the contrastive feature.’ (Taylor 1980, p. 71). Riffaterre explains the peculiarity of such a ‘self-supporting system’ on the basis that ‘Stylistic structure results from the interaction of the linguistic structure of the message and the perceptual structure of the reading process.’ (p. 72).

Riffaterre tries to find an escape from this circular generality of his behaviourist approach. He chooses as a methodology the motto, ‘no smoke without fire’, which relies on the synthesis of the message by observing the responses, i.e. stimulus of the readers and isolates the stylistic devices that cause such responses. ‘... from that point onward linguistic analysis, guided by the knowledge of the perceptual process of the reader, may continue the investigation.’ (p. 72).

One final remark on Riffaterre concerns his highly subjective views of what he calls subjective values. He argues that the relation between expression and content cannot be a convention of the language; it relies on other facts, such as, culture and experience, regardless of the content. On the other hand, he regards the stimulus as only being perceived in the contrast between feature and context and not in the ‘...individual expressions as possessing their own stylistic values; whereas it is only complete structures ...which actualise such values.’ (p. 77).

This rather literary argument leaves one with a great impression but it soon fades into one’s aspiration for objectivity. It, inherently in both arguments above, suggests that linguistic analysis is unable to detect the stimulus in the text. If that was true, how can a reader experience any response without the form and structure of the text? No doubt any linguistic analysis is deemed to lack credibility if it takes linguistic features devoid of their context, be it cultural, linguistic experience of interlocutors, situational dimensions, e.g. geographical, historical, political, ideological to name a few. Riffaterre perhaps hinted at the prominence of the formal features of stylistic values when he posited that ‘only complete structures actualise such values’.
Enkvist

Enkvist (1964) on the other hand, gave a rather general pragmatic insight into the definition of style. After Bally the impressionist, Jakobson the objective functional linguist and Riffaterre the behaviourist, Enkvist argues that context is the essence of the identification of stylistic markers. He states that “To recognize style markers, a study must be made of the distribution of linguistic items in different, but related, contexts.” (p. 34) Moreover, the interpretation of texts is also bound, in his view, to contexts which form part of every text, for example, the genre, the field of the topic, i.e. the provenance; the situation, i.e. the relationship between writer and reader; the reader; the writer’s attitude etc. All must be considered when we analyse any text. He claims that “... style is the aggregate of the contextual probabilities of its linguistic items” (p. 28). However, despite his articulate classification of contexts and contextual components (pp. 30-31), he left the door open to the analyst of style to choose, to use Enkvist’s term, in an ad hoc manner the contextual elements he wishes to compare and contrast his linguistic items with.

Although Enkvist does not claim any theoretical aims to his study of style and linguistics, his major contribution lies in his elaborate description of context and his discussion of identified stylistic items: Shift of style in context and the use of metaphors (p. 44) generates literary effects which are considered as stylistic items. The importance of a text appreciation process, in the literary study sense, lies in the fact that “Responses must always be linked with specific stimuli in context, for instance in a manner resembling that of the New critics.” (p. 51).

Spencer and Gregory

Spencer and Gregory (1964) argue that a specific style in language has a specific function, hence, it stems from the “...relation between language in use and social and cultural patterns.” (p. 59)
Spencer and Gregory took a defensive, yet cautious, stance when they discussed the linguistic approach to stylistic analysis. They argue that although linguistics provides consistency and techniques of language description, it lacks the same rigour of description when it comes to phenomena such as reader's response, the use of imagery and the writer's idiosyncrasy. But, they elaborate that a linguistic approach is essential, even for those concerned with literary criticism, especially when it focuses, as modern linguistics does, not just on theories and techniques but also on "... the development and critical maintenance of a sensitive attitude to language." (p. 64). By this sensitive attitude, reference is made to the meaning of utterances or the contextual meaning of items in the Hallidayan sense, in terms of the integral relation of formal, i.e. grammatical, lexical and graphological (in written discourse) features to the context of situation.

Semantic, grammatical and lexical descriptions, as Spencer and Gregory postulate, are essential for the analysis of style. Grammar provides us with meaning based on an account of the choice "... that has to be made between a small and limited number of possibilities." (p. 72), for example between a declarative and interrogative clause, the use of indirect speech. Lexical description is another formal dimension where meaning can be drawn. Among the important lexical concepts are metaphors and collocation. Collocations are part of the writer's arsenal as well as the features of the register (Hatim and Mason 1990, p. 47) of texts. The manipulation of collocation or, to use the authors' term, the 'unusual' use of them achieves for the writer some of his desired stimuli. Halliday and Hasan (1985) also suggest that collocation plays a role on the macro structure of the text, and that collocation is a lexical item that has a role in the cohesion of texts. Other important lexical strategies for the achievement of stylistic effects may encompass synonyms, lexical choice, and repetition to name a few.

Bearing that in mind, Spencer and Gregory suggest that in stylistic analysis features that are stylistically significant must be seen from the perspective of the "placing of
the text ... i.e. their institutional categories, or the dimension, of usage.” (p. 85). These dimensions include the historical fact of the text where certain linguistic features were used and had meaningful use and the register of the text, i.e. field, mode and tenor of the text (see Halliday and Hasan 1976).

Shifts of modes on the graphological, grammatical or lexical levels can be used as markers of the writer’s intentions and the effects he has in mind. The field of discourse has great influence on the understanding of texts of literary nature and on restricted textual fields such as scientific texts which draw on the conventional usage of language. A commentary writer using ironic style may choose for rhetorical aims, to shift from the institutionalised norms of commentary writing structure or texture and “... utilise [if we compare him/her to a ‘literary artist’] the linguistic resources of certain specialised fields for dramatic, poetic or evocative purposes” (Spencer & Gregory 1964, p. 87). Tenor, in the authors’ sense, determines the degree of formality and informality through the usage of certain formal features. Shift of tenor again is a linguistic marker; it “... is situation-tied ... [and] can be used to evoke situations and define relationships.” (p. 89).

Placing or seeing the text with reference to the norms described above promotes the indispensability of intertextual analysis and, forms, in the authors’ opinion, a net that separates, in the literary sense, the ‘unique’, i.e. the effective and particular features of the text from the ‘shared’ features.

The preceding discussion of Spencer and Gregory highlights the effect of the social contexts of language and the reliance on a ‘rigorous’ linguistic checking “... of features intuitively judged to be stylistically significant ...” (p. 85) in order to have a plausible account of the responses to the text. Contexts represent the safeguard for the isolation of stylistic items (language in general for Halliday) and their interpretation; while linguistic description gives validity to these items. Having realised the weak-
ness of the inescapable concept of intuitions in their discussion, the authors link the
validity and credibility of such intuitions with a contrastive analysis based on social
factors and linguistic description.

Although the authors concede that their intention is only a suggestion to "... what
might be demanded of a linguistic model in stylistic study" (p. 67) one can draw a
model for analysis or understanding of text in accordance with their stylistic account
as follows:

1. reader's response (based on) > 2. placing of the text (based on) > 3. linguistic description.
   judgment and recog-
   nition of style.  context of situation:
   history, register
   (field, tenor, mode),
   intertextuality.

Widdowson

Widdowson (1975) considers stylistic analysis as a discipline that develops in us the
intuitive ability to perceive literary texts. He situated it at the crossroads of literary
criticism and linguistics, and from this basis he views stylistics as an approach that
reconciles the linguist with the literary critic by attempting "... to show specifically
how elements of pieces of linguistic text combine to create messages, how, in
other words, pieces of literary writing function as a form of communication." (Widdowson 1975, p. 6).

By discussing poetry in general, Widdowson also argues that the violation of formal
structures of the language, whether in the use of metaphors or the oddities of the use
of grammar, is evidence of the need for stylistic analysis to study the "... meaning in
literary works ... not simply [by reference to the] function of the signification that lin-
guistic items have as code elements but [as]...function of the relationship between this
signification and the value these items take on as elements in a pattern created in the
context.” (p. 46) Thus, the author suggests, like the authors discussed above, that the communicative function of literary works can only be inferred when these works are treated as discourse and not as text in the Hallidayan sense. In other words, Widdowson sees the literary discourse as the link of the understanding of ‘what’ a work means to the understanding of ‘how’ it communicates.

2.3.2 Linguistic Criticism - Discourse

I have so far discussed the contribution of literary criticism, linguistics, and structural and descriptive stylistics to the analysis of irony. The first accounts for rhetorical devices, the second provides a description of the formal devices used, while the third tackles the study of language through the perception of stylistically relevant devices and their function in the understanding of the meaning of texts.

Based on the review of irony in literature as present in Chapter One, it seems that the description of irony according to the findings of the three disciplines above, although helpful in accounting for features such as stylistic placing, use of honorifics etc., needs a more ‘sophisticated’ discipline or disciplines that look, in addition to the above, at the formation of ironic texts from philosophical, psychological, social and/or communicative standpoints. This is to account for notions such as, misrepresentation, pretended advice, euphemism etc. Hence, the focus of what follows is on linguistic theories which view the analysis of the written language from another angle, namely, language as social interaction.

Fowler’s Literature as Social Discourse relates literary styles to their social contexts and function, stressing literature’s “... interpersonal and institutional dimensions, concentrating on those parts of textual structure which reflect and which influence relations with society.” (Fowler 1981, p. 7). He further argues that seeing literature within the sociolinguistic realm recognises the influence of culture on texts of ‘great for-
mal diversity' "... as possessing certain institutional values and performing certain functions." (p. 81). This statement clearly indicates the overlap between stylistics and discourse analysis. Jakobson's stylistic functional theory, which stresses formal diversity and its functional significance, has indirectly, as discussed above, pointed out to such overlap. Allen and Corder also emphasise this fact by arguing that

...there are two aspects of the study of discourse. The first is related to the study of utterance types, or communicative acts, in isolation.... The ultimate aim of this aspect ...is to provide a characterization of different acts of communication in terms of the conditions which must obtain for such acts to be effectively performed ... The second aspect of discourse analysis concerns the way in which individual communicative acts are linked together to develop larger units of communication. (1975, pp. 200 & 201)

The two aspects, in the author's view, are interrelated in that the communicative coherence of utterances in a sequence or, ultimately text, is related to the communicative acts of the utterances.

Literary studies engage freely in 'functional explanations', to use Fowler's term. Thus the need for functional and sociological approaches in any analysis of literary style. In their discussion of discourse analysis, Sinclair & Coulthard (1975, p. 13) give a detailed definition of discourse: "[In discourse] ... the level of language function in which we are centrally interested is ... the level of the function of a particular utterance, in a particular social situation and at a particular place in a sequence, as a specific contribution to a developing discourse." Particular utterances can refer to formal stylistic devices, while particular social situations may denote Enkvist's contextual restraints, and lastly the particular place in a sequence indicates the role of formal stylistic devices in text development (Hatim, 1989; Hatim and Mason 1990; Sa'adeddin, 1989) and in the process of arrangement of form and content (Nida, 1990 pp. 146-149). Viewing discourse from this angle we can assume that a discursive functional analysis is three dimensional: Stylistic, sociolinguistic and rhetorical.
2.3.3 Functional and Speech Act Theories

2.3.3.1 Halliday's Functional Theory

Halliday's theory of functions (1985), on the other hand, relates to the above three dimensions, but paradoxically, he was more general and more restrictive in his theory of functions. More general in the sense that he suggests three functional categories of language: the ideational, i.e. experiential, the interpersonal and the textual. He was more restrictive in his explanation of the systematic realisation of the three features of the context of situation, i.e. field, tenor and mode through the three functional components of the semantic system mentioned above respectively. In the ideational function, Halliday's theory relies on and departs from the text to detect the real meaning; it implies that we must refer to our experience of the real world. The interpersonal meaning of the language functions as a way of acting, a progression from the semantic meaning to the pragmatic one, to text as a communicative intercourse vehicle. Grammatical features, texture, structure and generic features represent the textual meaning of the text.

Let us try to apply Halliday's functional model on the rhetorical device Waddawakhana: 'made us dizzy', in Arabic Text 2, I/1, in Appendices: “The West has deafened our ears and made us dizzy by its abundant talk about democracies and the freedom of speech and beliefs” [literal translation for illustration]. The ideational meaning of the verb dawwakha stems from the following transformation: it is a feeling that one gets when a physical malfunction in the brain occurs as a result of sickness or malnutrition, fatigue, sea sickness etc. In the context of this article and bearing in mind the field of the discourse, another explanation must be considered, that is the metaphorical use. We know that Arabic speakers, unlike English speakers, use parts of the body (cf. deafened our ears) and physical senses as metaphors for emphasis. We know also that, in politics, the West is another metaphor that, in the real world,
represents the ideologies, leaders, media and people of the West in general and not a specific geographical part of the world. Thus \textit{wa-dawwakhana} refers to the effect of the daily Western arrogance, in regard to its democracies, on \textit{us}' feeling uneasy. Simply, this word seems to represent our "... real world as it is apprehended in our experience" (Halliday, p. 20). Thus, the underlying meaning that we deduce is likely to be 'we are tired of hearing' because we are hearing it all the time.

The next step in the comprehension of the utterance is to consider the word from "... its function in the process of social interaction. ... as a mode of doing" (Halliday, p. 21), the interpersonal function. By assuming that 'we' is exclusive since it refers to the Arabs in general and muslims in particular, and that 'he' refers to 'them', the Western people and their views, and by reference to the experiential meaning of \textit{dawwakh}a as interpreted above, then lastly by looking at the utterance as a conversation between an addressee and addressees we can suggest that the meaning is 'We reject and object to 'your', i.e. the Western, claim of being the custodian of democracy ... in the world'.

The final aspect of meaning is the textual meaning of the word. The 'thematic organisation' of the utterance, to use Halliday's term, implies that the speech function of \textit{dawwakh}a is thematic, i.e. announcing the rejection of the claim and preparing the ground for a rebuttal (Hatim and Mason, 1990) which is a feature of commentary writing. Furthermore, the use of the colloquial/standard verb \textit{dawwakh}a is a tone marker of the speech that exerts on us an exaggerated illogical impact and gives an explicit indication of a potential ironic intention.

Now, perhaps we can deduce from this discussion of the example above and in conjunction with the three dimensional discourse functions mentioned, a possible discourse macro-model to interpret an ironic device in commentary:
However, we still need to explain why we can label the word *dawwakhanā* as an ironic rhetorical device, and why one word can alter the conceptual meaning of an utterance giving it the true meaning that it has.

### 2.3.3.2 Speech Act Theory

To answer the above questions, Fowler argues that Austin’s speech act theory “... initiates a formal explanation of our recognition of the force [of devices]. [But the] ... facts about illocution ... do not take the critic very far towards an interpretation, [for] an understanding of them is prerequisite to interpretation.” (Fowler 1981, p. 86). In our example above the felicity condition, i.e. the requirement of a normal communicative channel, was broken (see Fowler, p. 86) when we encountered the use of the colloquial/standard *dawwakhanā* in a metaphoric sense. Now if we consider this a step further in line with Fowler’s argument that literary discourse has marked and unmarked illocutionary determinants, the unmarked illocution would be ‘I state that the West has made us sick by telling us ...’, while the marked illocutionary act would be ‘we are tired of the West telling us ...’, this also could be understood in the context of the commentary’s argumentative text type as a rejection to the West’s claim.

Fowler (1981) argues that a text must be treated as process, that is as discourse. He also claims that speech act strategies furnish our understanding of the text by catering for the overt as well as the covert, i.e. stylistic interpersonal elements in the lan-
guage. The latter may be implied in the use of 'discorced register', i.e. shift of register, for instance, the use of colloquialisms in serious writing, or highly cultivated vocabulary in a letter addressed to workers etc.

On the other hand, overt illocutionary acts, in Fowler's view, are explicit in the text through the use of signals such as modality, mood of the verb, questions which are described by Fowler as marked illocutionary acts and "... strongly imply a questioner and a questioned ... [for a rhetorical question] reminds us of its participants more strongly than does, say, a plain statement." (p. 90), and generalisations in the form of proverbial tone, or even the use of proverbs is a mark of authority and control of the writer (p. 90). Reader participation is also implied in discourse. It is explicit, on the one hand, through the use of first and second person pronouns, and the inclusive 'we', such as when it refers to the writer and the reader as a form of solidarity; sharing of a state of affairs, and on the other hand implicit, in the use of exclusive 'we', when a speech act also contains 'you' it means that "... the addressee and some third party' opposes his addressee or addressees ..." (p. 93).

In reviewing Fowler's Literature as social discourse, two 'coincidental' similarities come to light: 1) that the illocutionary acts parallel Jakobson's poetic function, or Enkvist's contextual meaning as explained in the discussion about stylistics above. All three share the view that a text has elements, to use a common word, to all approaches, that determine the text's comprehension. These elements are formal, explicit, for example, the use of pronouns and modality, and rhetorical and implicit; for example, pretended agreement with the victim, parallel structure, colloquialisms etc. 2) Although discourse and stylistics treat texts from a pragmatic standpoint, discourse, unlike stylistics, emphasises the interactional features of texts, that is, social role relationships, participation and point of view.

Furthermore, one important observation stems from this discussion about discourse
and stylistics. Although stylistics was able to explicitly show the significance of the linguistic elements in the texts, it lacks the precision to explain, again linguistically, why parts of the literary style or discourse that we encounter are perceived as ironic. Discourse, as Fowler claims (p. 88) is concerned not only "... with the exact correctness of the paraphrase, but rather with the route by which we arrive at it, and, further, with the consequences of this route for our perception of illocutionary structure" [my emphasis]. In saying this, Fowler postulates two essential categories of discourse: variety: the formal stylistic effect of texts, and function: "... the social and personal needs that language is required to serve." (Halliday cited in Fowler 1970, p. 142).

Based on this assumption, let us apply this point of view to the following understate-
ment from Arabic text 2, IV/8: Salman Rushdie al-maskīn: the poor Salman Rushdie. According to stylistics, in its 'restricted context' (Fowler 1981, Chapter 10) this utter-
ance is a mark of irony. This conclusion is based on an impressionistic, behaviouristic view. However, following Searle's speech act theory (1969), Halliday's interpersonal meaning, or Fowler's sociolinguistic theory, "... communicative functions are trans-
personal (social, economic, political, cultural) in origin, [where] the relevant repertoire is ... social and not personal." (Fowler 1981, p. 195). These discourse notions enable us to predict the utterance's double meaning from the textual features and, ultimately, favour the implicature that Rushdie is a victim of Western democracy rather than the semantic meaning 'Rushdie is a victim of the oppressive nature of Islam'.

2.3.4 Conversational Maxims

Assuming that irony is not liable to direct interpretation, as it was demonstrated from the examples above, Searle's indirect speech acts, that is, the real illocutionary force of the utterance, claim solution to the problem. He admits, however, that "... the hearer 'needs some way of finding out when ... a question [can you pass me the salt
for instance, is about his abilities and when it is a request, it is at this point that
the general principles of conversation (together with the factual background infor-
mation) come into play." (cited in Coulthard 1983, p. 28). In other words, setting
speech act rules: ability, willingness, obligations etc. cannot encapsulate and
describe all the stylistic repertoire available to language users. Thus, Coulthard fol-
lowing Labov and Fanshel, suggests the need to limit the number of ways a given
indirect speech act is made through reference to "... reality, the constraints of the sit-
uation and the current speaker's intentions for the progress of the succeeding dis-
course..." (p. 30). This limitation process, although reducing 'the choice' of inter-
pretation, needs "... an associated theory to explain how a listener comes to reject
the direct interpretation and select the indirect one" (p. 30). In other words, there is
a need for some norms according to which we can contrast the utterance and estab-
lish its real inference. For this purpose, Coulthard proposes Grice's conversational
maxims as the norms.

In giving a detailed description of the implications of Grice's conversational maxims
for discourse analysis, I will consider that commentary writing, or any written dis-
course for that matter, is a two way interaction. Thus, as in any normal conversation,
it involves not only the writer's attitude, world knowledge and intentions toward his
topic but also his assumption about the world knowledge and views of his readers. In
other words, writers continuously 'membership' (Coulthard, 1983) their readers to
avoid misinterpretation.

Irony in commentary which, in the restricted sense, is a form of linguistic ambigu-
ity, becomes a well established colourful form of writing in the press. This typologic
definition seems, prima facie, to suggest one easy positive solution to a discourse
analysis approach. Drawing on Hymes, Coulthard (1983, p. 44) concludes that
knowing the "possible parameters" [italics in original] of the speech event, that is,
the participants, situation and style gives the analyst great ability of expectancy.
However, we are left with another stylistic problem, namely, the idiosyncratic way with which commentary writers choose to express themselves and to achieve their rhetorical ends, their textual manipulation, as well as the lexical and grammatical choice. Thus, what we need to look for is the linguistic description of the implicit meaning embedded in textual manipulations which explains the process of text production a given writer chooses to follow.

Given the unlimited ways of ironic expression, it is almost safe to say that no data analysis of ironic texts, however comprehensive, is able to classify (compare Muecke and Booth's classifications above with the diversity of the devices discussed later in regards to the data analysed in this study) in a single frame, all the devices available to writers through the linguistic repertoire. Thus, it is essential to treat irony as a deviant norm of literature, for it is not only metaphoric, poetic, comic, moral, corrective or hortatory but it, more or less, includes all these features.

To define irony writing as deviance from the norm and to postulate the difficulty of encompassing ironic strategies in a tangible, objective classification, is to suggest the existence of 'interpretive problems'. These problems stem from the 'openness' of the discourse acts, the realisations of which cannot be 'closely specified' (Coulthard, 1983). Searle, as we have discussed above, approaches this "... lack of fit between grammar and discourse" (Coulthard 1983, p. 129) through indirect speech acts while Sinclair et al. (Cited in Coulthard 1983) suggest a sociocultural-structural approach based on a two stage interpretive process about information related to 'situation' and 'tactics'. However, (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, p. 29) argue that "... classification [i.e. the illocutionary force of items,] can only be made of items already tagged with features from grammar and situation." Coulthard (1983) gives an example on the application of this hypothesis to the interrogative grammatical category and suggests interpretive rules according to situational categories. These rules, the author admits, rely on "... inferencing by listeners /readers/ and on appeal to shared world knowledge" (p. 132)
Furthermore, Coulthard argues that, despite the problems posed by the implausibility of characterisation of the speakers’ knowledge, language users, equipped with successful discourse rules, handle ambiguities that might result from the speakers/writers making the wrong predictions and assumptions about their listeners/readers which might hinder interaction and interpretation.

Sinclair and Coulthard’s ‘successful discourse rules’ are plausible indeed for a sanitised analysis. However, to suggest the possibility of devising rules for grammatical categories in every possible natural language situation, in ironic writing, therefore, and, ultimately, to make use of these rules to interpret ambiguities is obviously unachievable, simply because of the unpredictable variability of situations.

So, this argument begs a few questions. How can we as readers infer what a writer wants to say easily and without realising that we are performing (having to resort to) such complicated analysis? Or, to put it differently, is this the natural process that conversationalists, written or oral, follow when they attempt to produce or infer irony? For example, when the writer in Arabic text 3, III/4 uses the expression ma’lūmāt napūlūmiyya: Napoleonic information, 1) he was expressing a view about someone, 2) he didn’t want to use a direct style of attack, 3) he, more or less, disassociates himself from the view expressed (see Hatim and Mason 1990, pp. 98-99). Thus he charges his utterance with an unusual qualifier: ‘Napoleonic’ which, he assumes will have impact and will be understood as exaggeration. Hence, the truth value rests in the reverse of what he is saying. Arabic readers, on the other hand, must also share the writer’s strategic and linguistic competence (hence, inference theories presuppose a degree of competence that the writer and readers must have for the success of discourse). The readers do so, however, in a backward movement: They first realise, to use my example above, the oddity of the collocation: ma’lūmāt: ‘information’, which in Arabic,
normally collocates with *sirrīyya*: 'secret'; *mawthūqa*: 'reliable' etc. Secondly, the pragmatic meaning of the adjective 'Napoleonic' refers anaphorically to the previous sequence which means that the writer indirectly employs the same terminology - or its derivation - the victim of the irony used in his original declaration, that is, the subject matter of the attack. This is a strategic procedure to protect one's views about someone, that is, loathing someone using his own words. This strategy is quite common in our everyday conversations between friends or more formally when we deviously or amusingly talk about someone absent.

The following diagram shows the bi-directional text production/inference process of the utterance analysed above:

```
Writer>
Intentions (views, attitude) > assumptions about the readers > stylistic choice
    " < assumptions about the writer < Reader
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*Figure 2.5* Bi-directional text production/inference

Grice (1975) has suggested maxims that are writer/reader-oriented. They are more general and also based on inferencing and shared knowledge. Gricean conversational maxims have been the focus of attention of many discussions, although general and limited, about irony (Hatim and Mason 1990; Emery 1991; Marta Mateo (unpublished manuscript); Stephens 1992).5

The co-operative principle which accounts for Grice's 'conversational implicature' is spelled out by four maxims (Coulthard 1983, p. 31; Stephens 1992, p. 79):

1. Quantity a) make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange);
b) do not make your contribution more informative than is required
A speaker should give the appropriate quantity of information, neither
too much nor too little.

2. Quality
a) do not say what you believe to be false;
b) do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence
Information given should be correct or truthful.

3. Manner
a) avoid obscurity of expression;
b) avoid ambiguity;
c) be brief;
d) be orderly.

4. Relation
be relevant.
Relation includes both subject matter and manner: for example, a
change of subject and a change of register may both be breaches of
relation.

2.4 Towards a Theory of Inference

Before I discuss the implication of Grice’s maxims on my study, it is important to stress
that my concern is finding a theory of inference to identify irony in the texts in ques-
tion, which is a crucial step in the comprehension and, therefore, the analysis of those
texts. This identification is the first step in the analysis. It points out the double mean-
ing and the ironic intention of the utterance, and consequently, the text. Grice sets out
his maxims to explore the phenomenon of conversational implicature (Coulthard 1983).
By reading the maxims above, and by referring to our knowledge of how conversations
take place, one realises that Grice’s maxims represent the matrices according to which
one can account for ambiguities in conversation. Following Coulthard (1983, p. 31) "...
these maxims do not represent a descriptive statement of how conversational contributions are...". Speakers and writers violate these maxims often. A speaker may violate the maxim of quantity to be polite. For example, ‘Do you think it would be possible for you to help me?’ is a question replacing a direct request ‘I want you to help me’, or he may choose to break the maxim of manner for a rhetorical reason as building up a plot in narratives or an essay for instance. A writer may also flout a maxim, or to use Coulthard’s terms, ‘blatantly fail to fulfil’ a maxim in order to mock someone or a situation in a subtle way, for example the utterance: ‘it’s a beautiful day!’ when it is clearly miserable weather.

So, giving such variety of purposes to the violations of the maxims and giving the infinite possibilities of infringements, it is necessary to consider the violations that are most likely to occur in ironic commentary writing as specific stylistic devices for a specific text type. Hence, there is need to give a definition of these specific violations. Some may suggest that it is a presupposition to label a text as using ironic devices before the examination or rather the application of the maxims. This statement would be true only if I was referring to texts in general and not to journalistic commentary texts. Knowledge of the speech event, that is, the type of the discourse, is a precondition to my assumption above. We know that editorials deal with current affairs: political, economic, social etc., and we know that editorial writers wanting to express their views on these issues may be motivated (institutionally or personally), opinionated and analytical, targeting a readership which might share their expectations, inclinations, and judgements (see discussion in Chapter Four). Moreover, and most importantly, both the reader and the writer share the stylistic features and norms of commentary text writing: the length, the page number, the structure and texture of the text, the implicit detached non-committal criticism, the corrective, hortatory message given between the lines, the use of irony to get the message through in a most implicit, concise and impressive way, to name a few of the strategies commonly used in this form of writing.
This prior knowledge or experience of the speech event plays a crucial role in identifying the violations of Grice's maxims encountered in editorials and background features as ironic devices and not as mere rhetorical stylistic devices of argumentative texts in general. In other terms, distinction has to be made between irony in a specific text type and irony in literature in general. Muecke and Booth as well as Grice focus on the general concept of irony and conversational norm breaching, respectively. For example utterances 18,19,20/VIII in English text 1 "Still, if nothing else, these extra challenges should raise Fahey's profile. A Newspoll opinion poll ... showed that just 5 percent of people would prefer Fahey as Premier. The reason is that most people don't know him" are considered as ironic given the setting: a commentary on the Homefund scandal that marred the Premier of NSW Mr Greiner's political career, and the commentator's ironic thesis in the introduction.

The utterances are considered to violate the maxim of quality in consistence with the thesis' strategy: once Fahey becomes involved in clearing up the 'mess of the Homefund scheme' (VII/17) and given he is previously known as a man of reports, that is, an issue defuser (VI/15), his handling of the issue not only will ease the pressure off the Premier's Government, but, ironically, will also boost Fahey's image at the electorate poll.

This clearly shows that the maxim flouting strategy can serve as a trigger only. Thus the real interpretation involves seeing this strategy in correlation with the environment (political, social etc.) and the usage of the language inventory and rules, such as, the text type convention (Hatim and Mason 1990, p. 48) (grammar, lexis, syntax, structure, style).

However, the contribution that Grice's maxims make takes the lid off a long overdue inference theory. In other words, linguistics has tried for many years to account objectively for interpretive rules, hence drawing, in my view, the carpet from underneath the literary theory as the sole logical, though subjective, discipline for inferencing.
Grice himself posits (cited in Hatim and Mason 1990) that flouting the maxim of quality accounts for ironic intentions. Hatim and Mason (1990) argue that the maxim of quantity, for example, the use of an understatement, may indicate irony also; while in her discussion about writer/reader interaction in literary texts, Pratt "...suggests that one can usually apply Grice's Co-operative Principle and derived maxims to literary text ... she presents the opening sentences of Tristram Shandy and notes a series of failures to observe the maxims of Manner, Quality and Relation" (cited in Coulthard, 1983, pp. 180-181). Ohmann (cited in Coulthard 1983) has gone as far as saying that literary work consists of a series of 'quasi speech acts' and that an inference can only be deduced from the whole work, as this was noted above in my analysis of the utterances of English text 1. Many disciplines, since the turn of this century, have posited and implicitly advocated such a theory. Bally (cited in Taylor 1980, p. 32) suggested the need for a rule to detect the 'expressive effects' of the language; Sperber and Wilson (cited in Hatim and Mason 1990, p. 98) take a more philosophical stand when they give their own version about the violation of the maxim of quality for ridicule purposes. They "... talk of 'second-degree interpretation', involving recognition that the speaker is echoing some (real or imagined) source from which he is dissociating himself by implication. The echo may be some conventionally-held view...". Sinclair et al. (cited in Coulthard 1983, p. 129) suggested also, in line with my observation above,

... a two-stage interpretive process involving information first about situation and then about tactics. Situation refers to all relevant factors in the environment, social conventions and the shared experience of the participants, while tactics handles the syntagmatic patterns of discourse, the way in which items precede, follow and are related to each other.

Moreover, Fowler (1981) views that the 'systematic' transgression of the potential of the code lies behind the apparent breaches of the conventions. Of course, systematic refers here to the blatant breaking of the rules for motivated ends. Moreover, Fowler (p. 67), interestingly, posits three aspects of text structure: cohesive, progressive and localising. By cohesion he was referring to Halliday and Hasan's notion of the lin-
guistic patterning that ‘hangs the text together’; by progression, also linguistically, he means the “... text’s logical and temporal ongoingness” (p. 72); while localisation, and here Fowler also argues, indirectly, about systematic breaches of a structural nature, plays a role in holding up “... the reader’s attention at a specific place in the total syntagm. Language at one place becomes different from the ongoing textual norms.” (p. 75). This notion of localisation can be matched in literary terms with foregrounding (see discussion on Riffaterre in 2.4).

Stubbs (1983) takes a different approach to Fowler. He directs the analysis process away from the text and emphasises the role of the reader’s expectations and the existence of abstract norms governing interpretation. “What is involved is a model of norms, rather than merely the analysis of particular texts; although the description will have to be controlled by naturally occurring data.” (Stubbs, 1983, p. 94). He also differs with Fowler on the latter’s views regarding his organised structure of the rule breaking of the code. Stubbs sees that utterances cannot be coded as isolated units and then looks for recurrent patterns. Because it is impossible to know how utterances are sequentially placed, and because it would not be possible to account for the intuitive expectations that utterances invoke in us, hearers/readers perform structural analysis themselves. The crucial point in the analysis of irony is Stubbs’ argument that irrelevance in interaction is common and his assumption that readers have:

... the ability to recognise irrelevance [which] means... the deviation from expectations, ... therefore expectations, are recognizable. Similarly the breaking of expectations in jokes, irony, sarcasm and so on, is itself an indication that there are expectations to be broken. We often recognize norms only when they are broken (Stubbs 1983, pp. 94-95).

These norms, in Stubbs’ (p. 95) view, are not mandatory but deal rather “... with maxims of co-operativeness (Grice, 1975) or guiding principles (G. Wells et al., 1979).” Stubbs does not, in his later discussion, deny the structural constitutive role of utterances. He views that “... hearers interpretation which creates the coherence of dis-
course" (p. 96), is a bidirectional analytical process. "... utterances predict forward ... but interpretives may operate backwards in discourse to discover the relevance to its predecessors, especially if a mismatch is evident." (p. 96). Moreover, the author argues that any statement about the well-formedness, i.e. the prediction of the right inference of discourse requires the 'idealization' of the data. This involves the setting up of a plausible interpretation that favours a 'canonical support' to the utterance as opposed to the rejection of such interpretation (pp. 99-100). However, the author has stressed that predictability occurs in the light of the structural markers or the "... linguistic phenomena which do not fit neatly into the syntactic and semantic categories of contemporary linguistics." (p. 67)

Briefly, Stubbs' inference process relies in the end result on the textual features of the text, the exploitation of norms of writing (of conversational nature) by writers and, lastly the reader's role in the process represented by their linguistic competence and their situational and cultural experience of the text.

Nida (1975, p. 18) also follows Stubbs' line of argument, arguing that a reader's reactions to the forms of language are different from "... the content of utterances [and] are based on expectations.... Any violation of these expectations is viewed as inappropriate, and it is to this violation that we react." Expectations or 'emotive meanings', to Nida, result from at least four important factors he called "The locutory context of communication ...: (1) time, (2) place, (3) roles of participants, and (4) degree of formality and informality in setting." (p. 19).

In translation, expectations seems crucial because of its integral part in the stylistic strategies of text formation. de Beaugrande (1980, pp. 292-293) sees in his approach to the notion of style that

... style arises from the characteristic mapping procedures among the various levels of participating language systems. Some of these mappings affect the distribution of phonemes and
morphemes ... and the formatting of sentences ... Yet to depict style fully, we must consult all the mapping from the phases of PLANNING and IDEATION all the way to the LIN-
EARIZATION of the surface text ... We must note the particular modifications performed in or between these phases as an additional non-obligatory contributor to style. Finally, we must confront the observed processes with the EXPECTATIONS of potential text receivers about the respective domains ... [emphasis in original]

Interestingly, Tannen (1977) attempts to approach the notion of expectations from a practical angle. She suggests that the structures of expectations which underlie, in her view, "... talk about frames, scripts, and shemata in the fields of linguistics, artificial intelligence, cognitive psychology, social psychology, sociology and anthropology ..." (pp. 137-138) among other disciplines, are not only restricted to text comprehension but they also affect language production. She conducts a study on a group of women from different backgrounds who are shown a short silent film and then are asked to tell what they saw. Then she gives a linguistic account of what constitutes expectations listing the types of evidence of expectations: omission, repetition, false starts, backtrack, hedges, and other qualifying words or expressions, negatives, contrastive connectives, modals, inexact statements, generalisation, inference, evaluative language, interpretation, moral judgement, incorrect statement [false recollection] and addition.

Thus, seeing the notion of expectations from the perspective of text structures as discussed above, suggests that translators, in the process of text reproduction into another language, must consider their readers' expectations and employ an acceptable and recoverable mapping strategy equivalent to the intended mapping in the original text.

Finally, ironologists have also made a contribution towards a recognition of the pragmatic function of language and the theory of inference. Muecke (1982, p. 52) recognises the necessity for ironists "... to break with advantage the rules of art" in order to enhance irony. He states four principles for a successful irony, two of which may come under the heading: breaching of Grice's maxims of manner and quantity. The
principle of 'economy' may imply the infringement of the maxim of quantity, while the principle of 'high contrast' coincides with the flouting of the maxim of manner (for a discussion of Muecke, refer to 1.3 in this study). Muecke further explains his principle of high contrast by arguing that in the class of simple irony, placing something, without comment, in a particular context invalidates it, which means that intentions, could be best identified from the context.

Muecke's notion of context implies, as modern linguists would argue, that text structure plays an important role in the process of identification and, most importantly, the interpretation of ironic devices.

In summary, the theory of inference proves to be a plausible ground to employ in the analysis and translation of ironic texts. The conversational maxims seem to agree with the notion of expectations as implicit signs communicated in the [speech/] text's texture and structure. Grice provided a detailed model which can help the analyst/translator to infer the irony and to pinpoint, linguistically, how it is used and for what rhetorical end. This leads us to a discussion of the role of ironic devices on the text's structure.

### 2.5 Ironic Devices and Text Structure

The review above has discussed disciplines and models both in linguistics and in literature which are relevant to the analysis of the ironic devices present in journalistic commentary texts, particularly, editorial and background features. The review, however, shows that devices affect and are affected by the textual environment of the linguistic items, that is, co-text (Hatim and Mason 1990). Hence, they are meaningless in isolation. In other words, to complete the analysis we must consider the level of structure. Since the ultimate aim of this study is finding translation strategies for ironic devices in what could be labelled ironic text type, it is necessary to find the effect
of those devices on the text formation strategies. To complete the review, I ought to consider, following Allen and Corder’s study of discourse mentioned above, in addition to “... the study of utterance types, or communicative acts, in isolation ...[,] the way in which individual communicative acts are linked together to develop larger units of communication” (1975, pp. 200-201).

The above suggestion stems from two questions: 1) can a descriptive analysis of formal and semantic ironic devices take place in isolation from the text as a whole? 2) If so, is it sufficient for the performance of the translation task at hand? I will leave the answer to the second question to a later discussion about the strategies for translation of the topic at hand. Based on the literary discussion above, it was demonstrated that irony depends on the writers’ strategies to conceal their intentions on the utterance level. Compare, for example, in Arabic Text 1, the use of collocations that are viewed as overstatements, but only in relation to the topic, or, the internal contradiction in which the writer’s attitude is reflected by way of intertextuality; or in English text 3 the use of a chain of figurative language to describe the Liberal Party, ellipsis, use of italics, or rhetorical questions. All these utterances depend on context, both internal and external, to be interpreted. Thus, each ironic utterance is, in its own right, an effective part of the text structure strategy.

Structural stylistics and discourse analysis, discussed above, have tackled literary writing in general and stressed, respectively, the superimposition of a chosen structure on the meaning of utterances (see Jakobson above), and the function of “... a particular utterance, in a particular social situation and at a particular place in a sequence, as a specific contribution to a developing discourse.” (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p. 13). Perhaps, in this account, suffice it to refer to my discussion to realise that structure was stressed in each inquiry of modern linguistic disciplines. What I think it needs is further discussion as to how ironic utterances contribute to the formation of a text and why a translation of ironic text type has to build on such a contribution.
Linguistics and translation theories have employed scores of notions that deal with
text structure above sentence level: sequence (House 1977); text’s rhetorical function,
text development (Hatim 1989; Hatim and Mason 1990; Sa’adeddin 1989), macro-
structure (van Dijk 1977); cohesion and coherence (Halliday and Hasan 1976).

Structure was considered also in its most general sense by Crystal (1991, p. 331) as
"...a network of interrelated UNITS, the MEANING of the parts being specifiable
only with reference to the whole." [emphasis in original]

Hatim and Mason

Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 222) see structure or text plan as the second notion which
is implemented through the means of texture; while Halliday (1976, p. 326) states
that “The third and final component of texture is the structure of discourse [the first
two being the cohesion and the internal textual structure], by this we mean the larger
structure that is a property of the forms of discourse themselves...”

Based on this, and as the examples given in my discussion on linguistics above
demonstrate, a practical analytical process for ironic texts must explicate the process
of text forming. Therefore the analysis must follow the hierarchy of utterance,
sequence [elements] (Hatim & Mason 1990, p. 165), and text. The concept of utter-
ances represents, as defined by House (1977, p. 28); “... [the] units of discourse char-
acterized by their use-value in communication.”, and as in Lotfipour-Saedi’s paper
(1990, p. 394-5) “...utterance meaning : [is] a broader scope of the meaning catering
to the influence of the extra-linguistic factors in verbal interactions....[It is] the way
the message is conveyed, i.e. the degree of indirectness the original author has
employed for conveying his message.”

Coulthard (1985, p. 147) also views the degree of indirectness as part of sociolin-
guistic competence of knowledge and skill, that is, text-forming:

Sociolinguistic competence is concerned with appropriateness - 'both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form' - and this includes not simply rules of address and questions of politeness but also selection and formulation of topic and the social significance of indirect speech acts.

Along the same line of argument, Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 165) identify sequences of elements - utterances - by the discourse relations between elements, that is the rhetorical functions fulfilled by a string of elements. Meanwhile Van Dijk (1977, p. 177) argues that there is a given purpose in a sequence of compound acts. Furthermore, he posits that illocutionary acts "... do not come alone. They are part of SEQUENCES OF ACTION in general or of SEQUENCES OF SPEECH ACTS in particular." (p. 202) [emphasis in original]. These illocutionary acts ought to be described, in Van Dijk's view, at a level of global speech acts i.e. at a level of "... whole conversations with respect to a context." (p. 203)

The final analysis in Hatim and Mason's (1990, p. 178) view is text, which is the ultimate progress to a goal and the highest tangible level for analysis:

A text will be deemed complete at the point where the rhetorical goal is considered to have been achieved. In other words, a boundary will come at a point where a sequence no longer commits the text producer to elaborate further in pursuit of an overall rhetorical purpose.

The authors argue that texts' structures are marked by 'topic shift' which "...enables us to identify boundaries not only between texts, but also between sequences and elements [utterances] within a given text." (Hatim and Mason 1990, p. 177). The change of topic is considered by the authors from three perspectives: the propositional meaning, the illocutionary force: the speech act, and the sign.
Topic shift is also considered as a characteristic of text structure and is signalled by various linguistic features of the discourse. Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 177) see it as "...the point at which there is a perceptible change of topic between adjacent portions of discourse. Lexical and syntactic signals are always present to mark this shift...". Moreover, in their discussion about political commentaries, Hatim (1989) and Hatim and Mason (1990) suggest two basic forms of argumentation; namely, through argument and counter argument. The former is characterised by the substantiation of an initial thesis while the latter deals with the rebuttal of a thesis cited (see analysis in Appendices). The authors compare Arabic and English style of argumentation and they speculate on, though admitting the non exclusivity of, the common use of through argument in Arabic, for many reasons, among them solidarity and political motives. This, in addition to the text building devices is, in their view, a mark of Arabic language preference and text type. Based on the texts at hand, I can assume that the analysis in this research will demonstrate that both strategies are used in both languages and that the difference is in the degree of explicitness and implicitness of the ironic devices: their selection and their contribution to text's development.

*Sa'adeddin*

In this context, Sa'adeddin (1989) argues that circularity or aurality, as he puts it, is a characteristic, in general, of Arabic text development on both levels, i.e. structure and texture. Examples are: repetition, exaggeration, loose packaging of information, development by addition and accumulation. Further, he found that the Arabic mode was rejected by English native speakers. However, he shows that Arabic text production is not restricted to aural mode but also, both historically and in modern times, uses the more cohesive and coherent visual mode. The author gives two illustrations, a text from the eleventh century and another from a book on Islam (pp. 44-46). In both instances he demonstrates how native Arabic literates can develop their texts visually using logical progression, linearisation, coherence and economy of expres-
sion, to name a few of the visual mode devices. One important point must be made clear here: Sa‘adeddin was only referring to serious texts in his paper, the first on poetry and rhetoric by Avicienna, and the second from a book called Islam and the future written in 1987. Thus, the use of the aural mode devices, as he describes them, such as “Cohesion by redundant repetition, over-emphasis, circularity...” (p. 45), does not stem from a rhetorical and discursive background as with the case of ironic texts but merely from a prevalent stylistic preference in the Arabic language.

Sa‘adeddin made a very interesting point in his summary of the aural and visual strategies of text development in Arabic. He finds that aurally developed texts show, among other strategies, a higher degree of implicitness, hence a shared experience between the text producer and the text receivers. On the other hand, one of the strategies visually developed texts use is organising ideas “... according to an overall strategy, so that the receivers feel that each sentence, while having its local effect, also contributes to the whole, which reinforces coherence and leads the receiver inexorably through to the conclusion.” (p. 48). If we look closely at Arabic commentary texts using irony, we, often, find a combination of both the visual and the aural strategies where implicitness, repetition and rhetorical questions goes hand in hand with linearisation, sequencing and coherence.

Furthermore, I assume that the data provided in my study will demonstrate Sa‘adeddin’s claim, i.e. the existence of the aural and visual modes in commentary texts (cf. Arabic text 1 and Arabic text 4 in Appendix A), but, most importantly, for rhetorical ends. The reason, in my view, is the linguistic constraints which impose what Sa‘adeddin might call circularity in ironic commentary in Arabic.

Further, a shift in editorial structure in Arabic from the conventional Arabic structure and the introduction of neologisms on both utterance and lexical levels are noted in Australian Arabic commentaries. I suggest, tentatively, that the use of similar struc-
tural strategies in English and in Arabic texts at hand stems from two factors:
1) the internationalisation and domination of the Western press format and the modernity of telecommunication (Rugh, 1979); 2) the geographical factor, i.e. the influence of Australian culture on the Arabic media (Campbell and Di Biase, 1988).

2. 6 Conclusion

In summary, the discussion on linguistics stresses the indispensability of using, for the analysis of irony, a mix of modern linguistic theories, namely: stylistics, functional, speech acts, conversational and discourse. Stylistics accounts for the form or shape the ironic text producers elect to employ to convey their messages, the functional theory looks into the meaning rather than the form, more modern stylisticians (see Spencer and Gregory above) have combined the above two notions suggesting a specific function to each stylistic choice based on social and cultural patterns, thus directing the spotlight to the context of situation. The theory of conversation takes us beyond the words, text, function and context to a philosophical world where certain rules are set to infer the meaning of what is being said. Lastly, the inroad made in linguistics on texts’ development strategies and discourse necessitates that we consider ironic devices as the building devices of texts that impact on their cohesion and coherence.

The following Chapter will draw on the above discussion, taking into account the differences between Arabic and English linguistic preferences and structural strategies in commentary text type, thus viewing the concept of translation of irony as a dynamic and interactive process.
Notes

1 "[Structuralism] ... sought to explain and understand cultural phenomena ... as manifestations of underlying systems of significance, of which the exemplary model is verbal language itself ... [this line could be traced] from Saussure [langue/parole] to the Russian Formalists ... (via Roman Jakobson [language functions]) to the Prague Linguistic Circle, and from there to the structuralist anthropology of Claude Levi-Strauss and the eruption of la nouvelle critique in Paris in the 1960s." (Lodge 1988, p. x).

2 He explained this quote by referring to "... the much-quoted statement of Fries (1945, p. 259) who claims that "... the most effective materials (for teaching an L2) are those based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."" (James 1980, p. 63).

3 Again Taylor accuses Bally of subjectivity in terms of choosing his situational dimensions, the content effects. "Evidently what is needed is a publicly observable criterion with which to judge the relations between different effects... conceptual sameness of two expressions can usually be determined, for all practical purposes, by seeing if they may be substituted in the same contexts without affecting truth-condition." (Taylor 1980, p. 41)

4 The following is an example of the rules given by Sinclair et al. that dictate the interpretation of the teacher’s question as a command by the pupil:

"... there are four questions to be asked of an interrogative clause:
1. Is the addressee also the subject?
2. What actions or activities have been prescribed up to the time of utterance?
3. What actions or activities are physically possible at the time of utterance?
4. What actions or activities are proscribed at the time of utterance?

Using answers to these questions they formulate three rules to predict when a teacher’s interrogative is realizing a command." (cited in Coulthard, 1983, p. 130) [italics in original].

5 Some have gone as far as putting forward a principle of irony based on these maxims. Stephens (1992, p. 83) considers that the principle of irony depends on the co-operation and politeness principles for "We can’t recognize irony in conversation unless we understand [these principles]... This is probably one reason why so many people fail to see when a text is being ironic".

6 such as repetition, prefaces e.g. I meant to tell you ..., topic markers, e.g. you know we were talking about ..., misplacement markers (Schegloff and Sacks 1973) cited in Stubbs 1983, pp. 183-184), e.g. items which "mark a break in the surface utterance-by-utterance cohesion and which occur out of sequence, e.g. by the way ..., indirect speech acts, discourse markers, e.g. well, now, please, adverbs, etc.
CHAPTER 3

TRANSLATION THEORY AND IRONY

3.1 Overview

Language studies, as discussed, tackle the subject of language theory and practice from two perspectives: literary and linguistic. Translation similarly approaches language from two standpoints: literary (Friedrich and Dryden cited in Shulte and Biguenet (1992); André Lefèvre (1992); George Steiner (1975)), and linguistic (Nida (1964); Catford (1965); House (1977); Wilss (1982); Newmark (1988); Hatim and Mason (1990)). Literary translation theorists, as Jean Delisle (1982, p. 48) argues,

\[ ... n'ont pas su théoriser à partir de leur expérience; ils ont cherché à justifier leur conception personnelle de l'art de traduire au lieu d'essayer de dégager, par un examen attentif de la pratique, des hypothèses théoriques, des lois et des règles d'une portée générale. En ce cas, leur démarche n'était pas scientifique. \]

That is “[they] didn’t know how to theorise through experience: they have tried to justify their own concept of the art of translation rather than trying, through studies and empirical data, to deduce general hypotheses and rules. Hence, their effort is unscientific” [my translation]. The linguistic approach, on the other hand, deals with translation studies from three angles: prescriptive, evaluative and descriptive\(^1\). Prescriptive studies advise translators on how a translation should be done, evaluative review translation that has taken place, while descriptive studies are based on observation and empirical data.

Based on the above classification, the present study falls into the descriptive empirical category. This is driven by the following: 1) the stylistic nature of irony, rhetoricity and deviance from normal language, which makes it impossible to prescribe, in the
theoretical sense mentioned above, one-to-one translation of ironic devices, let alone texts; 2) the cultural and linguistic gaps between the English and Arabic languages, or simply, the difference that exists between any pair of natural languages; 3) the geographical and generic restriction of the study; irony will be examined in an Australian context, i.e. Australian Arabic and Australian political commentary, which may suggest the plausibility of a prescriptive approach. This, at this stage at least, seems to be overridden by the other two reasons mentioned.

Before I focus on my topic any further, I will make a brief review of the historical changes in translation theory and discuss briefly their potential implications for the 'irony' in this study. A significant shift from the literary approach, i.e. translation as an art, to the linguistic approach, i.e. language as an analytically descriptive and reproductive entity, has taken place in the field of translation. Parallel to this, translation theory was, from the Roman empire to the Renaissance, marked by the exploitation of original texts for cultural, linguistic or political reasons (Schulte and Biguenet 1992, pp. 2-3). At the turn of this century, the century of translation as Newmark (1988) calls it, and with the emergence of Saussurian, Jakobsonian and Hallidayan linguistics, translation has shifted towards an applied linguistics discipline restoring recognition of original texts.

Much has been said about the important changes that have taken place in translation theory in the last three decades or so. Many critics have accused the state of the art of translation as being chaotic in regard to the number and the approaches of translation studies, claiming a lack of uniformity. Not much, however, has been said about the diversity and rivalry that exists in the field and about the fact that this is merely dictated by the need for more flexible and tangible models to encompass the dynamic diversity of text types and languages, and to try to grasp the complexity, elusiveness and creativity of the process of language production itself.
Modern translation theories, despite this diversity, have commonly focused on macro-linguistic approaches. Although differing on how translation equivalence can be achieved, they agreed that equivalence is ruled by the genre and type of texts. As an illustration, I will take an example of instructional text type ‘with option’, an advertisement from Hatim and Mason 1990, p. 158.

Obviously the Legend Coupé does not boast the same devastating power as its racing relatives. Nonetheless, its 2.7 litre 24 valve V6 engine will whisk you from 0-60 mph in 8 short but highly exhilarating seconds, with a top speed of 137 mph. Enough acceleration, you’ll agree, to satisfy even a Prost or a Piquet on his day off.

If we compare this with a political commentary, for example the first paragraph in English text 2 (see Appendix D), we realise that the translation of both texts has different ‘purposes’ that should “...be reflected in translation.” (p. 158). The former is to convince the reader by its ‘overall appeal’, while in the latter, readers are called to assess the merits of the argument as the text unfolds (Hatim and Mason 1990, pp. 156-158).

In addition to that, almost every modern linguistic theory of translation puts forward two broad approaches to achieve equivalence: Source text (ST) oriented, or Target Text (TT)/readership (Nida and Taber 1982) oriented translation. The former is culture-bound while the latter is, more or less, universal (House 1977). The first entails semantic and the second communicative translation (Newmark 1988), or, in Catford’s (1965) words, formal as opposed to textual equivalence. From those two common bi-strategical approaches emerge tactical models that aspire to achieve one or the other.

Any overview, let alone study, of translation will necessarily come across a number of major models as diverse as linguistics, e.g. structural linguistics: Catford (1965), contrastive linguistics: Nida (1964) Nida and Taber (1982) and James (1980), stylistics: House (1977), discourse: Hatim and Mason (1990), functional: Vasconcellos
(1986) and Bell (1991), comparative stylistics: (Vinay and Darbelnet (1977). However, it is important to mention that all the above examples share the concepts of the revolutionary Hallidayan sociolinguistic approach to language, i.e. field, mode and tenor. For example, some indirectly, Nida and Taber’s (1982, pp.131-132) “well-structured discourse” refers to event constraints, i.e. temporal, spatial and logical relations; participants, i.e. author/readership, point of view, kind of participation in the speech event, content, i.e. the subject matter and form of the message. Similarly, in models that claim universality, social factors constitute the field upon which all textual and extratextual factors are based. In her modèle interdisciplinaire de la traduction Bogna Opolska-Kokoszka (1987, p. 21), argues that: “En analysant les facteurs socioculturels, le traducteur devrait se mettre au courant de la spécificité des conditions socioculturelles de l’œuvre traduite, du milieu dans lequel elle a été créée, et du lecteur.”, that is: When analysing the sociocultural factors, the translator must be informed of the specificity of the sociocultural conditions of the translated piece, the environment in which it was created, and its readership [my translation].

Nevertheless these latter macrolinguistic approaches to translation, (e.g. language variation: temporal, geographic, participation, social role relationships, discourse rhetorical function etc.) are coupled with microlinguistic ones, i.e. with the textual realisation (e.g. texture, structure, grammar and lexis). This indicates that the shift in translation occurred on two levels: 1) language as a communicative, interactive and sociological event; 2) the unit of translation which, as a result of the social nature of language, becomes utterance-oriented, focusing on the pragmatic meaning as opposed to the decontextualised sentence approach. On both levels, linguistic, comparative and contrastive approaches are rigorously applied. These models are derived mainly from the disciplines mentioned above, such as discourse: Coulthard (1985), Stubbs (1983); textlinguistics: Halliday and Hasan (1976), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) and van Dijk (1977); stylistics: Crystal and Davy (1969, 1973), Enkvist et al (1964), Widdowson (1975).
3.2 Translation Theory in the Arab World

Although Western theory dominates the field of translation, it is fair to say that Arab thinkers and writers have had their insight into translation throughout their history until, to use Dīdawī’s (1992, p. 374) terms, the current ‘translation renaissance’ that exists in the Arab world. A brief overview of the theory and the prominence of the translation authors in the Arab world shows that translation studies are based on the experience and the situation (p. 378) of the translators/authors themselves. Thus the theory in the Arabic language, as Holmes (cited in Dīdawī 1992, p. 374) indicates, was “... mere unclear thinking in regard to the problems tackled, without any pure logical way of theorisation.” [my translation]. Al-Jāḥiz, for example, “mentioned briefly, in his book al-khayawan: The Animal, translation and its requirements as well as the translator and his qualifications.” (p. 374) [my translation]. Furthermore, Al-‘Āmilī in the sixteenth century referred to Al-Ṣafadī who lived in the fourteenth century and who posited two schools of translation: literal and free (p. 374).

Moreover, in modern times there are many famous Arab writers and thinkers who have expressed their thoughts while or after translating their own works, or presented criticism and assessment of translated works, among them Al-‘Aqqād, Ṣarrūf, Mutrān, N’aymah, Ḥussain etc. (p. 374). However, according to Dīdawī (p. 375), there are attempts to gather these isolated and dispersed Arabic approaches and thoughts, or to borrow from the West.2 Interestingly, Arabs are also resorting to translating foreign textbooks and theories on translation; namely Newmark’s A Textbook of Translation and Nida’s Towards A Science of Translation. On the other hand, there are academics who have tackled translation from Arabic linguistic and literary perspectives, such as The Art of Translation in Arabic Literature [my translation] by Muḥammad Abdul-Ghani Ḥassan and translation and its problems [my translation] by Ibrāhīm Khurshīd. In addition, there are a host of prescriptive Arabic translation textbooks for secondary and tertiary students which are based on grammar and ‘sim-
plastic’ unpractical comparative linguistics (p. 375).

Nevertheless, not all efforts in Arabic translation studies come from individual interest in the field. Translation is witnessing also, as I mentioned, a renaissance. It has gained, albeit modestly, recognition and support from Arab Governments in the form of subsidised institutions, i.e. universities, computer networks, e.g. Arabterm, conferences and seminars, or academic studies on translation and Arabisation.

Arab academics, outside the Arab world, have also left their mark on translation at an international level, among them Abboud et al, and Hatim, while those who conduct their research from Arab countries, are contributing internationally to translation theory from and into Arabic through their prolific publications in translation and linguistic journals, among them Sa‘adeeddin, Al-Jabri, Okby, Farghal, Shakir, Ali, Anani, Yassin and Aziz. Arabic translation has also attracted non-Arab academics, e.g. Emery in Masqat, Campbell in Australia, Mason in England, Bensoussan and Rosenhouse in Israel and Lewis in the USA.

This wealth of study on translation and the Arabic language is continuing, again, as a result of progress made in the field; the political situation in Arab countries and the world, that is, Arabisation for scientific and educational purposes; commerce for economic, military and power purposes; media; international organisations, such as the United Nations; Literary translation in both directions, including, theology, philosophy, poetry and novels.

In brief, the significance of the translation literature on the Arabic language is in the approaches that draw to a large extent on the contribution of the Western developed theories of linguistics and translation. The next section tackles such a contribution to the theory of translation.
3.3 Modern Translation Theory and Linguistics

I have mentioned above different linguistic approaches to translation such as discourse analysis and stylistics. Following this, I will conduct a broad overview of a linguistic model of translation, which will attempt to shed light on the usefulness of modern linguistics in any translation process. The model discussed will be coupled with hybrid models from three perspectives:

1) universality to all languages;
2) appropriateness to general translation (a pair of languages);
3) appropriateness to irony and argumentative texts.

Modern translation theories are about the process of translation. The process, in general, deals with text analysis and text reproduction. The former aims at: 1) classifying source texts through a study of their linguistic features; 2) characterising them according to their text type features. Reproduction of text into the other language, on the other hand, tackles: 1) the orientation of the translation, i.e. target or source, content or form, meaning or style; 2) the appropriate strategies for translation, i.e. semantic, pragmatics, or finding the levels of translation required most constantly to be used for a particular text type, e.g. words, sentences, utterances, text, discourse; 3) a contrastive and/or comparative analysis (see below).

Translation theories also stress the notion of equivalence, cf. Catford (1965), House (1977), Nida and Taber (1982), Hatim and Mason (1990). House aspires to communicative equivalence, Nida and Taber to dynamic equivalence and Hatim and Mason to the equivalence of rhetorical purpose of texts, while Catford argues about formal correspondence and textual equivalence.

From these theories I will take a close look at Catford’s pioneering study which marks
the beginning of modern linguistics and its application to general translation.

Catford

Catford’s ‘A Linguistic Theory of Translation’ distinguishes between translation equivalence as an empirical phenomenon [cf. James’ macro-linguistic contrastive analysis below] and “... the underlying conditions, or justification, of translation equivalence” (Catford. 1965, p. 27). Textual equivalence and formal correspondence are part of the empirical phenomenon. The former is deduced from a formal procedure “... namely, commutation and observation of concomitant variation.” (p. 28 [italics in original]). Formal correspondence, on the other hand, looks in a contrastive manner at the degree of one-to-one equivalence and/or divergence, it is “...any Target Language (TL) category which may be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the ‘same’ place in the economy of the TL as the given Source Language (SL) category occupies in the SL.” (p. 32). Formal equivalence, as Catford argues, is useful to measure ‘typological difference between languages’. This can be drawn by observing “... the degree of divergence between textual equivalence and formal correspondence.” (p. 33)

Following Firth, Catford further suggests a linguistic theory of meaning for ‘Total Translation’. He defines meaning as “... the total network of relations entered into by any linguistic form...” (p. 35). The relations are of two kinds: 1) formal relations, which refer to the relations between one formal item and others in the same language, i.e. grammatical and lexical. 2) The second kind is the contextual relations which “... mean the relationship of grammatical or lexical items to linguistically relevant elements in the situations in which the items operate as, or in, texts.” (p. 36)

It is worth noting that context in Catford’s view is purely textual, while situation refers to extra-textual notions, e.g. speaker, prior event, etc. However, in his discussion about the ‘conditions of translation equivalence’, the author considers that items
in two given languages rarely have "... 'the same meaning' in the linguistic sense; but they can function in the same situation." (p. 49). He suggests that translation equivalence can nearly always be established at sentence-rank, "... the grammatical unit most directly related to speech-function within a situation." (p. 49). Catford concluded that "The aim in total translation must ... be to select TL equivalents not with 'the same meaning' as the SL items, but with the greatest possible overlap of situational range." (p. 49). Catford has made a remarkable inroad toward a functional approach to translation, but he admits that there are no descriptive categories available for the "... distinctive features of contextual meanings of grammatical or lexical items in particular languages." (p. 50).

Catford's last remark summarises the state of modern translation theory. A linguistic approach is desirable but equivalence of meaning needs more than formal and textual correspondence, it needs situational dimensions (cf. House 1977) which are not subject to categorisation. This uneasy conclusion may hold, in my view, for a universal translation theory. Each pair of languages has many factors that interfere with the setting up of situational categories. However, if we narrow the discussion down to a certain text type, e.g. argumentative commentary, we realise that situational factors can be closely identified although the elements of culture and language-specific features still need to be considered. For example, commentary in newspapers is argumentative: it includes features of points of view, readers' participation, attacks on situations or political figure/s, a solution is proposed or an appeal is made to readers for action etc. Further, if the equivalence is discussed from a rhetorical standpoint, for example the use of irony, then we can talk of other situations such as stylistic and conversational usage.

For illustration, I will give an example from English text 3 to identify the ironic features and find their equivalents in Arabic, I/1&2: 'The Liberals can't understand why they keep losing elections. That's easy. They keep making stupid decisions.'
• **Situationally**: its lexical, grammatical and rhetorical features can be described in accordance with the situation and context as follows: The Liberals’ repeated loss in the election, writer’s view of the cause.

• **Stylistically**: implied question and answer format is employed. Lexically, we detect two ironic features: The choice of the word ‘stupid’ and its textual meaning in contrast with the answer ‘easy’.

• **Grammatically**: the use of the deictic reference ‘That’ and the ellipsis ‘because’ give ironic impacts. The use of the reference communicates a rather abrupt answer/solution to a huge question/problem. The ellipsis enhances the point of view the writer is bluntly and ironically expressing, too early in the text, through the use of the word ‘stupid’. In normal argument this is less explicit and takes a longer stretch. Textual context and the reader’s expectations in such text type play a major role in the communication of the intended meaning.

• **Rhetorically**: the parallel structure, i.e. they keep losing/they keep making, is a stylistic marker of irony given the situational parallelism losing elections/stupid decisions; condensation, i.e. the telegraphic style of both utterances, the use of full stops rather than connectives are also suggested as features of irony.

The analysis of the above English example according to Catford’s ‘relevant situations’ as discussed suggests a translation equivalence reflecting the above situational features: 

\[
\text{al-‘aḥrārū ḡayru qādirīnā ‘alā ‘isti‘ābi sabāba khasā‘irīhim al-mustamīr-ratī fī al-‘intikhābātī. al-jawābu basītūn: li-‘annahum lā yatawaqqafūna ‘an ‘itīkhād-hi qarārātin ḥamqā‘} \]

[my translation]. This translation literally means: The Liberals are unable to comprehend the reason for their continuing losses in the elections. The answer is easy: because they never stop making stupid decisions.
What attracts the irony in the utterance in Arabic is:

- The explicitness of the referential markers, exaggeration, i.e. negation and lexical choice, 'istiʿabi: 'comprehending' rather than the referential meaning fahm: 'understanding'. 'istiʿab is a verbal noun of the verb 'istawʿaba: to comprehend; it is used also to address someone or a group of people who are considered not intelligent enough to grasp a meaning.lesson/wisdom etc. The situation and text-type plays a major role in conveying this latter meaning. For example, in a classroom situation: 'istiʿabu al-darsi: 'comprehending the lesson' has a straight meaning.

- The parallel structure and condensation were transformed into formal features. The situation remains intact. This is due firstly to the fact that using a parallel structure in Arabic is possible with the verb yastamirru: 'to continue'; however, if used, the original ironic impact will diminish. In addition to that, exaggeration is better enhanced in Arabic by the use of negation: lā yatawaqqafūn: 'never stop' [they]. Secondly, the condensation is disregarded because of the importance of cohesive devices in Arabic text development. A link has to be explicit between the second and third sentences. Hence the use of the causative preposition li: because.

Catford's theory suggests that situations are infinitely variable, difficult to classify and are changeable with speech acts. But, as I briefly discussed, and as Hatim and Mason (1990) suggest, text type analysis may provide us with a backdrop against which linguistic devices play their roles.

The text's situation does not solve the problem of irony in all cases. Grammatical and lexical irony are often exposed to readers, for example, the contrasted answer above: it is easy/they [make] stupid decisions. But, a rhetorical question, for instance in English text 3, II/10 'Do they now seriously suggest voters will suddenly forget who designed those policies?', needs more than a theory of meaning in context to infer the
irony in the original and transfer it into the other language: it needs a set of formal equivalents.

This conclusion will be the thrust of my model of translating irony. Having given examples from a theoretical viewpoint of why linguistics is significant to the translation of irony, I will try to tackle how linguistics in practice can be implemented for translation purposes.

3.4 Contrastive and Comparative Linguistics in the Theory of Translation

Contrastive and comparative linguistics are an integral part of the theory of translation. Modern translation theory provides strategies to analyse a given pair of languages before postulating tangible recommendations for a potential translation equivalence. In so doing, the translation models adopt or adapt certain linguistic model/s to achieve their goal. This is the origin, in my view, of the methodological diversity in translation theory.

Contrastive analysis has an essential role in the process of translation in both general translation and language specific models: the former are represented in various models: linguistic/structuralist, e.g. Catford (1965); semantic, e.g. Nida (1964); pragmatic, e.g. House (1977), Hatim and Mason (1990). The latter may include translation approach in the Arab world as Farghal (1991), Sa’adeddin (1987) (1989), Rosenhouse (1989), Emery (1991), Al-Jabr (1985). All these models recognise the need for a larger unit for contrastive analysis or the need to see sentences and utterances in their textual and discursive world. From this modern standpoint, I will discuss James’ contrastive analysis model which offers a novel macrolinguistic approach for studies on pragmatics, texts linguistics and discourse, without losing sight of the implications of microlinguistic approach on grammatical, lexical and semantic text building devices.
3.4.1 Contrastive Analysis

_Carl James_

In his introduction to Carl James’ _Contrastive Analysis_ (1980), Candlin argues that the importance of comparative and contrastive description for language teaching was offset by the emergence of descriptive linguistics and psycholinguistics in pedagogy as well as the constant changes in structural linguistics which limit the applicability of contrastive analysis in predicting problems encountered by language learners. However, Candlin (p. iv) suggests that, in addition and owing to the studies on its pedagogic impact, “... contrastive analysis has had much to offer translation theory, the description of particular languages, language typology and the study of language universals.” Catford (1965, p. 33) previously argued also that the study of formal correspondence of two languages indicates “... the degree of divergence between textual equivalence [i.e. macro analysis] and formal correspondence [i.e. micro analysis that] may perhaps be used as a measure of typological difference between languages.”

The importance of modern contrastive analysis (James, 1980) stems from its concern with notions such as pragmatics, text linguistics and the continuing exploration in discourse as well as its potential for application in literary stylistics, social anthropology, studies on textual structure and conversational analysis. In this account, Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 27) argue that Catford’s formal correspondence, with which he tries to conduct statistical analysis to formulate translation rules is inapplicable, because this “... can only lead to statements about language systems, not about the communicative factors surrounding the production and reception of texts.” Furthermore, the authors (p. 196) suggest that translators still need to resort to the textual analysis, i.e. coherence and cohesion to cover the “... discrepancies between systems ... The translator’s concern is then to reflect emerging coherence patterns, including topic prominence, in another language by means of word-order changes and so on.”
Newmark, by contrast, stresses that componential analysis is a means of comparing and contrasting a "... SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning, but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent." (1988, p. 114). He further argues that the value of componential analysis is indispensable to translation "If one thinks of translation as an ordered rearrangement of sense components that are common to two language communities ..." (p. 115). He also argues that case grammar has its applicability to translation "... either 'mechanically', in the contrast between the way two languages manipulate their cases, or creatively, in the detection of various missing verbs or cases in the relevant text." (p. 139).

James' **Contrastive Analysis** (1980) stands out with regard to its autonomous discussion about macrolinguistics and contrastive analysis, which he distinguished from microlinguistic contrastive analysis. The latter focuses on phonology, lexis and grammar and is code-oriented. Hence it is necessary to idealise the data in order to 'gain access to the code' (p. 98). Idealisation of the data is done in three ways: 1) Regularisation, where speech events are regularised from, to use Chomsky’s terms, (1965, p. 3), ‘such grammatical irrelevant conditions’, that could mean, in the written discourse, interjections, shift of register, redundancies, repetition etc. 2) Standardisation, literally, ‘the selection of the standard dialect for description' and ‘the homogeneity of the data’ (James 1980, p. 98). This idealises the speaker/listener based on the complexity of the data if it is to be taken from writers of different backgrounds. 3) Decontextualisation, referring to the isolation of sentences either from their immediate context, i.e. co-text or “the textual environment of a linguistic item” (Hatim & Mason 1990, p. 240) or from its context of situation (James 1980, p. 99).

It is important to say here that the three components of James’ microlinguistics contrastive analysis, as I argued above, are insufficient for the translation of irony, because: 1) irony depends on formal irregularities at times; 2) it is not subject to being grasped in a standard, homogeneous selection of devices that could be constantly pre-
dicted; 3) in most cases, isolating sentences or even utterances from their context, strips their intended meaning. In the translation of irony in general, one needs to take into account the stylistic, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of the language at hand. This argument agrees with Nida's (1964) classification of the possibilities of meaning of any combination of lexical units, i.e. one meaning; more than one and no meaning. By units that have more than one meaning he (p. 117) means:

The clues for resolving a particular ambiguity may not exist within the sentence containing the ambiguity. In fact, they may be anywhere within the total discourse, including the title of the subject matter. To some extent the clues may even exist in the stylistic form, for in a highly poetic language we expect many nonliteral meanings.

Furthermore, James (p. 99) argues that idealisation has its relevance in teaching L2 strategies given the capability of the constant or code to generate other codes, and because situational and stylistic variables can be built later on those codes.

However, James (p. 68) postulates a new approach aimed at pointing out "... any co-occurrence restrictions imposed by either language" on the ways in which the two 'rhetorical purposes', to use Hatim and Mason's term, are realised. James suggests that this macrolinguistic approach shifts the attention from "... the code to a process: the process of communication." (p. 100). It is built on the recognition of linguistics in regard to the importance of the function of language in context. In other words, the emphasis has shifted from the abstract, theoretical and competence aspects of the language to its concrete, applicable and communicative aspects. In the same vein, Robin Lakoff (1972, p. 907) argued that "... in order to predict correctly the applicability of many [grammatical] rules one must be able to refer to assumptions about the social context of an utterance, as well as to other implicit assumptions made by the participants in a discourse."

James attempts to describe what a macro contrastive analyst needs in order to meet
functional and discursive linguistics. Following Hymes (1974), James (1980) argues that a contrastivist must, in addition to his linguistic competence, have the sensitivity "... to identify the situational constraints to which speech events are subject and produce utterances that conform to them ...", i.e. Setting, Participants, Purpose, Key, Content, and Channel. Moreover James (pp. 101-102) identifies three points for macrolinguistics. These are:

i) A concern for communicative competence.
ii) An attempt to describe linguistic events within their extra-linguistic settings.
iii) The search for units of linguistic organisation larger than the single sentence.

These three points, in James' view, are achievable through two modern linguistic approaches, i.e. text linguistics and discourse. The former tackles the "... linguistic forms and asks in which contexts they are appropriate." (p. 102) in accordance with van Dijk's (1978) position, while the latter starts "... with the outer frame of situations and working inward to find the formal linguistic correlates to the situational variables." (James, p. 102). In summary, and following Widdowson's stylistic approach (1978), James compares discourse to language use and text analysis to language usage. Text analysis deals with "... formal devices which signal the exact nature of the relationships holding between successive sentences." (James, p. 104).

These devices may be grammatical, e.g. reference, ellipsis, comparison, parallel structure; lexical, e.g. synonyms, hyponyms; and/or in the written form, graphological e.g. italics, bold, capital letters etc. Textual devices, in James' view, include Functional Sentence Perspective which suggests that successive sentences in text must have two functions: to be informative as well as relevant.

Contrastive text analysis, according to James can be approached in three ways:

1. Textual characterisation, which considers all the above textual devices that char-
acterise a particular pair of languages and deduces conclusion as to the preference of each language (see Chapter 5).

2. Text typology, which is concerned with the role of cultures that may be distinct in distant languages, the analysis here focusing on pointing out "... types of text in different languages which perform approximately the same function." James suggests that "... native speakers typical response [to certain styles in certain contexts] presupposes the existence of institutionalised text types." (p. 117 [italics in original]). In other words, one can identify the function of specific text types by matching texts that have identical specific functions in both languages, such as a 'letter to the editor', a 'food plan' for patients, a teacher's 'handout' etc. and, most importantly, describing their linguistic preference to achieve such functions\(^3\). This approach is equally important to commentary texts which are, intrinsically, institutionalised text types as will be discussed in Chapter 4.

3. Translated texts are the third basis, in James' view, for textual contrastive analysis. The weakness of this approach lies in the distortion that may exist in the translated version.

Discourse contrastive analysis, as discussed above, stresses language functionality, i.e. its uses in "... what is the speaker (or writer) hoping to achieve, and what does he in fact achieve, with this particular bit of language?" (James, 1980, p. 118). It also emphasises the embedded culture-specific language, i.e. "The conventions for the organisations of thought and argument (i.e. rhetorical devices)" (James, 1980, p. 121). James supports his view by quoting Kaplan who considers "... much Oriental writing to be indirect or circumlocutionary" (p. 121) as opposed to 'direct' English. This insight boils down perhaps, to pragmatics: different speakers of different languages use language in different ways. In summary, discourse contrastive analysis calls for a "... contrast of linguistic acts [in Austin's (1962) sense, e.g. praise, ask, refuse etc.] and
the contexts in which they are performed [e.g. the intentions of the speaker, beliefs, shared knowledge, presuppositions etc.].” (Stalnaker cited in James 1980, p. 121).

Along this line, James also approaches discourse from a conversational standpoint. He proposes Grice’s maxims, discussed above, as a testing ground to theorise about the strategies of speakers of specific languages used to imply their intentions, or their indirect speech acts. James also takes the view that a conversational approach can serve, in addition to inferential thrust, as a basis for text development analysis. He suggests that “Conversations like so many other things have beginnings, middles, and ends.” (James 1980, p. 131). More specifically, this approach will indicate, in my view, again linguistically, the conventional norms for conducting conversation and eventually writing, such as introduction and maintaining social role relationships.

James’ argument for macrolinguistic contrastive analysis, in general, seems to be ambitious for translation problems that arise in any natural language text types, particularly those texts that are ambiguous or have double meaning, e.g. ironic, humouristic, poetic to name just a few. However, his model is highly theoretical and offers few practical examples for translation.

House’s (1977) A Model for Translation Quality Assessment is also, in my view, based on contrastive analysis, although the author (p. 56) calls it “comparative”; “The approach will consider the textual utterances ... as the basic units of analysis and comparison.” She compares both source text and translated text using the same model, which in turn is based on a macrolinguistic textual approach. The assessment comes following the comparison and mismatches found in translated text.

House’s model is pioneering in terms of her approach to the analysis of source and target texts from a holistic viewpoint, encompassing, through her characterisation of “... the linguistic-situational peculiarities ...” (p. 244) of given texts, James’ contrastive text analysis and discourse contrastive analysis.
3.4.1.1 Contrastive Analysis in the Arab World

Contrastive analysis has also been, in recent years, a major theoretical issue in Arabic translation. Sa‘adeddin (1987) suggests a macrolinguistic contrastive view for the teaching of Arabic-English translation. He proposes, following Halliday’s (1971) experiential functions of languages in social contexts, a target-world experiential matching or, in his words, the most common text strategies of the language communities. Rejecting both schools of translation in the Arab world, the literary impressionistic and the system-sentence based, Sa‘adeddin (p. 141) proposes that after ‘... students have appreciated the text for its experiential value;...[teachers must impart] to the students an awareness of the similarities and contrasts between the languages in question, and the devices available to each for the production and reproduction of these experiences;...”. He then conducts a study on the linkage system in Arabic, i.e. the intra/inter-utterance wa in Arabic and contrasts it with English. He also studies the typological mismatch that exists in editorial writing in both languages.

An interesting area of use of contrastive analysis is in the assessment and teaching of translation. Campbell (1991) conducts a linguistic contrastive analysis on English texts translated into Arabic to suggest a model of translation competence and for assessing translation competence. For the former, his model “... comprises two basic parts: Disposition and proficiency.”( p. 339) [emphasis in original]. Based on this assumption, he is of the view that translation assessment should consider the process, i.e. the dispositional aspects of the translation of the student/candidate as well as the product, i.e. the microlinguistic features.

Bensoussan and Rosenhouse (1990) have also employed translation from Arabic into English for pedagogic purposes. Their discourse model finds that evaluating students’ work must, in addition to surface structure and semantic equivalence, examine students’ “... linguistic background ... and cultural empathy with the text... [and also the] Prior knowledge of the frame or schema of the text...” (p. 810).
Emery (1987), for his part, argues Fisiak’s (1981) two types of contrastive analysis: theoretical and applied, the former dealing with langue and the latter with parole. He suggests that contrastive studies which aim at eliciting ‘... similarities and differences in linguistic structure.’ (Emery 1987, p. 62) must pertain to the applied type. Hence “All generalisations on translation, including those arising from contrastive studies should be derived ultimately from parole.” (p. 62). The author detects certain ‘trends’ and devises certain ‘tips’ based on three ranks: phrasal, sentential, and super-sentential; the former two ranks are prescriptive in the sense that they offer know-how strategies, while the latter deals with cohesion in both languages and gives, as in Sa’adeddin’s, a statement of textuality in specific text types.

Emery’s short paper begs the old question: can a testable translation exist without the existence of a competent translator, and without a linguistic system? He seems to deny any significance to James’ textual characterisation and text typology approaches in contrastive analysis (James 1980, pp. 113-116) which do not rely on translated texts but rather on a macro-linguistic approach to linguistic features and structure. In summary, I am of the view that any descriptive approach to, or any assumptions and propositions about translation stem from the linguistic inroads on natural language that have already been made, as well as the theory of translation, as Emery himself suggests. Al-Jabr’s (1985) qualitative and quantitative contrastive analysis on a variety of Arabic and English natural texts based on text linguistics may well be useful for pedagogic and translation purposes. He examined his findings by conducting a study on the reading and comprehension of English texts by Arabic students. The result of the test conformed with his contrastive analysis. After arguing the pedagogic implications of the result, he stresses ‘... that differences [between the two languages] should be taught in context [i.e. intersentential relations], since meaning is the result of many linguistic elements.” (p. 203).

This overview demonstrates that contrastive analysis can provide translation theory
with a comprehensive, flexible and credible strategies. It encompasses macro as well as micro features of texts, it can accommodate translation across any pairs of languages and lastly, it furnishes the theory of translation with a logical, systematic and practical approach.

3.4.2 Comparative Analysis

Comparative analysis seems to start where contrastive analysis leaves off. Contrastive analysis, as discussed, exercises an analysis on a pair of languages in order to: 1) detect any linguistic changes in conveying certain messages (messages pertain here to genre and style of texts), then suggests these changes as the translation equivalence (Catford 1965); 2), finds the gap or ‘imbalance’, to use James’ word, between both languages and attempts to fill this gap in the target language (TL). Comparative analysis on the other hand, takes a more direct approach. It stresses, probably more explicitly, the indispensability of bilingual competence as the starting point for the analysis. It also claims its scientific and prescriptive nature for the teaching, assessment and practice of translation. Wilss (1982, p. 60) argues that “... comparative descriptive linguistics includes the theory of translation.” He also believes that translation work is retrospective: it starts from the TL linguistic features and ends with a comparison between “... the quality of target language text (TLT) with the source language text (SLT) ... [in order to identify] the formulation processes directing the productivity of TLT...” (p. 59). Wilss believes that the principle task of the science of translation in developing operating procedures is more rigorous than it appears (a claim justified by this study). He considers the process as performance linguistics, thus he considers context, i.e. the extralinguistic reality, as stable and as accountable as syntactic and lexical regularities. Following this latter line of thought, the author suggests Nida’s three classes for semantic componential analysis (cf. James 1980, pp. 89-96; Newmark 1988, pp. 114-124), namely: common shared components; diagnostic, non-shared (contrastive) components; and supplementary components which have
a connotative character and can cause metaphorical extensions (cf. discussion on Nida’s three types of meanings above).

A final word on Wilss to highlight his awareness of the need for various translation strategies for different text types. He suggests, following Etkinds, and in a more restrictive sense than Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1977), comparative stylistics for literary texts based on the assumption that “In literary translation, translators must be creative on the levels of content and expression.” (Wilss 1982, p. 76)

**Vinay and Darbelnet**

Vinay and Darbelnet (1977) consider comparative stylistics an essential applied linguistic approach to translation. They focus on the pragmatic stratum which determines the choice of lexical and grammatical devices in the text (cf. Farghal’s discussion on the expression of meaning (1991, p. 138)), by adopting ‘situational translation equivalence’, i.e. the situations in which the message of the SLT and that of the TLT relate are identical (Farghal 1991, p. 139). Influenced by Bally’s Saussurian stylistics (refer to my discussion on Bally in Chapter Two), their study reflects a typical translation textbook approach which compares ‘contrastively’ English and French. This ‘contrastive’ methodology is followed throughout the presentation in the book and is stated by the authors on several occasions, e.g.: “We will study ... a few stylistic problems found in the opposition of the types and categories in both languages.” (Vinay et Darbelnet 1977, p. 94) [my translation]. In his introduction to the book, Malblanc (p. 1) suggests that the authors’ *stylistique comparée* does not offer “...a collection of prescriptions to be applied automatically, but offers fundamental principles that help pave the way to facilitate the passage of all the elements of one text into another language. “ (p. 1) [my translation], or to put it in the authors words “ ... the aim is to explain the mechanism and to facilitate the realisation by way of providing valid laws for the languages concerned.” (p. 20) [my translation].
The authors' above theoretical 'statement of intent' articulates useful ground rules for suggesting 'general' strategies for the translation of various text types. In this broad sense, and for the purpose of the translation of irony, comparative stylistics is considered complementary to James' (1980) macrolinguistic approach to translation, where he has stopped short from suggesting strategies that could be deduced and followed as a result of conducting his model of contrastive analysis on any text type.

Furthermore, the authors' sociolinguistic approach suggests that, in addition to the linguistic features of both languages: lexis, morphology, etc. "... particular concepts of life ... inform these two languages or spring from [them] by way of consequence: two languages, two literatures, two histories and two geographies..." (p. 20) [my translation].

The methodology of *Stylistique Comparée* cannot be reviewed in total here, but the outline may be described as follows:

1. Linguistic signs are divided into *signifié* and *signifiant*. The former pertains to the conceptual part of the sign, and the second to the linguistic one.
2. Signification is the meaning of a sign in a given context.
3. Language imposes on us linguistic constraints we must abide by; they are called *servitudes* (cf. usage), i.e. lexis and grammar. We also may choose from the existing resources; this is called *option* (cf. use).
4. "[Comparative/External Stylistics] ... aims at finding the procedures of both languages by contrasting the one against the other". (p. 32) [my translation], while Internal Stylistics, following Bally's definition, looks into the ways in which a given language is expressed through a contrastive analysis between the affective (cf. interpersonal) elements and intellectual (cf. experiential) ones. External stylistics is concerned with both *servitudes* and *options*, while internal stylistics examines, more dominantly, the *options*.
5. "...the unit of translation is the smallest segment of the discourse where the cohesion of the signs is such that they must not be translated separately." (p. 37) [my translation].

6. Areas of comparative stylistics are: lexis; morphology and syntax; and message: the content, linguistically realised in phrases, paragraphs and texts.

7. Technical procedures of translation:
   a) Direct translation, where structural and conceptional parallelism exist between both languages. This is done through three strategies:
      i) borrowing
      ii) calque
      iii) literal translation
   b) Oblique translation, grammatical and/or lexical, structural and conceptional divergence required due to certain stylistic effects in the source text, the following strategies may be used:
      iv) transposition
      v) equivalence
      vi) modulation
      vii) adaptation

Each of the procedures is an integral part of the model and each can be used in translation according to the degree of the linguistic and cultural constraints of both languages. They are all applicable to the three areas mentioned in (6) above.

Stylistique Comparée perhaps can be categorised by the dichotomy that dominates translation studies: semantic vs communicative. The former is grounded in the 'direct translation' mentioned above while the latter conforms to what has been described as 'oblique translation'. The weakness of Comparative Stylistics rests in its prescriptive approach to translation while contrastive analysis on the other hand takes a descriptive approach which could be of more use to natural language translation rather than
the translation of idealised language and contexts. This assumption will be argued in
the next Chapter in a quest for a practical model of translating irony in political com-
mentaries where discursive features as well as textual considerations need to be
addressed.
Notes

1 Unpublished manuscript, by Stuart J. Campbell.


3 James’ argument in this last account, is more objective than Catford’s Textual translation equivalence (1965, p. 27) in which he appeals to"... competent bilingual informant or translator." to find textual equivalence between an institutionalised text type of a pair of languages.
CHAPTER 4

TOWARDS A MODEL OF TRANSLATING IRONY IN COMMENTARY TEXTS

It is safe to say that any translation model aiming at a specific text-type must build on: 1) existing models, if proven to be applicable; 2) existing linguistic and/or literary theories; 3) the analysis of texts at hand, in both source and target languages. From my research, I have not come across any model for translating irony in commentaries; however, Hatim (1989), Hatim and Mason (1990) and Sa'adeddin (1985; 1987; 1989) have tackled the translation of commentary texts as discussed above. The second point above constitutes the crux of my study: it provides the theoretical basis I will later refer to in my analysis and subsequently when setting the translation strategies.

For the purpose of setting up a specific theoretical background to my analysis, and given the double and inseparable constituents of the texts, i.e. argument and irony, two approaches are needed: argumentative text structure and the linguistic explanation of the ironic devices.

4.1 The Structure of Argumentative Texts

I have already suggested a few notions in Chapter Two which are relevant to my topic. Grice’s conversational maxims, discourse and stylistics, as well as Muecke’s and Booth’s theory of irony, suggest that text structure plays an important role in the process of identification and interpretation of ironic devices.

Text structure is seen, following Crystal (1991, p. 331), as a network of interrelated units where the meaning of the parts is specifiable with reference to the whole and the hierarchy of text forming as in Hatim and Mason’s (1990, p. 165) element [utterance],
sequence and text. Topic shift, as discussed in 2.9.1 will also be adopted from the latter authors based on their argument that texts’ structures are marked by topic shift which “… enables us to identify boundaries not only between texts, but also between sequences and elements [utterances] within a given text.” (p. 177). The change of topic is considered from three perspectives: the propositional meaning, the illocutionary force, i.e. the indirect speech act, and the sign.

This notion of topic shift will, for structural analysis purposes, lead to a refinement of the definition of the text type of the texts at hand. As discussed above, Hatim and Mason posit two forms of argumentation: through argument and counter argument. The former is characterised by the substantiation of an initial thesis while the latter deals with the rebuttal of a thesis cited.

4.2 Ironic Devices: Linguistic Explanation

As I concluded from the review of the literature in Chapter One, sections 1.2 & 1.3, two kinds of ironic devices were detected, formal, i.e. grammatical, lexical and graphological, and rhetorical. The first are textual and liable to be identified in the text, while the second are not subject to immediate identification from the textual means. Identification here denotes the ability of the reader to locate irony within the actual words of the text. Both kinds of devices require the same type of analysis, however, the question is how do we infer that a device is rhetorical, and, most importantly, how do we know that this rhetorical device is ironic? The answer to these questions was given and exemplified in the discussion about the ironologists Muecke and Booth, and in the discussion of Grice’s conversational maxims above. The former authors give a comprehensive classification and try to describe the most common instances of irony, while the latter suggests a set of conversational rules. By deliberately flouting them, inference could be detected or rather triggered. Grice’s maxims are the common denominator required to be applied to both kinds of devices.
Nevertheless, suggesting that rhetorical devices cannot be textually identified means that a tangible description of these devices is needed for the purposes of contrastive analysis and translation. The only way to do that is to demonstrate that these devices have a specific linguistic form, either grammatical or lexical, which we are able to identify and put to use both monolingually and across a pair of languages.

So far I have suggested that Grice's maxims play the role of a trigger. What we still need, however, is a theory of meaning that can tell us, exactly, what a parallel structure, for example, means. That leads us to modern linguistics, namely the communicative function of the language.

Before I adopt a functional theory, I ought to explain briefly, the function/s that ironic commentary texts are supposed to have. Using Ogden and Richards' (1949, pp. 226-227) functions of language and Jakobson's poetic function (see above), and given that these texts are dictated by three attitudes: the writer, the reader and the newspaper, I suggest four main functions:

1) expression of attitude to readership;
2) expression of attitude to referent, i.e. the victim of irony, either a person/s, situation or both;
3) imparting a specific message;
4) maintaining participation of, and solidarity with the readership.

Following House (pp. 36-37), one can state that these functions are most commonly found in the text type at hand. However, I take the view that:

In order to characterize the function of an individual text specimen, we have to define function differently: the function of a text is the application (cf. Lyons, 1969:434) or use which the text has in the particular context of situation. It must be stressed that any text is embedded in a unique situation (House, p. 37).
Bearing this in mind, I posit, as discussed above, Halliday's theory of functions (1985) (referred to in Chapter Two): the ideational, interpersonal, and textual, and the three features of the context of situation, i.e. field, mode, and tenor realised through these functions respectively. In addition to Halliday's context of situation, the geographical and temporal settings also play an important role in the understanding of the ironic meaning of the devices.

In summary, the text type functions suggested above, the Hallidayan context of situation and the geographical and temporal setting fall into Hymes' (1974) situational constraints, that is, setting, participants, purpose etc. which enable the competent analyst/contrastivist to interpret the speech events.

In other words, what we need is an inference model to tell us that there is an irony in what is said; a discourse model to explain the meaning and describe linguistic events within their extra-linguistic settings; and lastly a stylistic model, i.e. the formal and the rhetorical devices in the text perceived from two angles: texture and structure. This last component is the goal of the proposed translation model.

The above discussion suggests three approaches that are of importance to the translation of irony: situation, text linguistics, i.e. texture and structure, and inferential theory. From this base I will narrow down the discussion to the analysis phase which will aim at proposing a model for the translation as well as for the analysis. Suggestions of translation strategies will follow.

4.3 Analysis

4.3.1 Techniques/Tools

In this section, I will attempt to develop the above translation model into a practicable model that can serve both the analysis and translation processes. A model that
identifies the techniques and tools needed for the analysis of Arabic and English ironic texts must encompass a model that identifies the strategies needed for the contrastive analysis and, eventually, the translation of those texts.

In setting the aim of the study in Chapter One, I mentioned five major strategies, three of which relate to the analysis of the texts at hand, namely: 1) describing the lexical, grammatical, graphological and rhetorical devices; 2) describing the linguistic exponents of the rhetorical devices; 3) finding the relation between the ironic devices and the coherence and text structure. In Chapter Two, I conducted a lengthy overview and discussion of irony from a literary point of view leading to a broad description of the rhetorical devices in the general sense of irony. The second overview was of modern linguistic theory and its implications for the analysis of irony found particularly in commentary text. During the discussion I have resorted to a few examples from the texts I am going to use later in the analysis. So far, these exemplified discussions showed that for modern linguistics to explain irony, it must, in addition to the use of concepts such as pragmatics, speech acts and macro-structure, use an inferential theory based mainly on psycholinguistics and conversational approach.

Viewing irony from a linguistic perspective necessitates that part of the identification of irony is to see the devices in their context, as well as the structural concern of individual communicative acts in discourse. This also proves that ironic devices are free linguistic variations or, to use Jakobson’s term, ‘superimposed’ specific type of structures, which call for a textual approach to the study of irony. In what follows, I will use the above findings to build a model that fits the topic at hand. This model is to be applied, for contrastive purposes on both languages. Then I will define the function of some of the terminology employed in the analysis, from ironic and communicative perspectives.
4.3.2 Discourse Analysis Model

4.3.2.1 Aim:

The aim of the analysis is to find the rhetorical, grammatical, lexical and graphological devices of irony used in English and Arabic feature articles and editorials. Or, to quote Coulthard, finding the ways in which different speech events are organised and "...the interpretive rules for relating form to function." (1985, p. 147). The rhetorical devices will be described through their linguistic correlates.

The four types of devices, as discussed above, do not exist in isolation in the text but are chosen by the commentary writer for a certain communicative purpose. Thus, my approach is based on the communicative function of texts and the wider scope of meaning in linguistics, i.e. "the 'meanings' and 'messages' in human verbal interactions in terms of the product of a negotiatory interaction among all the (intra-/extra-linguistic) factors involved in the communication." (K. Lotfipour-Saedi, 1990, p. 389).

4.3.2.2 Discussion

Given the nature of irony, where double meaning is embedded in certain utterances of the text, my concern is the 'implicit communicative function' (see Bensoussan, M. & Rosenhouse, J. 1990) of the discourse: or the indirect speech acts (Coulthard 1985). This is also referred to as the pragmatic aspect of meaning, as in House (1977) who argues that "Pragmatic meaning ... overrides semantic meaning" (p. 28) and is "...the illocutionary force that an utterance is said to have, i.e. the particular use of an expression on a specific occasion." (p. 27).

Bell (1991) also posits a functional sociolinguistic approach to language, distinguishing between formalism and functionalism in linguistics. In his account of formalism,
he considers the two major schools in linguistics: structuralism and Transformational-Generative linguistics. By functionalism he views "... language as a dynamic, open system by which members of a community exchange information." (p. 112).

The emergence of functionalism in Bell's view was the result of the growth of '...two 'inter-disciplines'; psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics' (p. 112) as well as the acceptance of the overlapping of semantics with pragmatics among the descriptive linguists in the last twenty to thirty years. The final influence on the emerging of functionalism, in Bell's opinion, is the philosophical inputs led by "... Austin's *How to do things with words* (1962) and Searle's *Speech Acts* (1969)" (p. 113) [italics in original]. Grice's Conversational Maxims (1976) can also be considered as a contributor to philosophical inputs of the functional approach to linguistics, as will be discussed later.

Another important notion of Bell's is his argument that the sentence is "... the upper limit of description" for formal linguistics, while text or discourse "... are the scope for the functionally oriented linguist ...[who attempts to] analyse, [and] synthesize...discourse rather than the decontextualised sentence." (p. 132). From my observation of the ironic devices and as I have demonstrated above, contexts, both textual and situational, are part of the communicative function of irony. In other words, form plays an intricate role, along with other factors, in the production and comprehension of irony.

Bell's refined definition of discourse below perhaps justifies the suitability of the discourse approach to my analysis:

Discourse analysis is a term which has been used for two distinct activities: the study of the narrative structures of literary texts (Barthes 1966, Todorov 1966, Chatman 1969) and study of the rhetorical coherence of records of interaction in which the locus of attention is the way the communicator draws on the resources of the language to participate in the exchange of information ... (pp. 134-5)
It is evident that the second activity mentioned above represents the focal point of my analysis. Interaction takes into consideration the subtle existence of a reader who plays an indirect role in the process of text formation. In his social-psychological model of communication, Bell (p. 124) considers the participants in the interaction, the situation in which they find themselves, the nature of the interaction and the topic about which they are speaking, as the situational constraints that a writer takes into account as he/she writes.

On the other hand, in his model of linguistic analysis, Halliday (1976, p. 327) proposes that “The linguistic analysis of a text is not an interpretation of that text; it is an explanation. This point emerges clearly, though it is often misunderstood, in the context of stylistics, the linguistic analysis of literary texts.”

I have suggested in my discussion on a translation model above and elsewhere a set of social, psychological and philosophical constraints for the interpretation of irony. I have so far elaborated on the description of these constraints. However, a refined justification ought to be given in regard to the philosophical need in the analysis.

From the discussion above, it seems that the only way to detect irony in a discourse is by referring to our linguistic experience and to our world knowledge (cf Bazerman’s (1989) The informed Writer). Grice’s cooperative principles (discussed in Chapter Two) seem a plausible way for the interpretation and the identification of stylistic devices. These maxims exist unconsciously in our minds and are linked, psychologically and sociologically, with our experience of the world and its representational vehicle, language. These conversational maxims tell us how language should ideally be employed. Thus, any violation of them is considered a sign of inference and, consequently, a stylistic variation. In this context, Coulthard (1985, p. 32) identifies a two stage process in using Grice’s maxims: 1) Recognition of the apparent irrelevance, inadequacy or inappropriateness of the utterance, 2) which triggers the subsequent inferencing. However, this is not sufficient to label a rhetorical device as
ironic, for such violation occurs regularly in our daily life interactions (see Hatim and Mason (1990) and Emery (1991)). In any case, our awareness of any violation plays a crucial role in the interpretation process. In other words, the infringement of the conversational maxims is only the trigger and needs to be looked at in context in order to understand the writer's intention.

The above review calls for discourse analysis in its functional direction as a means of looking at the type of texts at hand, i.e. to look "at the ways in which people put language to use..." (Coulthard, 1977) cited in James 1980, p. 102). However, the stylistic constraints of my study, i.e. irony, and the generic features of commentaries dictate an emphasis on the use of the language as well as the usage, that is to say, on the textual (formal) and discursive (functional) appropriateness. Thus, lexical and grammatical (textual) and rhetorical (discursive) devices will be considered as, in James' view (1980, p. 102), "...the linguistic correlates to the situational variables.". The situational and stylistic variables or dimensions are partly adopted from Halliday (1985) and Crystal and Davy (1973) and their adapted version in House (1977).

4.3.3 Description of the Analysis

In dealing with the texts from a discourse standpoint, two general components of texts will be considered: Texture and structure which will form the micro analysis. On the other hand, the devices justify and are justified by a macro analysis which encompasses, the situation: field, mode and tenor, language varieties: geographical origin, temporal and social setting, and the conversational maxims.

4.3.3.1 Micro Analysis: Ironic Devices

It is argued by formal linguists and semanticists that any analysis on written discourse is realised by, and must start from, its surface realisation. For the purpose of my analysis, I will consider the realisation of the development process of texture, i.e. cohesion,
and structure, i.e. coherence through the means of the devices mentioned above. However, and bearing in mind this, I dare say, product oriented approach, I ought to stress that the text type in hand and the methodology of the argument I adopted, i.e. form, content, situation and inference, all suggest that the goal of communication is achieved through an interactive model. Thus, I view that the hierarchy of the analysis of irony, if it needs to be highlighted, is not dictated only by the surface realisation, i.e. the tool, but also by the presupposition, predictability and world knowledge of writers and readers.

4.3.3.1.1 Texture.

Texture is the means by which a text comes to existence and has interactive features. Lotfipour- Saedi (1990, p. 293) defines text as “...the surface realization of the discourse process and embodies a set of strategies for the presentation of the production of discourse to the receiver...text and textual strategies [texture] do not act as the mere “carrier” of the message but actively influence its nature and contents.”

On the other hand, Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 222) argue “...that texture provides the means for the realisation of discourse intentions (context) and the implementation of a given text plan (structure).”

Through texture, text forming devices are taken into account: vocabulary, generic devices, textual cohesion and coherence, thematisation strategies, text type focus and paralinguistic features.

4.3.3.1.2 Structure.

Structure affects and is affected by texture, i.e. the ironic devices in this study. Part of the meaning of certain devices can surely be detected from, for example, thematisation strategies, coherence and cohesion (Halliday 1976) or in James’ (1980) words,
the organisation of thoughts. Texture on the other hand, represents the material a text structure is built with. Viewing utterance or ‘elements’, to use Hatim and Mason’s (1990) terms, as the smallest unit in text structure and considering that utterances, as in House’s (1977, p. 28) definition, are the “... units of discourse characterized by their use-value in communication.”, suggests Hatim and Mason’s (1990) topic shift approach. This shift, in the authors’ view (p. 177), is always marked by lexical and syntactic signals.

However, in order to accommodate the ironic inference, an additional factor needs to be implemented in the authors’ topic shift model (the propositional meaning, the illocutionary force and the sign), that is screening the propositional meaning of the perceived ironic utterances whenever the need arises, such as, whenever we need to explain why such utterances have a particular double meaning as is the case with some ironic utterances. It is important to say that there are instances where utterances do not warrant the use of maxim screening simply because the linguistic devices are ironically marked as is the case with euphemisms, e.g. ‘unflattering figures’ and colloquialisms, e.g. ‘to find holes [in a political policy etc.]’. Hence, speech act theory can sometimes predict the illocutionary force of ironic utterances without resorting to the conversational maxims.

To illustrate the need, or the use of the maxims, I will give an example from English text 1, sequence VI:

Fahey took three years to get his industrial relations legislation. Green paper, white paper, lots of paper. No-one could ever accuse Fahey of adopting Metherell-like tactics.

Three ironic devices emerge from this sequence, namely:

1. Repetition: paper. Infringing the maxim of manner. Depiction of Fahey’s bureaucratic tactics to avoid political problems.
2. Understatement: No-one could ever ... tactics. Violating the maxim of quality.
   Unlike Metherell, he is cautious. But still, he is no different from other Liberals in
   the Government.

3. Simile/compound word: Metherell-like. Infringing the maxim of manner. A
   reminder of the Liberals' history of scandals.

As noticed, suggesting illocutionary force to the utterance above was driven by three
factors: 1) The political situation at that point in time in NSW; 2) inferring irony in
the tone through screening the utterance against the conversational maxims; 3) the
linguistic usage of the utterances. These three factors are intertwined in the sense that
overlooking one may disrupt the comprehension of meaning. If we are unaware of the
political situation at the time the article was written, we may come to the wrong con-
clusion (or may never attempt to draw one) about what the writer intends to say about
'paper' for example. Similarly, if we missed the tone or were not competent to see the
irony in the utterances, we end up inferring praise rather than ridicule of the Liberals.
For example, we may interpret the last sentence in a way that favours Fahey's politi-
cal past: 'He is honest, unlike Metherell'. The major thread, to all the above interpret-
tation was initiated, of course, from the language manipulation the writer has resort-
ed to. Had he said 'adopting tactics like Metherell's', the sentence would lose the ironic
impact, hence the real inference meant. Commentary writing (the field of dis-
course) is supposed to be concise, oblique and impersonal. Thus, a naive reader may
tend to understand the straight sentence either way while the option (for a linguisti-
cally competent reader) is only one: irony.

In summary, the ironic impact that we as readers have understood from the above
utterance must be transferred to the other language. Hence, a translation strategy must
consider the stylistic aspect of the three devices mentioned above. This, in practice,
might not be easy. Situation, in my topic, poses little problem for the translator since it is meant to be published in Australia, so, the political, geographical and temporal situation can be easily used, reflected, and understood by the readership. The real problem lies in the linguistic differences between English and Arabic: by that I mean the linguistic form by which each language expresses irony. Thus, I assume at this stage that changes are inevitable at least at the texture level. This, of course, would be the task of contrastive analysis.

As far as structure is concerned, the explanation of the sequence as a text building entity is clear and must be taken into account. Let us consider the same sequence above. Of course, one can argue that without seeing the sequence in conjunction with other sequences and utterances, the example will be inadequate. Thus, it is only logical to refer to the context. Earlier, I suggested Hatim and Mason’s topic shift coupled with Grice’s theory of inference as a model for structural analysis. Based on this, sequence VI will be perceived as follows:

- **Propositional meaning**: Example given about Fahey’s tactics to diffuse an issue, i.e. ‘industrial relations legislation’.

- **Conversational strategy** (Grice’s maxims): Violation of the maxims of manner and quantity through the use of compound-word, repetition and understatement respectively.

- **Illocutionary force**: Pretended praise to the victim, i.e. Fahey is a smart politician.

- **Sign**: Argument substantiated.

For argument’s sake, let us contrast the illocutionary force and the sign that has been given to the sequence above with its previous and following sequences. Sequence V
can be interpreted as: Fahey is a tool in Collins’ hand, i.e. a mine diffuser, while sequence VII means: Fahey is a puppet on the Government level. The sign\(^1\) of the three sequences is the same: argument substantiated.

Now, of course, we cannot see these sequences in isolation from the text but at least we can get a hint of the article’s message, especially if we contrast them with the heading: ‘Unpopular but Collins is staying’. So, the irony lies, on the one hand, in the fact that politicians are using each other for an obvious reason: the innate, and environmental, human need for power and position; and on the other hand, they are all using us and making a mess of our resources for their common objective: governing us.

In summary, conversational maxims are needed as a tool throughout the analysis on all levels: texture (devices) and structure (utterances, sequences and text).

4.3.3.2 Macro Analysis: Description of Communicative Function

Macro analysis is an integral part of the whole process of the analysis. It is related to all the features and constraints that affect the structure and texture of a given discourse.

So far I have discussed the notions of texture and structure and their implication for the micro-analysis. In the macro analysis, the first area of interest in relation to irony found in editorials and background features is the stylistic variations.

Conversational maxims as suggested earlier are considered an integral part of the macro analysis, I have already defined them and discussed their implications on the texture and structure of ironic texts.

4.3.3.2.1 Stylistic variations and intentions.

Following Nida (1964, p. 222), style is dynamic and, unlike grammar, is unpre-
dictable: it depends on grammar, or the formal structure of the language but is essentially different from it. In other words, although writers are bound by the grammatical constraints of their language, they have a repertoire of choices or stylistic varieties - some choices are peculiar to a certain language community while the majority of others are peculiar to individual writers - to express their intentions and views.

The component of stylistic variations concerns the analysis of the ironic devices and the intentions of writers. In order to establish the grounds on which this component was chosen I will refer to two definitions:

(1) Stylistics is a branch of LINGUISTICS which studies the features of SITUATIONAL- LY distinctive uses (VARIE TIES) of LANGUAGE, and tries to establish principles capable of accounting for the particular choices made by individual and social groups in their use of language. (Crystal 1991, p. 332) [emphasis in original].

(2) Linguistics is the science of describing language and showing how it works; stylistics is that part of linguistics which concentrates on variation in the use of language, often, but not exclusively, with special attention to the most conscious and complex uses of language in literature. (Turner, 1986, p. 7).

Stylistic variations would complement my analysis of texture and structure, and the inroads made in this linguistic field (refer to my discussion on stylistics in Chapter Two) can contribute as a tool in detecting the unobservable intention. In this regard, Turner stresses the analysis of language in its ‘content of discourse or supposed situation’ (p. 138) in order to explain certain variations of intention such as irony.²

Turner’s model of supposed situation is elaborate. It includes a writer, a reader and a perceptible linguistic activity; it also encompasses shared linguistic experiences and shared similar past situations “... which provides the content of language.” (p. 138) as well as a shared cultural experience.
4.3.3.2.2 Language varieties and contextual description of text.

The variations I discussed above are one face of the identification of the devices in the structure and texture of the text. Another face needs to be identified in order to have a clear picture of the text and to understand why these devices were chosen. We enter here the domain of the context of situation: Field, Mode, Tenor (Halliday, 1985); and the contextual description of text: Pragmatic intentions, signs, and text type focus (Hatim and Mason, 1990); and lastly, the language varieties: geographical, social, and temporal (Loutipour-Saedi, 1990). This latter factor is more relevant in a universal approach to analysing ironic commentary texts where the political situation or even the source text dialect are alien to the target language and country respectively.

Language varieties.

Although language varieties seem of low relevance to the topic at hand or, as Crystal and Davy put it, "... are rarely able to be manipulated by language-users" (1973, p. 76), I believe they need to be identified by the translator, and to be considered as the global setting within which he/she must analyse texts. Language varieties are considered, as in House (1977), by the dimensions of the language user: geographical origin, e.g. Australian English or Egyptian Arabic; social class, e.g. upper class or lower class English, Modern Standard Arabic represents the dialect of the writer; while time dimension refers to the way language communities express their thoughts at a particular point in time, e.g. Old English or Classical Arabic.

Situation.

Field, mode and tenor constitute the situation or the features of the context (Halliday and Hasan 1985, p. 27): Field of discourse represents what is going on, Tenor represents who is taking part, i.e. the participants, and Mode of discourse is the channel assigned to language.
These general features, discussed and exemplified in Chapter Two, are an essential characteristic embedded in every text and must be laid out explicitly in the analysis to reflect the correlation between the text and the situation.\textsuperscript{3}

4.3.3.3 Text's Rhetorical Meaning

Given the diversity of the three macro-functional features discussed above, i.e. stylistic variation/intentions, language varieties, and context of situation, the analysis must include a notion that encapsulates or rather unifies them in a coherent text. For this I will adopt Hatim and Mason's notion of rhetorical meaning which suggests only one predominant "... rhetorical purpose can be served at one time in a given text". (1990, p. 146)

Furthermore, stating the overall rhetorical meaning summarises the whole process of the analysis discussed in two ways: firstly, it considers a text as a unique piece of writing; secondly, it emphasises the relationship between text and context.

Under this notion the analysis will be approached from three stylistic perspectives by reference to the whole text: attitude, province and participation (see Crystal and Davy 1973). Attitude encompasses the point of view of the writer to the subject matter (Newmark 1988, p. 12), the text's tone (Emery 1991) and the writer's occasional idiosyncratic linguistic features (Crystal and Davy 1973, p. 83).

Province includes features of intertextuality, i.e. reports on a certain event; quotes of politicians; and the institutional and linguistic restraints in the journalistic commentary type of discourse. Participation is the third dimension by which the overall rhetorical meaning will be measured; it refers to the indirect addressees' participation (House 1977, p. 44); status and authority of the writer (Newmark 1988, p. 17) and the social distance between him or her and the reader (House 1977, p. 45; Crystal and Davy 1973, p. 85).
Finally, given this holistic approach, it is redundant to say that texts are to be analysed interactively whenever appropriate as in the figure below.

4.4 Analysis and Translation Model

A. IRONIC DEVICES

1. Texture

Rhetorical } Grammatical and lexical correlates
Lexical
Grammatical
Graphological

^)
^-)

Description of communicative functions
<->
• Macro structure
  Situation: field, mode, tenor.
  Language varieties: geographical,
  social, temporal
• Conversational maxims.

2. Structure

Sequences } Topic shift:
  Propositional meaning; conversational strategy
  (when Grice’s maxims are applicable); illocutionary
  force; sign.

\^~\n
B. TEXT’S RHETORICAL MEANING:
  Statement about attitude, province and
  participation based on (1) and (2) above.

Figure 4.1 A model for the analysis and translation of irony in political commentaries.

The above model will serve as the tertium comparationis for the analysis and the translation on the assumption that both the Arabic and English languages use irony and argumentative text type in newspaper commentary writing. Arabic and English texts (in appendices) will be individually analysed in order to:

1. Establish the texts’ specific linguistic correlates with the macro aspects (cf. House 1977, p. 52) and conversational maxims by reference to irony, and how these aspects and maxims are realised lexically, grammatically, and rhetorically;

2. Draw a textual profile, i.e. the text’s rhetorical meaning;

In the following two sections, I will draw on my theoretical review above to discuss two essential notions that are pertinent to the implementation of the proposed model; namely, the choice of the devices that will be identified as ironic, based on a functional use perspective and the constitutive textual and contextual features of commentary texts. These features include intertextuality, political situation, the expectations of the source texts' and target texts' readership, the writer, the institution to name just a few.

4.5 Functional Meaning of Concepts Used in Analysis

In Chapter One I gave examples of the ironic devices that I will use in the analysis. I have selected these devices from various sources, mainly: for the rhetorical devices, I resorted to Muecke (1969) and (1982), Booth (1974), Nida (1989), Crystal and Davy (1973), Austin (1962); the grammatical and graphological devices were borrowed from Quirk et al (1985), Leech and Svartvik (1994), Ghālib et al (1991), Al-Mufdi and Abū Bakr (1964); and for the lexical devices I have used notions from the English and Arabic literary criticism theory, Halliday and Hasan (1976), Hatim and Mason (1990), Emery (1991). Now, before embarking on the implementation of my model, it is appropriate to give a brief functional justification of the selection of some of these devices. The remaining devices will be explained in the analysis. References to English and Arabic devices will be separately made to illustrate textual similarities and dissimilarities, and because, I assume, textual similarites differ on the functional level between the two languages. The devices will be clustered in four categories: Lexical, grammatical, rhetorical and graphological. The linguistic, discursive, situational and conversational justification of their selection will be discussed in the actual analysis.

Throughout the exposition, I have resorted mainly to English grammatical and linguistic concepts and references as well as references from Arabic grammar books and
studies on Arabic linguistics. This is dictated by the dominance of Western linguistics on modern translation studies. Examples are drawn from the texts in the appendices.

4.5.1. English Devices

4.5.1.1 Rhetorical

- Semotactic anomalies/contrasts: A variety of Nida's formal and semantic rhetorical techniques (1990, p. 152). "... They are those seemingly impossible combinations of words which nevertheless carry meaning, one type of which has been traditionally called oxymorons, i.e. figures of speech using a contradiction" (p. 152). They could be given the general definition: juxtaposition of incompatibles, e.g. cruel kindness. English Text (ET) 4, II/2 "When the worst jobless figures in 60 years were released ... the nation’s attention was diverted ... by the marriage break-up of the Prince and Princess of Wales.

- Double-shift effect: Leibold (1989) employs this device as part of her model to translate French humour into English. The author defines it as the unexpected alteration of the semantic flow of the utterance, where "The sudden confusion resulting from the ambiguity makes it an effective element of the humorous discourse" (p. 1989). For illustration, the author gives an example which she translated from French: 'When a dude is scared, it's not his wheels he runs for, it's his life.' (p. 110). Here the comical double effect "... is produced by juxtaposing the meaning of the word... ['runs'] in its literal sense with its meaning in a fixed sense as part of the colloquial locution: ... ['runs for his life']". (p. 110). From my observation, I find that this strategy is also used in commentary texts for ironic purposes. The following is an example from ET3, II/9 in Appendix D: "Those who have doubts might try the devastation they [the liberals in the election] would have suffered if the economy had been in good shape." The double, or rather triple, shift here is not marked by a play on words as the above example, instead the writer creates the
ironic impact by juxtaposing a series of lexical items in the utterance: ‘who have doubts might try’, ‘devastation’, and ‘good shape’. The (relative) obscurity of expression in this example suggests a breach of the conversational maxim of manner, hence the ironic inference.

- Pretended ignorance: for example, when the writer proposes an absurd plan of action as in ET1, first paragraph: When you are in trouble, one of the golden rules of politics is to call for a report. It is an almost fail-safe way of diffusing an issue.

- Climax/Nadir: When the writer creates a mood, with his words reaching its highest point at the end of the utterance, sequence or text. e.g. ET4, IX: Its [the government’s] ideas have dried up, the economy’s ills have worsened, and the glimmer of hope that Mr Keating’s leadership ...

- Antithesis: A subset of semotactic anomalies, used to emphasise contrast, taking the form of a striking incongruity. e.g. ET1, I/1: call for a report [when there is a political scandal etc.] ... to defuse the issue.

- Stylistic placing (see Muecke 1969, p. 77): “By using words which are slightly out of place or which the ironist can rely upon to have certain connotations for the reader [e.g. ET 2, I/2: two sets of unemployment figures], by repeating a word or a phrase until it becomes suspect and therefore ironical [e.g. the advantage/the disadvantage in ET 2 paragraph I], by changing his whole style, or by adopting the style of his victim ...”

- Formulae: Quirk et al (1985, p. 88) define formulaic expressions by ungrammatical usage of the language whose meaning derives from context. “... the more the context contributes to the communicative force of an utterance, the less need there is for the utterance to be grammatically explicit. In this sense, directives and exclamations ... can take many forms ... and are often reducible to formulaic utterances
which make very limited use of grammatical structure ...” e.g. the formula in ET2, IV/15 ‘In short’.

- Rhetorical question: It does not require an answer but is a device to command agreement (Francis 1978, p. 14) e.g. ET3, II/10: Do they now seriously suggest voters will suddenly forget who designed ...? Quirk et al 1985, p. 825 are more elaborate on the function of the rhetorical question. They argue that “… [it] is interrogative in structure, but has the force of a strong assertion. It generally does not expect an answer. A positive rhetorical yes-no question is like a strong negative assertion, while a negative question is like a strong positive one.”[italics in original]

- Colloquialism: It reflects the culture of certain language community. Wilkes (1988) is of the view that colloquialisms are creeping into Australian Standard English, thus becoming more recognised and respected. The Dinkum Dictionary (1991, p. vii) argues that “Increasingly newspapers are resorting to colloquial.” e.g. ET 3, I/5: Do me a favour! ET2, I/1: Where reference is made to PM Keating’s famous address to the opposition leader Hewson : “[I'll] do you slowly”.

- Condensation: Following Nida (1990), condensation is a ‘Formal’ technique used for rhetorical ends. It comes as aphorisms and in the form of telegraphic style. e.g. ET1, XIX/44 For now; ET4, VI/8 all this is grist to Mr Keating’s mill.

- Misrepresentation, false statement: “As when one asserts what is known to be false or denies what is known to be true and relies upon the reader’s or listener’s prior knowledge for the contradiction.” (Muecke 1969, p. 73), e.g. ET3, VII/26: John Howard ... is the obvious choice [for the Liberal’s leadership].

4.5.1.2 Grammatical

- Indirect condition: the use of if-clause: following Quirk et al (1985, p. 1096)
"...conditional clause expresses uncertainty about the extralinguistic knowledge required for a correct interpretation of the utterance. The uncertainty may be the speaker’s or the hearer’s..." e.g. ET1, VII/16: If that wasn’t enough to keep Fahey busy, he now has the housing portfolio...

- Use of second person plural inclusive and "involving the addressees directly in order to heighten their interest in the subject matter..." (House 1977, p. 100). e.g. ET1, I/2: 'The only exception...is when you are in deep, deep, deep trouble...'. The inference is reversed; 'you' refers indirectly to corrupt politicians.

- Theme fronting, i.e. inversion⁴ and cleft-sentences: following Quirk et al (1985, p. 1378):

  A more striking type of fronting is found in the heightened language of rather mannered rhetoric including the strenuous colourfulness of journalistic writing. It is frequently employed to point a parallelism between two parts of a clause or between two related but contrasting parts of neighbouring clauses. The fronted parts may be prosodically marked as marked theme or marked focus, the latter typically with divided focus, ...and they may be grammatically any of a wide range of units...

e.g. ET1, X/26: All it needs is a backbencher... and Collins will be history.

In her functional model for translating humour, Vasconcellos (1986) uses Halliday's functional model, namely his textual component which "...has two systems that are necessarily realized in all messages: thematization and information." (p. 134) [italics in original]. She observes that the countering of the unmarked expectations produces surprise felt as irony. The author concludes, "...irony is enhanced by the formality of the lexical choice in an otherwise informal register." (p. 138) and "...brevity and conciseness are a prescriptive 'given' in journalistic writing." This is a reminder of my discussion above about the conversational maxims, i.e violating the expectations of the addressee and ambiguating the assumptions about what is in the writer's mind. e.g. ET2, V/23: '...right now value for money...means an election that is held sooner rather than later.'
• The use of Participles: 1) ‘prepositional’ function participle, e.g. ET4, IV/6: By giving; 2) ‘conjunctive’ conclusive function participle, e.g. ET1, III/7: Having diffused a few nasty landmines ... (Quirk et al 1985, p. 660)

• Adjunct adverbs used as subordinators (Quirk et al, p. 442), e.g. ET4, VI/9: And when a natural diversion doesn’t materialise ...

• Pseudo-clefting (see James 1980, P. 111). e.g. ET3, XII/45: Warwick Smith, a name ...household category... is another who the hard heads in Canberra believe is exactly what the Liberals need. A stylistic transformation is used here to emphasise the writer’s opinion: “is another”, “hard heads”. The device serves as a tool for irony since it postpones the new information in the shape of indirect speech act: “is exactly what the [we] Liberals want’ to last.

• Concessive conjunct: Following Quirk et al (pp. 632-636) “...we relate conjuncts to the speaker’s comment in one quite specific respect: his assessment of how he views the connection between two linguistic units.” e.g. ET4, III/5: Mr [sic] Hewson decided that he would, after all, be making changes to the GST. The writer’s ironic remark on Dr Hewson is deduced from the conjunct “after all”. It has an interpersonal function and, most importantly, violates the maxim of quantity given that it is considered an understatement.

4.5.1.3 Lexical

• Collocations: after Hatim and Mason (1990, p. 204) “collocation is not purely mechanical, but provides powerful evidence of intentionality and text-type focus.” This is based on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976, p. 289) special use of collocation in which they suggest that

...each occurrence of a lexical item carries with it its own textual history, a particular collocational environment that has been built up in the course of the creation of the text and that will provide the context within which the item will be incarnated on this particular occasion.
This environment determines the ‘instantial meaning’, or text meaning of the item, a meaning which is unique to each specific instance.

e.g. ET4, IV: Dr Hewson has given ... a handful of free kicks.

• Figurative language: This device is considered, following Baker (1992), in terms of the violation of the words to the restricted meaning of the language. e.g. ET1, I/1 ... golden rules of politics; III/6 dry-cleaned.

• Modality/adverbs: give hypothetical meaning to journalistic articles and express doubts, probability and opinion. Quirk et al (1985, p. 219) argue that modality at its most general “... may be defined as the manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker’s judgment of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true.” e.g. adverb: ET1, I/1 an almost fail-safe way; modal: ET1, VI/15 no-one could ever accuse Fahey of ... .

4.5.1.4 Graphological

• Embedding: The use of a single dash, to denote an abrupt change of thought or a sudden change in sentence structure. Using single dash is also an emphatic explanatory reference. e.g. ET2, I/1: - The “do you slowly” taunt ...; II/6 - Mr Keating left himself with ...

• Use of double dashes: Enclosing the writer’s personal interpretation and tone. e.g. ET2, II/9 - or to do the least harm to -

4.5.2 Arabic Devices

4.5.2.1 Rhetorical

• Rhetorical questions: The English description of rhetorical devices applies strongly to the use of this device in Arabic. It was used abundantly in all the Arabic texts.
I suggest it has a cultural meaning, for it aims at, to use Sa’adeddin’s terms, the enchantment of the audience as well as their involvement and solidarity. It is also a psychological feature of commentary writings in Arabic; writers try to conceal their statements and opinions fearing persecution in one way or another. e.g. AT 2, VIII/20-21: limādhā muni’a Irving min dakhūli ’ustrālia? ’a-li’annahu sa-yajlibu ... al-fawḍā wa-al-fitana wa-al-khalala al-’ammi? : why was Irving denied an entry visa to Australia? Was it because he was going to cause havoc, riot and civil strife?.

- Gradation/Double-shift: Juxtaposition of the meaning of one word in its literal sense with its meaning in a fixed sense as part of the colloquial locution. e.g. al-diwanjīyīn : the liars/administrative officers (Arabic text (AT) 1, VIII/21). diwan-jī is used colloquially as an adjective for a ‘smart’ liar. Its literal sense ‘someone who works in a government office’ is usually replaced with muwazafīn or mas’ūlūn.

- Overstatement: A must in this text-type in Arabic. Almost all the suggested ironic devices could be labelled overstatement insofar as the exaggerated style is concerned. e.g. AT2, IV/9: ... wa-khaṣṣasū lahu mūzāniyyatan takfī li-’īrāmi shu’ūbi al-ṣūmāl wa-tanzānya wa-mūzambīq: ... they allocated for him a budget sufficient for the peoples of Somalia, Tanzania and Mozambique. AT3, VII/14: ... ’unāsun tafūḥu min taṣarīḥīhim ra’īhatu: ... people whose statements stink with the smell of ...

- Shift of register: Formal, informal and colloquial register are used interchangeably to enhance the relationship between the writer and his readers and to create the necessary superficial contrast. e.g. AT2, sequence 1 Colloquialism/standard: wa-dawwakhanā, yatashāwaf : He made us dizzy, he is showing off; informal: wa-khuṣūsan ‘alā: and especially on; formal: li-ḥurriyātī al-fikri: to freedom of thought.

- Internal contradiction: A structural device that reflects the ironic attitude of the writer by way of intratextuality, assertion in one utterance or sequence then contradiction in another. e.g. AT1, sequence II ... and to show his [Fahey] innocence and wise behaviour ... he forms a committee [to investigate the mismanagement
scandal], then in sequence IV: ... the wages of this judge [the head of the investigating committee] will be $3000 in a single day.

- Free indirect speech: This device reflects a dramatic irony of the main victim/s (see Stephens, 1992, pp. 91-92) where the text unfolds the stupidity of the statements of the victim/s. It also promotes the detachment of the writer’s stance. For example the writer puts words in the mouth of the victim, John Fahey, in AT1, II/5: *wa-'alā ḥaddi ta‘bīrīhi ... wa‘ada bi-tashkilī...*: and according to him ... he promised to form ...

- Contrast or semotactic anomalies (see Nida 1990, p. 152):
  - Juxtaposition of incompatibles reflects a sarcastic impact. e.g. AT3, IX/17
    *fa-hal bi-al-lawni waḥdahu yahyā al-‘insān?:* Is it only by the colour of the skin that man lives?.
  - Telegraphic style: Universal stylistic usage in journalism. e.g. AT3, the heading: *al-‘adāltu wa-‘ashābu al-manājim:* Justice and mine owners;
  - Formulae: AT1, IX/22: John Fahey *wa-shurakāh:* John Fahey and Co.

- Orality mode: this mode and the visual mode are used in Arabic writing. Sa‘aded-din (1989) suggests that the selection of orality is conditioned in texts by the topic and the assumed readership, while Johnstone (1990) argues that Arabic writers “... are constrained by what the syntax of their language makes available to them and [again] by the intended audience and function of their writing.” (p. 229). The intended Arabic readers of commentary texts, background feature articles in general, as discussed above, pertain to the non-elite stratum of the society. The sociolinguistic constraints, based on the status of the Arabic language, effect also, according to the author, the selection of orality, or the form. “When a person says something in Arabic, the fact that it is being said in Arabic can be as important as what is being said.” (p. 228). Johnstone suggests three features of orality in Arabic prose:
(1) repetitiveness, such as the use of parallelism. Holes (1995) goes further to suggest that parallelism has a persuasive argumentative function.

... to the extent that an argument depends for its effectiveness on the creation or exploitation of an emotional rapport between speaker/writer and audience/reader, it was [after the coming of Islam] natural that those parts of texts where a case was being argued should be embellished by the use of an orational style, one of whose chief functions was to persuade and exhort. (p. 273)

Referring to the veteran political Egyptian columnist Muṣṭafā ʿAmin, who frequently resorts to this style to make veiled critical comment, Holes argues that “In modern journalism, political commentators and others with moral axes to grind also occasionally make use of it [repetition and parallelism] to lend weight to their arguments.” (pp. 273-74) e.g. AT1, X/23: fa-kam min jā’i’inthu yūṭ’innu ḥādhā al-mablāgh? ... wa-kam min furṣati ‘amalin yuwaffiru ḥādhā al-mablāgh?: How many hungry would this amount feed? ... and how many work opportunities this amount would provide?; (2) parataxis, that is, using more additions and less subordinates (see AT1, sequences 2 and 3); and (3) formulaicity, “... that is, repeated phrases, nouns, and rhythmic patterns ...” (p. 218), e.g. AT2, IV/7 wa-‘aqāma al-dunyā wa-lam yuq’īdahā: and he turned the world upside down [lit. and he lifted the world and didn’t sit it back]; AT1, X/23: wa-hal killafa khāṭirahu...?: And did he bother to ...?

On formulaicity, Quirk et al (1985, p. 1463) also suggest that formulaic utterances are persuasive and basically oral. He argues that “While deictic, reference and ellipted matter must, from a grammatical viewpoint, be recoverable ..., discourse permits a good deal of vagueness. This seems to be actively cultivated in propaganda and other persuasive material, but it is especially common in informal conversation ...”. Holes (1995) even describes the use of satire, linguistic oddities, recurrence, imagery and archaisms in the pre-Islamic poetry as being of oral formulaic origin.
Johnstone (1990) also argues that formulacy, along with repetition and parataxis (the relatively low incidence of subordination) are signs of orality in expository persuasive Arabic prose. However, she admits that these three oral features "... are made necessary by the syntactic strategies available in Arabic and by particular Arabic discourse traditions and communicative needs."

Other strategies that mark orality mode include:

- Occurrence of resumptive pronouns in the same sentences which is allowed in Arabic for emphatic purposes (see Al-Jabr 1985, p. 192) e.g. AT1,
  \[X/23: \text{fanun wāḥidun} \ldots \text{huwa.}: \text{one mouth} \ldots \text{is... .}\]

- Paraphrasing: The writer assumes the background knowledge of his reader-
  ship.

- Speech redundancies: Repetition, shift of thought, colloquialisms. Inflammatory expressions. (see AT1for examples).

- Periphrastic passives, agent passives, tendency to nominalisation, negativi-
  sation, lexical choice, word order (see Holes 1995).

- Parallel structure: sentence level 'Parallelism as a method of overemphasis is abundant in Arabic, and this causes the recurrence of the same theme in the same texts’ Al-Jabr (1985, p. 198). e.g. AT2, V11-12:‘ahuwa difā‘un ‘an al-dimuqrāṭīyy-
  ati...’am difā‘un ‘an kātibin: is it a defence about democracy ... or a defence about a writer? Holes (1995) links parallelistic, repetitive patterning of Arabic prose with the history of the Arabic language. \textit{shi‘r}: poetry, \textit{saj}: rhymed prose or \textit{khuṭba}: sermons share rhyme and phrasal balance and are categorised, according to the writer, as ‘... 'elevated discourse’, which had specific societal (even political) functions. Among these were the affective ones of encomium, satire, exhortation, and persuasion.” (p. 273).

- Cumulation: Used to overwhelm and convince the readers. e.g. AT1, sequence II;
IV/8 ḥādhā al-ṭaṣarrufi ʿal-ṭabiʿi al-maḥūd wa-al-mutaʿārafiʿ alayhi fī kulli shuʿūni al-bilādī aw al-ḥayāti: this usual, natural, and conventional behaviour in all the country matters and life.

- Pretended attack upon the victim’s opponents/Self-disparaging. e.g. AT2, IV/8: ...

   al-muslimūna al-barbara wa-al-mutakhallifūn: ... the barbaric and underdeveloped [backward] Muslims.

- Naming of the participants: Following Stephens (1992, p. 94) “The way characters are named in a text is often part of focalization”. This materialises in the form of a metaphor, reference or title. e.g. AT3, I/1 Metaphor: mutaʿashqiṣū al-māddati: the lovers of material possession. Reference with a shift of register and usage of formal collocation, e.g. AT3, I/1: ḥuqūq al-ʿinsān: mankind’s right. Title: false use of honorifics. e.g. AT3, IV/10 al-sayyid Morgan: Mr Morgan.

- Circular address, the use of the third person singular. This device is used in exhortatory and critical texts to ensure the reader’s sympathy and agreement about the reality or logic of the situation blaming the victim of irony for the shortcomings. e.g. AT1, sequence 2: ḡa-raḥbatan minhu, ‘aḥā ḥaddi taʿbīriḥi, fī ʿizḥāri wajhi al- barāʾati ... waʿaḍa bi-tashkīlī lajnatin barlumāniyyatin muḥāyidatin ....: and given his wish, according to him, to show the innocent face [intention] ... he promised to form an impartial parliamentary committee ... . Here the use of the third person takes the form of a free indirect speech which according to Stephens (1992, p. 91) can “... depict a character ironically ...” and “... can also be an extremely powerful device for revealing the ugliness of a character ...” (p. 91).

4.5.2.2 Grammatical

- Use of ḥāl: Following Al-Mufdi and Abu Bakr (1964), ḥāl is, in terms of meaning, either emphatic without which the meaning can be complete, e.g. AT1, II/4 ‘amadan aw mutaʿammidan; yuḥāwilu ʿan: ‘willfully or premeditatedly, he is trying to’; or
componential, without which the meaning cannot be complete, e.g. bāta al-’ahrāru ‘abīdan; the freemen become slaves. Haywood and Nahmad (1965, p. 427) assigns other functions to the use of the ḥāl construction, “it takes the place of adverbs, e.g. jā’a musri’an: he came quickly.” It reflects an interpersonal function given that it “... is used to describe the Condition [i.e. the state] or Circumstance obtaining at the time when the action of the main Verb takes place.” (p. 395) [Emphasis in original]. See first example above: muta’ammidan describes the subject ‘he’, i.e. the victim of irony.

- Frequencies of Nominal clause-type; markers of argumentative texts in Arabic. According to Hatim (1989, p. 137) “... the choice of these [nominal and verbal sentence] structures is closely bound up with ‘text rhetorical intent’, a cover term for the complex interaction between message, producer and receiver”. Holes (1995, p. 260) views nominalisation as an element of the ‘media style’, he describes it as “... another syntactic ploy which allows the writer to give the required flavour of objectivity to his or her statements and claims, and ... like passivisation, allows ‘unattributable’ claims to be made ...”, e.g. AT2, II/3: wa-al-ra’yu ‘inda al-gharbi, ‘alā ḥaddi ta’bīrihi, huwa al-ra’yu ... fa-al-ḥurrayyatu hiya ghāyatun bi-ḥaddi dhātiha: and opinion to the West, according to it, is opinion ... for the freedom of speech is an end in its own right. The ironic strategy here, is, again the use of ‘explicit’ indirect speech act: according to it, etc. This whole sequence marks a substantiation of the main thesis of the article. Contextually, it is also a thesis that will be later undermined marking a violation of the maxim of manner. Typologically, my choice of this device is based on Hatim’s texts’ classifications (p. 138) and his further argument that “The nominal structure ... is essentially evaluative promoting a transition-rheme communicative thrust, which dependence on the recoverability ... [is] on a ‘world’ yet to be constructed in circumstances to be uniquely determined by the subsequent argument.” (pp. 143-144).

- The use of first person plural: This usage attracts early agreement from the readers,
indicates a mark of solidarity and isolates the victim. eg. AT3, VII/14 'innanā nuṣālibu bi-‘ulymīd 'alfayn wa-mā zāla 'indanā 'unāsun ...: We want to have the 2000 Olympics and we still have people ...

- Catenative verb construction: after Quirk et al (1985, p. 147 "[a] The term “catenative” alludes to the ability of these verbs to be concatenated in sequences of non-finite constructions... [b] Some catenative verbs, like some auxiliaries, are closely related to constructions with ‘anticipatory it’ ...” e.g. AT3, III/4: wa-yabdū 'anna ma'lūmāti al-sayyid Morgan al-napolionīyyatī...: It seems that Mr Morgan’s Napoleonic information ...

- Foregrounding for specification: This device has a restrictive grammatical usage in the Arabic rhetoric. In English, the notion of foregrounding is stylistic and has no grammatical constraints, unlike the Arabic rhetorical and linguistic meaning of foregrounding (see discussions in Chapter Two on Fowler and Riffaterre respectively). Similarly, in Arabic, specification differs from the grammatical meaning as in Al-Mufdī and Abū Bakr (1964) where specification denotes the use of second person singular or plural, or the first person singular or plural pronouns before an accusative noun (called the specific noun) in order to stress the inference of the pronoun and to clarify it but not to narrate it.

e.g. AT3, VII/14: wa-nahnu lā nastaṭī'u: al-'ikhtīfā'ā warā'ā 'aṣābi'anā: and we, are unable to hide behind our fingers. Here according to Al-Sakākī (1937), the foregrounding, and rather addition, of the pronoun nahnu is grammatically justified on the condition that this pronoun can be postponed, and that it only refers to the subject, e.g. using the example above, wa-lā nastaṭī' nahnu ...: [faithfully] and we are unable, us, to... . The function of the device is putting emphasis on the subject (the victim of irony in the text) which, coupled with the ellipsis (cf. the discussion on orality above, i.e. use of coordinators instead of subordinators): baynāmah nahnu...:
while we ... gives the ironic inference.

- Theme fronting (enhancing the expectations of the ironic tone). Functionally, Holes argues that "... the word order in more discursive writing is more variable and idiosyncratic." (1995, p. 265). Ibn Khaldūn (1993 ed., p. 474) mentions the importance of word order as a variety of al-bayān used for a rhetorical end. e.g. AT4, I/1, 2: 'ustrālia al-sā'iratu nāḥwa ...‘alayhā ...: Australia heading towards ... must...

4.5.2.3 Lexical

- Use of synonyms or near synonyms: A strategy in Arabic known as root-echo (Emery, 1991): a mark of aesthetic, emphatic and explicit exaggeration. This device would be considered tautological in direct English translation. e.g. AT1, II/4: dūna murā‘atīn aw īhtimā‘: without care or attention; AT1, IV/9: ’ansusunā wa-‘arwāhunā: our souls and inner-selves.


  ... the choice of lexis and the type of lexical patterning can subtly contribute to the realisation of the writer’s overall intention. Saj’ (or rhymed prose) is used in modern Arabic argumentative and sales discourse to strike an aesthetic chord in the mind of the reader and thereby facilitate the goal of conviction. A sarcastic or bitterly ironic tone can be built up by the use of exaggerated epithets and images; a factual or neutral flavour by the selection of objective (non-personal) structures. [my emphasis]

- Repetition, recurrence: As noted by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, p. 55), "...recurrence is prominently used to assert and re-affirm one’s viewpoint". e.g. AT2, III/6 'abadan ... 'abadan: absolutely [lit. never ... never].
• Metonymy: double meaning. In English, according to Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 36) “Metonymy ... has primarily a referential function, that is, it allows us to use one entity to stand for another ... [it] also serves the function of providing understanding.” To Jakobson (cited in Lodge, 1988, p. 57), we have metonymy when “an attribute or cause or effect of a thing signifies the thing”. In Arabic, al-kināya: ‘metonymy’ is frequently used for insinuation. It is defined in the Arabic eloquence as “... an utterance by which a meaning different than the real [referential] meaning is intended, with the possible standing of the original meaning where there is no evidence to obstruct this possibility.” (Sheikh Amīn 1992, p. 153) [my translation]. e.g. AT1, IX/22: ‘awratihim: their genitals/shame.

• Parallelism: For sound-effect (Newmark 1988, p. 208) although the Arabic language encourages such style (see discussion on orality above). e.g. AT2, I/1: 'aṣam-ma'ādhanān ... wa-dawwakhanā: He deafened our ears ... and sickened us.

• Collocations: e.g. AT4, the title: Wafanīyyatun muzdawīja: Double Nationalism. The use of exaggerated clichés that marks an overstatement in relation to the topic.

4.5.2.4 Graphological

• Paralinguistic devices: used as explicit markers of ironical intentions, e.g. inverted commas and three dots used nonchalantly by some writers to replace a semi-colon while others use it rhetorically, to give the prose a ‘philosophical’ meaning, as in the famous Lebanese political commentator, Ghassan Touweini, for example.

4.6 Data Set

Chapters Two and Three were devoted to the discussion of the perception and justification of irony in editorials and background feature articles. In this Chapter, the translation and analysis of that specific use of irony was tackled. In the light of the con-
clusions drawn from these discussions, a translation and analysis model was proposed. The model suggests that the macro structure aspects of texts play a crucial role in the inference and use of irony.

In this section I will focus on these macro aspects that bring ironic commentary into being and try to make a general contrast between the situation and the language varieties in Arabic and English.

4.6.1 Overview of Ironic Commentary Texts

Arabic and English, as I mentioned, have historically shared the use of irony for various rhetorical purposes. It is argued that although the typological nature of the language plays an important role in the patterns of the use of irony, cultural and political situations also constitute a major factor in the need for that use. In the present century for example, many important changes have occurred in the Arab world on the political scene, e.g. new nations have emerged, others have gained independence.

Nevertheless, it is true to say that there are differences between citizens of English and Arabic speaking countries in terms of the understanding and implementation of freedom, independence and prosperity. These differences are reflected in literature and in the media, and more specifically in the field of journalism. Journalism’s concern in Western countries is, prima faci, social and political, i.e. values, standard of living, technology etc., and, keeping politicians honest. However, a perfect and unbiased journalism in the West seems a long way off. News and commentary remain influenced by the political preferences of the proprietors and the political system. Following Edgar (1980, p. 261) “A serious newspaper is a broker with the system and above all it is a source of ideological legitimation of the system itself.” Furthermore, he (pp. 268-269) casts doubt about the objectivity and motivation in the presentation of news reports and opinion articles. He views that
The standard of living, costs and wages, education, medical care, welfare, social security and affluence, are all used as issues for public debate. But in fact they are only secondary to underlying economic structures; they divert public attention from structural problems while creating an illusion of participation. (p. 268).

On the other hand, journalism in the Arab world, in the political sense, is concerned and preoccupied with civil wars, struggling economies, oppressive regimes, Arab nationalism, religious and ideological struggles to name a few. As noted by Rugh (1979, p. 17), “The concept of the watchdog function of the media acting for the public against the government is manifest only in limited ways in the Arab world.” Rugh (1979) categorises the Arab world in terms of media systems into three major groups: The Arab republics which call themselves socialist, e.g. Egypt, Syria, Iraq, Libya. In these countries “The regime attempts to mobilize the media, giving them considerable guidance on goals which should be emphasized, on how to interpret events ...” (p. 28). The second group which mainly includes monarchies, such as Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Tunisia, Qatar. Constitutionally, the media in these countries is not bound by direct government rules, and political parties play little or no role at all, according to Rugh (p. 28). However, there is a subtle and indirect influence and control over the press in these countries. This is reflected in the loyalty “... to the regime in presenting news and commentary on important issues.” (p. 29). The last group enjoys a considerable degree of “... diversity and freedom of expression ... The archetype of this group is the Lebanese system ... Kuwait and Morocco have a degree of diversity and independence which puts them, too, in this special category ...” (p. 29).

In brief, the freedom of speech, truth and honest motivation in journalism is, to various degrees and in various shapes, non-existent in both the Australian and the Arab world. A report of a UN special committee on the freedom of opinion in the press, published in *The Arab World* newspaper in Sydney (11/5/93, p. 6), concluded that “... Australia and Britain are the only nations [among the democratic nations of the world] whose constitutions do not include any written texts indicating freedom of speech or
freedom of the press.” [my translation]. This, the report says, explains the amount of court cases relating to defamation, disclosure of government news in the press etc.

Editorials and background feature articles are the main areas in journalism used to express opinions. Moreover, a close look at both Arabic and English commentaries would reveal that the use of irony is a common phenomenon. However, English editors, who obviously enjoy more freedom of speech, use this device explicitly to enforce the meaning of their message. This implies that Arab writers resort, to a relevant degree, to different strategies based on avoiding clearly speaking their minds on certain topics, persons or institutions. But as Rugh (1979, pp. 108-109) argues, there are exceptions to this state of affairs. A newspaper has more freedom if it has the right connections with the people in power or if it expresses the opinion of the power itself. One famous example is Mohammed Hassanein Heykal who had strong ties with President Nasser of Egypt who appointed him in May 1970 Minister for Information. In his advocacy and defence of Nasser’s short lived Arab Socialist Union, Heykal noted in Al-Ahram on 5 April 1968 that “Certain elements [among the Egyptian army]..., which took part in seizing power in 1952 from the old alliance between the British occupation, the Royal Court and the Egyptian upper class did not see the need to transfer authority to the new alliance of the people’s working forces. ...” (in Stephens 1973, p. 374). Heykal had the freedom even to predict Nasser’s thinking when he declared in his article in Al Ahram on 26 May 1967 that “... an armed clash between the UAR [United Arab Republic, i.e. Egypt] and Israel is inevitable.” (p. 481)

What is of interest in the above overview is that the difference in the political and social situations enforces different stylistic strategies in commentary writing. It is not the intention of this study to analyse these strategies, as it suffices to have a close look at both an Australian newspaper and an Arabic newspaper from any Arab nation to notice the point I make. However, highlighting this background will support my view that the macro aspects (namely geographical and social) have their impact on
the stylistic and, to a certain degree, linguistic usage of Arabic (see Di Biase in Campbell & Di Biase, 1988). For a linguistic analysis and the purpose of translation, I will limit my discussion to notions that are universally relevant to translation in relation to my subject; namely:

1. The source text (ST): writer/institution; the ST readership;
2. The target text (TT) institution/readership;
3. Form and content.

4.6.1.1 The writer and the institution.

Although political commentary writing is considered a creative activity, at its best at least, it is believed that writers do not enjoy the ultimate freedom a freelance literary writer might have. The guidelines and political sympathy of newspapers usually affect the final product of articles. According to Trewin (1975), the editor’s personal views and inclinations have a direct influence on the writer for “Although there are executives looking after circulation, production, finance and advertising ... the editorial content and the staff who supply it are the responsibility of the editor.” (p. 81)

Perhaps the description of the role of editors by David Hickey, a former editor-in-chief of the Sydney Morning Herald fits their influence when he says “... editors are the custodians of the front mast.”

On the other hand, the editor’s freedom varies according to the proprietor for whom he or she works. In this context Van Dijk (1988, p. 124) defines editorial opinions as “...both explicit and dominant and formulated from the point of view of the newspaper and its editor.” Van Dijk also argues that there are quantitative and qualitative similarities between specific news articles and editorials written in the developed and developing countries: “... The homogeneity found in the news reports is not reproduced in the editorials. There is considerable variation ..., both between and within the first and third world, the opinions are generally in line with the political and ideological attitudes of the newspapers and their regional or national background.” (p. 128).
The geographical origin, i.e. the environment of the newspaper also has its influence on the final product. Van Dijk takes perhaps a hard-line in regard to the existence of objective written media when he argues that "True counter-journalism is marginal, oppressed or simply non-existent anywhere in the world, whether by force or by economic and more subtly ideological reasons." (p. 131).

Another important factor that affects the style of commentary writing is psychological: it lies in Davis' (1975, p. 41) view about the feeling of the writer towards the subject matter. The author posits that the subject matter about which one is writing becomes harder to handle the more strongly he or she feels about it. For example, the writer in the Arabic text 2 is explicit in his attack on the West influenced primarily by his hatred of the Jews and to any anti-Islamic views.

To recapitulate, I propose the following factors that determine the writer's view and consequently the language he or she uses in commentaries which are dictated by them:

1. the editor;
2. the proprietor;
3. the political and ideological attitudes of the newspaper;
4. the political situations, the economic and ideological attitudes of the government/regime;
5. the personal feeling of the writer towards the subject matter; and
6. the seniority, i.e. intellectual and political position of the writer.

4.6.1.2 The ST objectives versus ST readership

Western commentaries oppose or endorse local and international issues of public interest, e.g. taxes, government political figures and institutions, elections; or other
matters such as human rights, apartheid, wars, etc. Following van Dijk (1988, p. 124), this text type uses argumentation to express opinions. "Opinions are usually defended by a series of arguments, which means that editorials have an argumentative structure. This argumentation is not only defensive but also persuasive." Hatim (1989), discussed in Chapter Two, also agrees with this definition and gives a linguistic explanation of the process of argumentation in this area.

It is also argued that the "... press in any country mirrors the basic interest and goals of the political, economic, and cultural elite." (van Dijk 1988, p. 131). By contrast, in his study on The Arab Press, Rugh (1979, p. 22) views the issue from a different angle: "... the media communicate ... horizontally to educated elite groups throughout the Arab world, and at the same time they communicate vertically to literate and illiterate members of their respective nations."

More specifically, the editorial, as van Dijk (1988, p. 124) suggests, "... is intended to contribute to the opinion formation of the reader about a current news event." Davies (1975, p. 41) emphasises the influence of the readership when he suggests that for an editorial writer to arrive at his goal he must: 1) Know his readers, i.e. age range, tastes and their prejudices; 2) have a clear picture of why his newspaper exists at all; 3) have good background information on the subject matter and 4) boil the theme down to great simplicity.

4.6.1.3 Target text readership

Given that both the ST and the TT readership in question are in the same political, geographical and temporal environment (exemplified in Chapter Two), a question arises: How would the discussion of the ST production process and readership expectations above fit into the TT translation process and the target readership's interest? The answer to this question rests, in my view, on a host of factors: 1) The influence of the
environment on the Arabic commentary writers’ style; 2) the relationship of these writers with their readers; and 3) the aim of translating a ST into Arabic.

In an exposition on the Arabic press in Australia, Ata (1989, p. 254) expresses the view that the news events are "... coloured in their portrayal by religious, cultural or political views." Then, in his account of the editorial content in the Arabic press he writes: "Because they speak in many different dialects and are unable to read with ease, Arab readers are provided with a press whose quality and content are invariably designed so as to play on the emotions and the mentality of the majority. The language of the papers has become simple, personal and direct." (p. 254). From my observation, Ata's stereotyping generalisation is not plausible. It is true to say that the Arabic media in the Arab world differs from its Arabic counterpart in Australia on the one hand and from its English one on the other hand. Media critics, as quoted by Ata (p. 256) suggest that:

The Arabic media, ... differ in function from the media elsewhere. The views expressed in the press tend to be those of a small elite ... [who] is only partly composed of journalists; educated people of diverse backgrounds publish articles on current affairs and literature, which (it is alleged by Rugh, 1979; Tenezakis, 1983) are an important contribution to the maintenance of Arab culture and identity.

In addition to this, commentary content in the Arabic press is dictated by the ideological sympathy between the 'owners' of newspapers and certain political parties, and the influence of religious factions. However, Arabic writers in Australia still enjoy a good deal of freedom in comparison with their counterparts in the Arab world. This freedom is restrained, not to say sanctioned, the closer the topic of the commentary touches a political or religious issue that relates to the Arab countries or the Arab community in Australia. Such issues are tackled with much the same strategies used in the Arab world, not for fear of persecution, but for economic reasons, the most obvious of which is a decline in circulation.
The texts in both languages that will be analysed are chosen from topics about Australian politics for two reasons: First, the restraints mentioned above which reflect, to a degree, a difference in the style of irony used in commentaries in Australia and Arab countries; second, because of the need for a contrastive analysis to draw conclusions for translation. This ‘restricted content’ will, in my view, reflect formal linguistic characteristics in Arabic. Thus the topic of the study is narrowed down to the translation of Australian political commentaries into Arabic for Arabic readers in Australia.

The focus on Australian politics is motivated by a social need as well. Ata (p. 267) points out that the local Arabic press attempts to “... bring their readers into contact with Australian news, politics or decisions ...”. From my observation, this is done mainly through translated news articles about the above mentioned news, politics or decisions. Thus, I would assume that translated commentaries from the Australian press would not only fill this gap in the Arabic press but would also activate the Arab community’s participation in the mainstream community’s socio-economic life at large. I also suggest that because Arabic readers are socio-linguistically and politically in contact with Australian current news events, they will have a greater acceptance of the English commentary style, i.e. irony, as well as content.

To conclude, it is essential for the translator of English commentaries into Arabic to have a clear idea about the expectations of his target readership. Based on the discussion above, the Arabic reader’s accessibility to the Australian culture imposes changes to the quality of, or rather dictates a different approach to, the translation of this text type in many areas: lexically, such as the use of ‘unfamiliar local’ metaphors, puns; grammatically, such as the use of reference, free indirect speech; rhetorically, such as the use of pretended agreement with the victim, pretended ignorance, etc.
4.6.2 Justification of the Data Set

For the purpose of the analysis, eight texts were chosen, four in Arabic and four in English. These texts are drawn from leading newspapers in both languages. Two editorials and two background feature articles were selected in English for two reasons: 1) to obtain a broader picture of the degree and the implicitness or explicitness of the use of irony in political commentary in general; and 2) because feature articles are more likely to deal with Australian current affairs issues which in practice are the ones that would more likely need to be translated into Arabic. Another important reason is that the above mentioned issues are dealt with in the Arabic press in feature articles, as the analysis will demonstrate, in 90% of cases.

For the last reason above, three feature articles were selected in Arabic in addition to one editorial. Arabic editorials are very scarce, and they tend to be more serious and cautious when Australian politics are tackled. They are usually preoccupied with the issues of their countries of origin, mainly Lebanon and Egypt.

Topics were carefully selected to be identical. For example, the English and Arabic texts 1 deal with NSW politics and the Liberal Government in particular, and a lot of political figures under fire in both texts are the same. The articles belong to the same period of time in order to satisfy the temporal setting in addition to the geographical and sociological ones.

A detailed description of the analysis of each text is given in appendices.
Notes

1 Following Hatim and Mason "... whole sequences of texts are also perceived as signs." (1990, p. 103)

2 Turner argues that "There is some difficulty in accommodating intentions in a theory, or at least in naming them, since purposes and intentions do not appear to be accessible to scientific observation. Intention is, however, subject to specific variation which is sometimes observable in resulting linguistic forms ..., so that statements, questions or commands, reflections of differing intentions in a speaker, are necessarily part of a theory of grammar. Other variations in intention, such as irony have no corresponding indication in the grammatical form of language ... It clearly would not do to 'explain' these effects by referring to an unobservable 'intention', but if we can detect them by observing language in its situation, the word 'intention' may serve to sum up what we observe, as it does in ordinary language." (1986, pp. 139-140)

3 Halliday and Hasan argue strongly for the indispensability of context of situation to text analysis:

   The kind of pattern we have found ... whereby we could relate the elements of the context to the components of meaning in the text in a systematic way, is not just an artifact of that particular text, but, in fact, a general feature of all texts. (Halliday and Hasan 1985, p. 27)

4 Inversion in Halliday's sense has a textual function. He calls this departure from normal structure a 'marked theme'.
CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

This chapter is concerned with: 1) a brief summary of the analysis which was conducted in accordance with the translation model discussed in Chapter Four. The aim here is to establish the general linguistic and non-linguistic factors that affect each language’s ironic meaning; and 2) to draw a conclusion based on the results. This will be discussed in line with the discussion on contrastive analysis in Chapter Three, aiming at the explanation of the ‘co-occurrence restrictions’ that are imposed by either language on how the grammatical, lexical and rhetorical devices are realised.

5.1 Results

Although the results of the analysis indicate identical language usage in the form of the communicative function of commentary in Arabic and English, they show substantial difference in the use. Both languages have employed individual conventional linguistic devices but they share, to a degree, similar structural strategies of argumentation, i.e. thesis cited, substantiation etc.

The table below summarises the way in which structural signs in both languages are rhetorically and linguistically conveyed through the use of irony in the analysed texts. However, given that not all signs are interpreted by means of ironic devices in the texts at hand, signs and only the relevant ironic devices will be mentioned.

For a detailed account on the linguistic, functional and conversational description of the ironic devices of each text, refer to the analyses in appendices A and B.
Table 5.1 Ironic devices as signs in the text development of editorials and feature articles in English and Arabic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural signs</th>
<th>English devices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction/Thesis cited to be substantiated, Thesis cited to be argued through</td>
<td>Pretended advice to the victim*; antithesis; repetition and inversion; understatement ellipsis and overstatement; lexical choice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific thesis to be substantiated</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantiating of specific thesis</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantiating the thesis</td>
<td>Word choice (colloquial), overstatement, rhetorical question; pretended agreement with the victim; double shift effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis substantiated preparing for a rebuttal</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguments/counterarguments</td>
<td>Understatements, figurative expression, compound word, lexical choice, adverbs; praise in order to blame; metaphors, cumulation, overstatement, internal contradiction, conditional sentence, free indirect speech, contrast, stylistic placing, idiom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-conclusion</td>
<td>Figurative expression, inversion; idiom, praising in order to blame.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New thesis to be substantiated</td>
<td>Pretended encouragement to the victim (co-ordinating clause).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New arguments</td>
<td>Cleft sentences; climax, pretended encouragement to the victim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New thesis to be countered</td>
<td>pretended advice to the victim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendation</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>Aphorism, compound word; internal contradiction; understatement; personification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusive solution to victim</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic devices</td>
<td>Binomial: lexical repetition; overstatement; cumulation; stylistic placing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understatement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>parallel structure; repetition; inverted commas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Praise in order to blame, ambiguity, contrast, overstatement, self disparaging; figurative language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rhetorical questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretended defence of the victim; innuendo, metonymy; pretended agreement with the victim, overstatement, ellipsis, colloquialism; analogy, idiomatic expression, conditional sentences, honorifics, metaphor, figurative language; rhetorical question (proverb).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretended attack upon the victim's opponent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rhetorical questions; pun; overstatement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rhetorical questions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Refer to the analysis in appendices for the linguistic realisation of rhetorical devices.
Having done detailed analyses of ironic devices and their impact on the text's structure and rhetorical meaning (see appendices), I ought, before conducting a contrastive analysis, to draw a bigger picture of the overall result of the analysis in each language. By collecting the devices found and the frequency of their use (for example how frequently and in how many texts an overstatement was used) in each language, the following contrastive analysis and then the translation strategies will have a further objective statistical justification.

**Table 5.2 Ironic devices used in four English texts and four Arabic texts: shared, language specific and frequency.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rhetorical devices</th>
<th>Frequency of use in the four English texts</th>
<th>Frequency of use in the four Arabic texts.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antithesis</td>
<td>6 in 2 texts</td>
<td>3 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overstatement</td>
<td>4 in 3 texts</td>
<td>15 in 4 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical question</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>17 in 4 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal contradiction</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understatement</td>
<td>8 in 2 texts</td>
<td>7 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel structure</td>
<td>6 in 3 texts</td>
<td>11 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praising in order to blame</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretended advice to the victim</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretended encouragement to the victim</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climax/Nadir</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretended agreement with the victim</td>
<td>3 in 1 text</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semotactic anomalies/ contrast</td>
<td>15 in 4 texts</td>
<td>7 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulae</td>
<td>4 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irony displayed</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretended ignorance</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect condition</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condensation</td>
<td>7 in 3 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect appeal</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Euphemisms</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stylistic placing</td>
<td>9 in 3 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gradation /Double shift effect</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misrepresentation</td>
<td>6 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fallacious reasoning</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analogy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6 in 4 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paralinguistic devices</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shift of register</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretended attack upon</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the victim's opponent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question/Answer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cliché</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pun</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>88</strong></td>
<td><strong>108</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of shared devices: 12
Number of English specific devices: 11
Number of Arabic specific devices: 9

### Lexical devices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Repetition</th>
<th>6 in 3 texts</th>
<th>10 in 4 texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Near-synonymy</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>5 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical choice</td>
<td>19 in 4 texts</td>
<td>5 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figurative language</td>
<td>25 in 3 texts</td>
<td>24 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modality/adverbs</td>
<td>26 in 4 texts</td>
<td>5 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chain of collocational cohesion</td>
<td>5 in 3 texts</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naming the participants</td>
<td>3 in 1 text</td>
<td>4 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
<td>13 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconsistency in the use of honorifics</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personification</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>3 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound words</td>
<td>10 in 3 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphors</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idiomatic expressions</td>
<td>5 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of synonyms</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root-echo</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metonymy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binomial</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonyms</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proverb</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>105</strong></td>
<td><strong>101</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of shared devices: 10
Number of English specific devices: 3
Number of Arabic specific devices: 7
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical devices</th>
<th>Frequency of use in the four English texts</th>
<th>Frequency of use in the four Arabic texts.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>16 in 3 texts</td>
<td>13 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleft sentence /Inversions</td>
<td>22 in 4 texts</td>
<td>3 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free indirect speech</td>
<td>3 in 3 texts</td>
<td>6 in 3 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional sentence/clause</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superlative</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition and contrast</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post modification</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedding:</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of double dashes</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of participles</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjunct adverbs</td>
<td>4 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing subjunct</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concessive conjunct</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illative conjunction</td>
<td>2 in 2 texts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction of supposition</td>
<td>2 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute/cognate object</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of Khabar; predicate</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redundancy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of ḫāl</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3 in 2 texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural mode</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catenative verb construction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simile</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>63</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of shared devices: 6  
Number of English specific devices: 9  
Number of Arabic specific devices: 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graphological devices</th>
<th>Frequency of use in the four English texts</th>
<th>Frequency of use in the four Arabic texts.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italics</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quotation marks</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capitalised words</td>
<td>1 in 1 text</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall frequency of use of ironic devices employed by each language: 259  
Overall count of shared devices: 28; English specific: 26; Arabic specific: 26.
5.2 Findings

5.2.1 Statement about Forms and Functions

5.2.1.1 Shared Devices

The results of the analysis show that both languages in question resorted substantially to similar devices. However, these devices suggest that differences exist textually (refer to table 5:1 above) as well as functionally. This, I assume, is due to the typological and cultural difference between the two languages.

Similarity was mainly noticed in lexical use and text structure. The former, as assumed in Chapter Four, is due to the freedom of speech allowed in Australia as well as the influence of the Australian political environment on the Arabic language. The generic features of commentary texts that exist in both languages justify the structural similarity.

For illustration, I will contrast, in each set of devices, a few examples, give suggested translation, discuss, and justify the strategy used. A general account of the strategies of translation of all the devices found in the study will be suggested in the next Chapter.

5.2.1.1.1 Rhetorical devices.

The tables above show that in four texts in each language the overall number of rhetorical devices used in English and Arabic is 23 for each language (13 are shared). However, the frequency of use is higher in Arabic, that is 110 to 88. This is due, as observed, to the reliance of Arabic writers on form to convince their readers. They employ striking homonymys and aural mode, in comparison with the English strate-
gies. Each language flouts different maxims in various devices as a result of the textual and functional preference for these devices.

For example, the antithesis in English and Arabic Text 1 shows textual discrepancy. In the former it is realised on a sequence level where the interpersonal meaning is deduced from the combination of utterances, while in the latter it relies on antithetical meaning of individual words such as ‘The laughable tearful’, which is also a saying in Arabic. Given that, the effect generated from the English strategy cannot be reproduced in Arabic unless some creative changes are made in an Arabic translation. Using the antithesis in ET1, I/1&2, the back-translation from a suggested Arabic translation would be:

One of the golden rules in the tactics of politicians is calling for a report whenever there is a scandal, for this by itself is enough to melt (diffuse) the issue and send it to sleep (oblivion) until further notice. An exception to that is when there is a huge scandal which, according to the Arabic saying ‘if you were damned by wrong doings, don’t shout your problems from the rooftops’, may reveal the truth. [see suggested Arabic translation in appendix E].

The changes were made by using the preferred Arabic strategies: collocations, explicit reference, i.e. scandal for report, and a proverb. In other words, the shift from parallel structure used in English was forced because the communicative function would be better served in Arabic by packaging the sequence in one sentence. The utterances suggested in Arabic violated the maxim of quality, as in the original English, by using false statement, while the flouting of the maxim of quantity came as a result of the use of overstatement and near-synonyms.

Another example that indicates the emphasis of Arabic on form is the abundant use of ironic rhetorical questions: 17 in 4 texts compared with 2 in 2 texts in English. The textual and functional difference is remote. In one instance, English uses one word ‘Mud?’, (ET1, III/6) drawing its interpersonal meaning from the idiomatic use of mud and its exophoric, situational and referential meaning. Irony relies also on one word in the other instance (ET3, II/10): the adverb ‘seriously’. The strategy in Arabic, as
noted, is adding randomly exclamation marks to question marks to further express the amazement of the writer. Formal devices such as repetition, paraphrase, synonyms etc. strike the aesthetic chord of the language.

Functionally, Arabic used contextual and cultural reference, e.g. the proverbial question in AT3, IX/17. On the conversational level, Arabic violates the maxim of quantity while English in one instance infringes the maxim of manner. In summary, English seems to address a more elite readership which is familiar with politics and it thus requires less explicit and emphatic explanation. The results also reveal the power of Arabic rhetoric itself in bringing home the viewpoint.

I suggest the strategy of translation needed to tackle the translation of ‘Mud?’ is as follows: First we must shift the ironic impact from the cultural meaning of the utterance to its equivalent political referential meaning in Arabic mutabbâat: pitfalls. This will warrant a change to the metaphoric compound in the answer in the Source Text, i.e. ‘dry-cleaned’ which could be replaced by an idiomatic expression kharaja ka-al-sha’rati mina al-‘ajîni ‘he got out [of it] as a hair from the dough’, which calls on the mutual shared experience between writer/reader in Arabic argumentative texts (see Atari 1994). Second, a change ought to be made to the structure, because a one word question may eliminate the social relationship required in Arabic between writer and reader and because the one word question followed by an answer is not commonly used in Arabic. Aesthetically, the sentence boundary has to be extended, i.e. substituting the full stop with the causative fa: ‘for’ and the elimination of commas. Thus the question/answer is transformed into a direct statement which is back-translated as follows:

... for he got out of the pitfalls like a hair from the dough before anybody knew it.

Pretended advice to the victim showed neither statistical nor functional difference but
mainly a formal one. In this device, English attracted ironic meaning from the use of
cleft sentences. Arabic used 3 inversions in 2 texts compared with 21 in 4 texts in
English (Table 5.2), while functionally, their use in Arabic was to focus on a false
statement and aesthetic, to enhance the reader’s expectations of the ironic tone. The
pretended advice used a direct imperative in English in contrast with the use of
euphemism or indirect command, i.e. third person in Arabic. Arabic ironic meaning
lies in the use of a false honorific address to victim. Similarly, English in one instance
resorted to reference using lexical double meaning. So, the strategy to translate utter-
ance XIII/47 in ET3

In a profession not normally noted for an over-abundance of the latter [delightful human
beings], that might be a good basis to rebuild a shattered political party.

would preferably be to substitute reference with repetition. Its back-translation is the
following:

In this profession which is not normally [necessarily] famous for its abundance of delightful
human beings, choosing Warwick Smith despite his low profile could be a good basis to build
a shattered political party.

The three examples above clearly indicate that the functional conversational level of
identical rhetorical devices impose formal changes when such devices are translated
from English into Arabic. This is due to the preference of each language’s linguistic
strategies to convey irony, and the idiosyncratic, i.e. formal and functional decisions
made by the writers in each individual text and device.

5.2.1.1.2 Lexical devices.

The number of lexical devices used in both languages is virtually identical: 104 in
English to 101 in Arabic. Excluding the number of modality/adverbs (discussed
below), Arabic, in fact, shows a greater dependency on the form rather than on the
content and the devices used are more diverse, 17 to 13. In Arabic (especially in the three background feature articles) the ironic emphasis is centred on communicating the writer's opinion through three main strategies, namely: 1) Breaking the conversational maxims; 2) meaning of device to be detected from context; 3) use of Arabic cultural references. English, on the other hand, resorts to expressions that represent signs in the development of the text, as well as idiomatic expressions and exophoric reference.

Given the above conclusion, any attempt to suggest translation equivalents of the ironic lexical devices from English will have to start from the function communicated. For illustration, I will take three English examples. First, a repetition from English Text 2, the first paragraph: 'THE advantage ... the disadvantage ...' [capitals in original]. This device is thematic, introducing the argument of the editorial; by contrast in the Arabic editorial the repetition has an experiential meaning based on an ironic 'cliché' rakha'ana: our leisure, that is: our holidays. This involves a violation to the maxim of manner (because of the deviance of the expression of opinion) and does not show the same English thematic strategy. Furthermore, the introductory paragraphs of the four Arabic texts did not resort to such a strategy to convey irony. The only repetition in Text 1 was dictated by the language itself and has no ironic impact. Instead, other devices were used to set the tone of the argument, attack is launched from the start to the end of the articles using other means such as parallelism, lexical choice, synonyms, paraphrasing, sayings, etc.

Using repetition in the example above may not give the same effect and could be an infringement of the Arabic textuality norm. Therefore a structural change and a shift from repetition to other lexical devices are needed to generate the impact required by the original, otherwise we end up with a serious dose of translationese not to mention a distortion of the real message. So, considering the function of the original and the repertoire of the Target Text as the guidelines for translation, I suggest that a strategy
of editing and creative writing rather than translation be adopted. Compare the back-
translation of the device from Arabic below:

Paul Keating has two choices, either calling a late election ... or calling an early one ...
Deciding which choice to take is not so easy. The first choice gives him ... while on the other
hand it ... As for the second choice ... This choice also has its disadvantage ...

There is a striking difference in the use of figurative language between both lan-
guages. Arabic tends to use parts of the body and their functions widely as well as
embodying abstract concepts with concrete references. English on the other hand
relies on the experiential function of cultural idiomatic expressions as well as inter-
textuality; i.e. reference to political events and quotes.

A translation of an example from English Text 3, I/3 may highlight this difference.

Now, after the worst defeat in their [the Liberals] history, it appears they will continue in the
same vein.

Back-translation from Arabic:

Now, despite the historic defeat they have incurred, it appears they are determined to contin-
ue their journey along that dead end road.

As far as modality and adverbs are concerned, the results suggest that, quantitatively,
English uses this device more frequently, 26 in 4 texts compared with 5 in 2 texts,
and that English ‘pretends’ to express objectively the writer’s opinion about the vic-
tim and the subject matter, while Arabic has, in addition to that, a more aesthetic mis-
sion; it enchants the readers, claims solidarity with them and mocks victims directly.

For example, the Arabic equivalence of the adverb ‘magically’ in English Text 4, II/3
is the fixed expression: bi-siḥri ṣāhirin which literally means ‘with the skill of a
magician', this expression achieves two goals in Arabic: 1) a direct attack on the victim of irony, Dr. Hewson; 2) solidarity with the readership. The back-translation of the utterance is the following:

This is not the first time that the attention of public opinion is redirected, with the skill of a magician, from the problems the Prime Minister is having.

5.2.1.1.3 Grammatical devices.

Six shared grammatical devices were found, namely: reference, inversion, free indirect speech, condition and contrast, conditional and superlative. This perhaps is due to the grammatical dissimilarities across any pair of languages as well as to the cultures and values of the languages concerned. Reference and inversion show difference in their communicative functions while the free indirect speech, which is bound by the quote of the victim, is almost identical. The condition and contrast displays mismatch in the form and function: English uses a formulaic expression in contrast with the Arabic adverb and conjunction of supposition, and, although a violation of the maxim of manner is inferred in both, English attracts the ironic inference from the ambiguity of the expression compared with the self-disparaging irony in Arabic. The conditional constructions show similar use and usage. Both impart interpersonal functions; English communicates pretended advice to the victim as one of the two Arabic instances. The other Arabic conditional has textual and interpersonal functions and attracts irony from its contextual obscurity and the violation to the maxim of manner. The superlative device has identical form and violates identical maxim: quality. However, difference is noted on the functional level: English expresses a point of view while Arabic relies on the textual function of the device by departing from the norm of argumentation.

Reference was used ironically in 3 texts in each language, 16 times in English and 13 times in Arabic. English use concentrates on telegraphic style based on one or two
words of fixed and cultural expressions, for example, that's easy and Rambo. It communicates the message through innuendo, such as the use of rhetorical question, metaphor or pun. Thus the writer is hinting to the readers and calling for their constant participation. The Arabic strategy on the other hand is different. It relies heavily on form, such as repetition, synonyms, metonymy and figurative expressions. The Arabic writers used reference as a textual cohesive means to indicate to the reader the ostensible ironic meaning.

On the other hand, inversions and cleft sentences are used much more frequently in English (22 to 3). These devices are used in both languages to set the tone of the argument in introductions and textual junctions, i.e. for cohesive and coherence purposes. They are a mark of opinion and judgment in English while in Arabic they are emphatic and vocative.

Given these differences, finding a translation equivalence to a particular English reference or inversion poses some problems on the formal level. For example, let us take the fictional American hero ‘Rambo’ in ET1, V/13. The irony in this utterance is in the inversion and reference devices

To implement such a report, enter the quiet and cautious John FabeY, an unlikely Rambo if ever there was one.

As far as the reference to Rambo is concerned, the irony lies in the surrounding lexical set as well as the word itself, i.e. enter: stage direction; unlikely: understatement; if ever: doubt. The inversion is seen as ironic because of the stage direction strategy and the reiteration of the attack using the thematic reference: such a report.

The translation strategy into Arabic requires changes to the formal structure. Inversion remains as it is, in this instance syntactically acceptable; while major changes are warranted on the lexical level, Rambo is transformed into the Arab legendary hero ‘Antara bin Shaddād, in addition to the use of overstatement in the form
of fixed expressions: ḍā yamuttu bi-ṣilatin ḍālā ...: he doesn’t relate in any shape or form to ..., al-ṣindīdī: audacious. The addition of an adjective, 'ar'ān: flippant, to the pronoun ‘such’ is also used to explicitly reflect the writer’s opinion.

Back-translation:

And to implement this flippant report, the quiet and cautious John Fahey, who doesn’t relate in any shape or form to the audacious ‘Antara, was called.

Free indirect speech in English expresses detachment, and contextual meaning. Arabic also reflects detachment with this device. However, the authority of the writer is clear through the opposition of the quote and the knowledge of the outcome. For illustration of the possible strategy for translating such a device into Arabic, I will refer to ET2, V/20

Many times Keating has insisted that the Australian public expects its government to serve its full term.

Back-translation:

Mr Keating has insisted on many occasions that the Australian public expects its government not to step down before the end of its full term.

Changes suggested to the Arabic stem from its preference to reflect irony directly in the utterance itself rather than relying, as in English, on the following utterances, i.e. V/21 & 22, in conjunction with the parallel structure device. Thus, breaking the faithfulness of the quote using ‘not to step down ...’ instead of the word ‘serve’ is desirable in line with the Arabic strategy (see analysis) of adding to the quote adjectives and adverbs that embed the writer’s disapproval and critical opinion.
5.2.1.2 Language Specific Devices

In what follows I will give a general statement concerning each language’s preferences and equivalents, then I will try to match a few English examples with their Arabic equivalents for illustration. Also, a full account of all the devices will come under the strategies for translation in Chapter 6.

5.2.1.2.1 Rhetorical devices.

In general, this set of devices is realised lexically in English through modality, adverbs, compound word, repetition, word choice, adjectives, metaphors, play on words and idioms. Arabic writers, on the other hand choose means such as antonyms, colloquialism, honorifics, collocation, paraphrase, metaphors, idiom and play on words. This indicates that English depends more on the reader’s experience and uses a more implicit style.

Grammatically, English employs reference, cleft sentences, second person pronoun, if-clause, and negation to mark textual cohesion, coherence and personal opinion, while Arabic uses ellipsis, adjectives, reference and adverb of negation. This indicates linguistic discrepancy. Other non-linguistic devices used are italics in English and three dots, inverted commas and exclamation marks in Arabic. If we approach the analysis from a functional standpoint, we realise that the gap becomes wider on both levels. English has a relatively balanced functional strategy with an emphasis on the connotative, cultural and contextual meaning, while Arabic, noticeably stresses the interpersonal function through the enchantment of the readers and direct and indirect attack upon the victim. Conversationally, both languages flout the four conversational maxims through identical and different devices, for example the interpersonal praise in order to blame and the condensation infringe the maxim of quantity, while the maxim of quality is violated through deliberate errors by the writer in English and
use of honorifics in Arabic, and the maxim of relevance through stylistically signalled irony in English and shift of register in Arabic.

Based on this contrast, I will attempt to translate three English examples from the English specific devices giving an explanation of the chosen strategy.

Formulae, ET2, II/6, 7, 8:

Having rejected the option of a December poll - ...- Mr Keating left himself with a set of problematic election dates. Of course, there was the obvious problem of the West Australian election. Mr Keating could not afford to go to the polls before the West Australians had had their chance to vent their anger over WA Inc.

The formula here has a contextual meaning. It marks a semantic shift negating the seriousness of the previous statement in conjunction with the following one. The irony lies in the use of the pause, i.e. the comma after the formula, and the lexical choice: left himself, set, afford, chance, to vent. So, this device has an obvious cohesive role and has an experiential function, given that it evokes the inference through a previously known situation and a typical linguistic tool.

Translating the above poses few linguistic problems. Lexically and grammatically Arabic has one to one equivalents. However, the expression in question loses its ironic impact when translated due to the non-existence of such usage in Arabic. Thus compensation must be made on the lexical and textual levels through the use of cultural colloquial expressions: al-ṣawm wa-al-ṣalāt: fasting and prayer; idiom: lam yakun bi-al-‘īmān ʿafḍala minmā kān: this was the best that could be done [he had no choice]; and through making irony explicit throughout the paragraph.

Back-translation:

By refusing to call a general election in December ... he has no option but fasting and prayer in front of a fistful of dates that are not devoid of dilemmas. But of course, he has no
choice, there is the dilemma of the West Australian election. Mr Keating could not get involved in a general election before the West Australian voters vent their anger over the scandal of WA Inc.

Stylistic placing, ET3 XII/45

Warwick Smith, a name I must confess is not yet in the household category ...

Irony is conveyed here in the experiential connotative meaning of household. I must confess is another ironic device that comes under lexical choice. In translation, household becomes fi qulūbi al-nāsi: in the people’s hearts which is a fixed expression that means popularity, while the overstatement I must confess is substituted with advice to the readers/victim in the form of an adverb bi-ṣarāḥa: frankly reflecting the ironic opinion of the writer.

Back-translation

There is Warwick Smith, whose name, frankly, hasn’t reached the people’s hearts yet ...

Misrepresentation, ET3, VII/26

John Howard, the most experienced and effective performer in the Coalition, is the obvious choice.

The irony in this utterance seems self-evident; good politicians are supposed to be good performers but this is not the only virtue they should have. By concluding that because of his performance he is the obvious choice, the writer is breaking the conversational maxim of quality by asserting what he believes is not true.

In Arabic, the functional equivalence warrants three changes. Syntactically, the word order of ‘the most experienced etc.’ is changed for ironic effect. The sentence
becomes ‘the performer the most experienced and effective’. Grammatical, an explicit assertion to the statement is required in Arabic, this could come in the form of an adverb lā shakka: undoubtedly. Lastly, a lexical change, obvious becomes definite also marking the Arabic functional explicit and interpersonal preference over the textual experiential English strategy. Hence the following back-translation

Undoubtedly, John Howard, the performer, the most experienced and effective in the Coalition, is the definite choice.

5.2.1.2.2 Lexical devices.

In comparison with the rhetorical devices, this set did not show many differences in terms of language specific linguistic preference. Only three devices were found to be explicit to English, namely: idiomatic expressions, metaphors and compound words, the latter of which was used more frequently. Functionally, these three devices indicate an analytic strategy relying on the readership’s political and current affairs background, mainly using political references and connotations. The writers’ opinion is filtered without intrusion in the form of analogy, advice, cultural reference etc. Arabic on the other hand had seven specific devices, all of which, interestingly, show textual function where the aesthetic role is the key issue of their use, such as root-echo, antonyms and synonyms. Thus violation of the maxim of quantity was dominant.

To illustrate, I will attempt a translation of a compound word from ET3, I/8 into Arabic.

However, it must be obvious to even the most thick-headed of them that the philosophy and policies they espoused are anathema to the majority of Australians.

Of course the irony stems from various elements in the utterance and even goes beyond its boundaries: The adverbial clause: it must be obvious, the adverbs: even and most, the lexical choice: espoused and anathema, all contribute to the message.
Thick-headed is a direct attack upon the victim. This strategy is preferred in Arabic but lexically it does not use such a strategy to convey irony and compound-words are mainly used for technical terms. However, an equivalent verbal noun could be used, ghabā': stupid. As for the other elements in the utterance, a root-echo is used: *la'anatu al-la'anati:* anathema [of anathemas], and a simile is introduced: *wādīhan ka-al-shamsi:* as clear as the sun. An important point to make here is that converting faithfully the surface text into Arabic is possible, but the problem is that without the additions suggested the irony would not be communicated as desired by the source text writer.

Back-translation

However, it must be as clear as the sun for even the most stupid of them that the philosophy and the policies they espoused are the anathema of anathemas to the majority of Australians.

5.2.1.2.3 Grammatical devices.

Contrary to the above lexical devices, the use of language specific devices is clear in this set. The reason is the restrictions imposed on each language’s grammatical repertoire and the nature of the analysed Arabic texts, that is, being written in Australia where matching lexical and conceptual items have been detected due to the “... influence of the dominant socio-cultural context ...” (Di Biase, in Campbell & Di Biase, 1988, p. 33).

From the observation, it is clear that functionally the majority of the English devices have an interpersonal function whereby the writers express opinion, state, substantiate their argument etc. On the other hand, the Arabic devices almost equally communicate textual and interpersonal functions. The writers play on the aural mode, use many synonyms (considered redundant), predicates etc., they express opinion, state, stress, address or praise the victim of irony.
Conversationally, the English texts violated less maxims, 8 compared to 21 in Arabic. But proportionally, violating the maxim of manner was dominant, 5 times in English and 12 times in Arabic. Discrepancy was in the violation of the maxims of quality and quantity. English infringes 3 of the former and 1 of the latter compared with 6 violation of the maxim of quantity and 3 of the quality in Arabic. To breach the conversational maxim, English uses strategies such as ambiguity of expression, contradictory statement, circumlocution (1 instance), pretended advice, hypothetical meaning, praise for having undesirable qualities and embedded criticism. Arabic, on the other hand, uses obscurity of expressions, brevity, exaggeration, aesthetic expressions, shift of register and style, praise to blame, repetition, ellipsis, pretended detachment and contradictory statements.

Two examples to be translated will be taken from the devices that were most frequently used in English.

**Embedding. Use of double dashes.** Example from ET2, IV/17, 18:

> Simply putting an end to that uncertainty [about the election date] will provide a much needed boost to the economy. That may seem to make light of the policy differences - the very important policy differences - between Labor and the Coalition.

The irony in the embedding is the clear contradiction the writer is making in relation to his preceding statement, thus violating the maxim of manner. Another factor in its ironic impact is the adjectival phrase used: **very important.** The use of parenthetical dashes highlights the above meaning.

Although this device was not found in the Arabic texts at hand, it is used in Arabic ironic commentary, thus change would be called for in the embedded sentence itself. I suggest here a shift to an exaggerated tone with an explanation: *furūqātun lā tafūqhā 'ahammiyātun 'ayyatu 'umārin'ukhrā: differences that are not surpassed in importance by any other issues.*
Back-translation

Simply, putting an end to this uncertainty will give the boost to the economy that everyone is waiting for. Our suggestion seems to make light of the policy differences between Labor and the Coalition - these differences that are not surpassed in importance by any other issues.

Adjunct adverbs: ET4, I/1 & II/2

As the name of the adverb suggests, it modifies the utterance to its precedent and communicates the writer's opinion. In the example below, the adverb when is considered, after Quirk et al (1985, p. 442), a "...fusion of conjunction and pro-adjunct." When translated into Arabic, a different explicit strategy is used: when is replaced by the causative connection fa: for followed by ma': with, and the two paragraphs are linked to give the utterance a sense of exaggeration, i.e. for even before the jobless figures have been completely released ..., or: while the jobless figures were still in the process of being released... Arabic commonly uses the strategy of short and telegraphic thesis cited in commentaries. However, in this instance, the grammatical, or rather communicative constraint of using a connective/causative device warrants the linkage.

Paul Keating must be blessed, such is his good luck.
When the worst jobless figures in 60 years were released on Thursday, the nation's attention was diverted from the problem by ...

Back-translation

Paul Keating's luck is from heaven. For with the issuing of the worst jobless figures for 60 years on Thursday, the nation's attention was diverted from the unpleasant problem.

5.2.2 Ironic Devices and Textuality

Suggesting a separate account for cohesion and coherence, or textuality and discourse seems needed although difficult to pinpoint. Both notions are intertwined and com-
plementary. de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) suggest that both cohesion and coherence are standards of textuality. Cohesion can be related to the institutionalised cultural linguistic form, while coherence relates to the rhetorical meaning of texts or to the writer’s intended meaning, that is, the purpose that the text-type or sub-text-type intends to achieve, and to the relationship between addressee/addressee. In this sense, coherence pertains to a free, idiosyncratic and less institutionalised concept. Again, a writer cannot pass his intended message without resorting, more or less, to the norms and strategies that a text-type normally employs.

This holistic approach is no doubt justified in any applied linguistic study. However, in proposing translation strategies for the text-type at hand, and given that “...cohesion, or sequential connectivity of surface elements - are much more likely to be language-specific or text-specific.” (Hatim and Mason 1990, p. 195) [emphasis in original], the analysis tends to approach the notion of cohesion from a functional/discursive point while coherence is viewed as the ultimate intention of the text, thus an integral part of textuality. As discussed in Chapter 4, the notions of communicative function of the structure and the text’s rhetorical meaning were used to cover the role of ironic devices in the text.

These two notions, I assume, show the typical structural strategy that each language employs to convey ironic political commentary by means of conventional ironic devices.

Textuality is a crucial part of the analysis. Strategies for the translation of the English devices into Arabic must consider these devices as signs in the development of the structure and, ultimately, of the overall intended meaning. Hence the importance of indicating the textual/discursive strategies used by both languages in question in this specific text-type. The aim is to find out which particular device is most commonly employed in particular parts of the articles to achieve the rhetorical meaning of the
texts in each language. This will base the suggested translation strategy on a micro/macro contrastive analysis in line with the devised model in Chapter 4.

5.2.2.1 Discussion

The analysis shows that English and Arabic employ similar institutional commentary strategies. Arabic used through argument in three texts and a counterargument in one text, while English used through argument in the four texts. However, the difference was in the sequencing of the argument. Arabic seems to defer the argument/counter-argument (see Arabic texts 1&2) to a later sequence in what appears to be an attempt to convince the readership of the subject matter before even arguing it. English on the other hand, uses a more elaborate strategy (see analysis in texts 1&4). It lays the argument soon after the thesis is cited. In other words, it substantiates the argument rather than the thesis, then it emphasises the argument with another related thesis to be further argued before a conclusion is put forward.

This suggests that conveying the same English text development into Arabic may result, so to speak, in a break of communication between the writer and the readership. Hence the question is: To what extent can we depart from the source text structure? The answer to this question is summarised in table 5.1.

Table 5.1 indicates the difference between English and Arabic in terms of the preference of each language to develop the argument. In addition to the structural difference discussed above, it is clear that there is a significant difference with regard to the devices that each language prefers to use in a given structural sequence. In the introduction, English tends to employ implicit rhetorical devices such as antithesis and ellipsis, while Arabic uses explicit linguistic markers such as binomial and synonyms.

In substantiating the thesis, Arabic uses more implicit devices such as pretended
agreement with the victim, while English continues in the same degree of implicitness. In the arguments and counterarguments, the explicitness was similar but different set of devices were used. English, as discussed, draws a conclusion (in one text) to a part of the argument then poses another thesis to be argued. The conclusion indicates a clear language-specific strategy. Again, English resorts to rather implicit devices such as aphorism and compound-word, while the Arabic conclusion was characterised by the use of extensive run-on rhetorical questions in all texts.

In brief, English uses more analytically coherent strategies; this is marked through the thematic progression of the argument (Hatim 1989). It sets the tone in the introduction for the learned readership, expounds on the thesis, structures the argument chronologically and coherently, and concludes with an answer or solution to the introductory thesis.

Arabic, on the other hand, employs a rather circumlocutory strategy: it sets the tone of the argument, expounds on it, argues the thesis in seemingly incohesive sequences (excluding the editorial) and then concludes with questions directed to the victim of irony.

The result suggests that these text-type strategies cannot be ignored when translating from English into Arabic. The translator should be aware of the textual strategy in Arabic as well as the particular devices that reflect irony in particular sequences. In brief, the knowledge of English structural strategies and correspondent devices have similar importance. For translation examples refer to the appendices.

5.2.3 Rhetorical Meaning and Coherence

The generalisation of the above discussion cannot be applied to the rhetorical meaning of texts. Each text has its specific rhetorical meaning. Stylistic notions were suggested to be used as the constant to describe the rhetorical meaning of commentary
texts; namely: Attitude, province and participation. This description has two roles: first, it provides a broad account of how writers in both languages convey their messages in this text-type. In other words, it accounts for what could be expected in a commentary in both languages concerned; second, it helps, on the translation level, to identify the intended meaning through a specific norm to ensure a consistent translation equivalence.

The attitude in the Arabic texts reflects implicit use of irony. It is mainly expressed (except in Text 1) through rhetorical questions, metaphors, honorifics (pretended praise to victim) etc. In English, the attitude is more explicit: no metaphors or honorifics are used. Instead, victims are named and ironised directly. Among the devices used are parallel structure, overstatement, adjectives and adverbs.

Although I labelled the Arabic texts as argumentative, in the discussion above, the province shows that evaluativeness creeps into them (more explicitly in Text 1). Among the features of evaluativeness is the use of nominal clauses (see Hatim 1989, p. 25), parallel structure, chains of collocational cohesion and cumulation. English, on the other hand uses an argumentative structure such as pretended advice to the victim.

On the participation level, the writer/reader relationship in English shows symmetric/asymmetric and informal features. Several implicit devices are used: connotation, exophoric reference, contractions and hypothetical modals, pretended advice to the public, stylistic placing and internal contradiction, personal pronouns and use of performative verbs. Arabic on the other hand, has shown signs of aurality: particularly in Text 1, where random address to the victim and inconsistent use of pronouns is detected. In the remaining texts, Arabic resorted to the use of first person plural, frequency of use of two and three dots and rhetorical questions. The first person plural reflects solidarity. The abundant use of the pronoun serves to distance the writer and the readers from the victim, while the use of pun, cliché and circular address suggests asymmetry in the social role relationship.
CHAPTER 6

STRATEGIES FOR TRANSLATION

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, strategies about the translation of various devices were suggested and justified in line with the argument and the results of the analysis. In other words, they relied on the conclusion drawn from original texts and not on strategies used by professional translators in the topic at hand.

I will now suggest strategies for the translation of the remaining English devices into Arabic. However, it is important to say that these translations are my suggestions and my aim is to give an ‘exemplified outline’ to prospective translators of this kind of texts, rather than to prescribe rigid ‘know how’ recommendations. This is because irony, once correctly interpreted, is strictly not amenable to one translation, although the languages concerned have established norms, or frameworks, to express it. Throughout the study, I have argued that discourse is the word for the interpretation and translation of irony, given that we have linguistic and cultural gaps that warrant changes on the micro and macro levels (Rosenhouse 1989). The linguistic gaps are in the form of texts’ textures, referred to as lexical, grammatical and graphological devices, while the cultural gaps are in the form of rhetorical devices and texts’ structures.

Aspiring to achieve a functional equivalence, I will deal with the English texts as non-source culture texts which require covert translation (House 1977) based on the unique geographical setting of the source and target text, since target texts tackle Australian politics and politicians. This plays a positive role in the process, due to the common core experience of both languages (Nida 1964). That means, references to historical events pertaining to Australian politics, such as Hewson’s GST, Hawke’s
'by 1990 no child will live in poverty' or Keating's 'this is the recession we had to have'. These would be easily accessible to the Arabic readership, as well as to other language communities, in Australia with the least of intervention, such as an explanation by the translator in the form of a paraphrase or a footnote.

All the devices found in the analysis will be dealt with by way of example/s from the four English texts with my translation into Arabic. They are classified under seven suggested general strategies with different devices coming under the same strategy.

It is also important to point out that the terms form and structure, referred to below, concern only those devices and structural strategies that infer irony. They are the two major notions used in the strategies: form refers to the texture or the linguistic realisation of ironic devices; while structure implies the underlying role that the ironic devices played in the text's development, in addition to their formal ironic meaning. Communicative function, as argued, is the factor that determines the ironic meaning of devices.

Emphasis in the examples and their translations below was placed on the linguistic features reflecting irony only. For full texts, the reader is referred to the original and translated texts in appendices C, D and E. ET and AT are the acronyms for English texts and Arabic texts respectively. The figures following the acronyms indicate the texts' numbers. Roman numerals refer to the sequences of the text, while utterances are indicated by cardinal numbers. For a definition of the functional meaning of the devices in the examples below, refer to Chapter 4. For an explanation and justification of the components that constitute irony in the English devices, refer to Appendix B.
6.2. Strategies

6.2.1 Translating by Using Similar Form

In the following examples, the communicative function can be transferred from English into Arabic using the same form. Similar formal strategies should be followed whenever matching formal devices that have equivalent ironic impact exist. The examples below include rhetorical, grammatical and lexical devices.

Internal contradiction:
Example: ET 2, V/20, 22
Using similar parallel structure on the word level:

- Source Text (ST): ... Keating has insisted that the Australian public expects ... But the Australian public also expects its Government to put ...
- Target Text (TT): ... 'āṣarra Keating 'alā al-qawli 'anna al-sha‘ba al-'uṣṭārālī yantazīru .. lākinna al-sha‘ba al-'uṣṭārālī yantazīru 'aydān min ḥukūmatihi 'an tādā'a ...
- Back Translation (BT): ... Keating insisted on saying that the Australian public expect ... but the Australian public also expects its Government to put ...

Irony displayed:
Example: ET1, VIII/19-20

- ST: A Newspoll opinion poll showed ... that just 5% of people ... the reason is that most people don’t know him.
- TT: 'ażhara mu’ashširu 'istitlā‘i al-rā‘ī ... 'anna 5 bi-al-mi‘atī mina al-nāsī faqāt ... wa-al-sabābu 'anna mu‘ẓama al-nāsī lā ya‘rifūnahu.
- BT: A Newspoll opinion poll showed ... that 5% of people only ... the reason is that most people don’t know him.
Indirect condition: The use of if-clause.
Example: ET1 VII/16; XVI/38

- ST: If that wasn’t enough ...; If the Liberals really want...
- TT: 'idhā lam yakun dhālika kāfiyan ...; 'idhā 'arāda al-'aḥrāru fi'lan...
- BT: If that wasn’t enough ...; If the Liberals really want...

Misrepresentation:
Example: ET3, VII/26

- ST: [John Howard] is the obvious choice ...
- TT: ... huwa al-khayāru al-'akīdu ...
- BT: he is the definite choice.

Understatement:
Example: ET3, XIII/47

- ST: In a profession not normally noted for an over-abundance of ...
- TT: fī mihnatin ghayra mashhūratīn'ādatan bi-wafratī wujūdi ...
- BT: In a profession not normally noted for an abundance of...

Post modification:
Example: ET3, XI/41

- ST: ... with a reputation as a student activist ... and on television ...
- TT: ... bi-sum'atihi ka-ṭalibin nāshīt ... wa-'alā al-televizūn ...
- BT: ... with his reputation as a student activist ... and on television...

Focusing subjunct:
Example: ET4, IV/6

- ST: ... before they are even disclosed.
- TT: ... hattā qabla al-i'lanī 'anhā:
- BT: ... even before they are disclosed.
Figurative language:
Example: ET1, I/1

- ST: ... one of the **golden rules** of politics.
- BT: One of the **golden rules** of politics.

6.2.2 Translating by Using Different Form

This is the most employed strategy. Based on the findings, this strategy involves using the same rhetorical devices into Arabic but with different grammatical and lexical forms. English grammatical, lexical and graphological devices also warrant formal changes into Arabic. All formal changes are required due to mismatches on the functional level. However, the structures or the discursive progressions of the utterances and sequences remain the same.

Antithesis:
This involves using an Arabic antithesis with the same communicative function as the English source text but with a lexical change. This is achieved by shifting the impact in the Arabic translation from a linguistic parallel structure to colloquial metaphors and synonyms.

Example 1: ET1, I/1-2:

- ST: It is an almost **fail-safe** way of **defusing an issue**. ... it may **reveal the truth**.
- TT: Translation: ... *fa-dhālika kafīlun bi-tamyī‘i al-mawṣū‘i wa-tan-wīmihi* ...
  *kashfī ma‘āmirihā.*
- BT: ... for this will **take care of dissolving** the matter and **put it to sleep** (sending it into oblivion)...**revealing its hidden secrets**.
Example 2: ET4, I/1:

- ST: Paul Keating must be **blessed**.
- TT: ’*ina ḥazza Paul Keating mina al-samā’*
- BT: Paul Keating’s chance is from **heaven**.

Use is made of an idiomatic expression: *hazz mina al-sama’*

Example 3: ET4 XIV/21

- ST: Luck and sleight-of-hand...
- TT: ’*ina al-ḥazza wa- la’iba al-thalāthi waraqāti...*
- BT: Luck and playing the three cards [gamble]... Using an idiomatic expression: *la’ibu al-thalathī waraqat:* playing the three cards.

**Near-synonymy:** ET1, III/5

- ST: an **expert** ... the **champion**.
- TT: ’*aḥad khubarā’ i... ’aḥfāl.*
- BT: one of the **experts** ... **champions**.

Grammatical change from singular to plural is required to give the sense of exaggeration. In Arabic, the singular form, ‘an expert’, would not have the double meaning (con man), while the singular form of, ‘the champion’, has a literal meaning only, given that Arabic does not use the definite article ‘the’ as an emphatic marker.

**Praising in order to blame:**

Example 1: ET1, III/5

- ST: Collins is an expert, in fact **the** champion.
- TT: *Collins huwa ’aḥad khubarā’ aw bi-al-’aḥrā’ ’aḥfāl ....*
- BT: Collins is **one of** the experts **or rather** the heroes of...

Grammatical and lexical changes: the English emphatic definite article ‘the’ becomes ‘one of’ (see above example), because the use of *al*: ‘the’ in Arabic would have a literal meaning only. Given the importance of the linkage system in Arabic, the coordinating particle replaces the comma in this instance: ‘rather’ is used for the expression
'in fact' to preserve the overstatement of the utterance. *lā bal:* not only that but ... is an Arabic expression that could equally convey the same meaning.

Example 2: ET4, VI/9

- **ST:** And when a natural diversion doesn’t materialise ... he creates one.

- **TT:** *wa-*idhā lam *tabdū fī al-*ufuqi 'ayyatu 'awāmiila ṭabi’īyyatin... 'ya’madu 'īla khalqi wāḥidatin.*

- **BT:** And if no natural factors appear in the horizon ... he intentionally creates one.

In this instance, to render the criticism explicit, i.e. to eliminate straight interpretation, dummy verb expressing attitude: ‘*ya’madu*’: intentionally, is used with a verbal noun of the original verb: *khalqi*: creation.

Use is also made of an idiom of similar meaning: *tabdū fī-al-*ufuqi: diversion ... materialise.

**Overstatement:**

Example 2: ET3, I/8:

- **ST:** However, it must be obvious to even the most thick-headed of them ...
  anathema.

- **TT:** *wa-*ašbahi al-*mas’alatu wādiḥatan ka-‘ayni al-*shamsi ḥattā li-*aktharihim ghabā’an ... la-*natu al-la’anāti:*

- **BT:** the matter becomes clear like the [eye of the] sun even to the most stupid of them ... the anathema of anathemas.

Lexical change: use of root-echo:*la’natu al-la’anāti*, idiomatic expression:*ka’aayni al-*shamsi*, and equivalent verbal noun: *ghabā’an.*

**Misrepresentation:**

Example 1: ET3, VII/26 and 29:

- **ST:** John Howard, the most experienced and effective performer in the Coalition, ... Howard’s problem is that he is almost as closely identified with the hard-Right policies of John Hewson as Hewson himself.
• TT: ... John Howard, 'aktharu al-mumaththilīna khibratan wa-fa'ālīyyatan fī al-ta'ālufi... al-mushkilatu 'anna Howard maḥṣūbun 'alā siyāsāti Hewson al-yamīniyyati al-mutahājjarati mithla Hewson tamāman:

• BT: ...John Howard, the performer with the most experience and effectiveness in the Coalition ... The problem is that Howard is identified with Hewson’s hard-Right policies as Hewson exactly.

Lexical change: substitution of adjectival compound word with two adjectives due to word order restrictions, and using an Arabic political cliche: maḥṣūbun ‘alā: identified with [lit. subservient of].

Grammatical change: replacing the reflexive pronoun ‘himself’ with the Arabic adverb ‘tamāman’ ‘exactly’, expresses the writer’s opposing attitude.

Example 2: ET3, VIII/33

• ST: If the Liberals want to shoot themselves in both feet then ...

• TT: wa-‘idhā 'arāda al-'aḥraru al-'iniḥāra, fa-mā 'alayhim siwā ...

• BT: If the Liberals want to commit suicide, all they have to do is [lit. they would not need anything but] ...

An idiomatic expression is reduced to figurative expression. Grammatical shift is required to convey the same meaning: the adverb ‘then’ is replaced by a pretended advice to the victim in the form of negation/exception particle: siwā..

Understatement:

Example 1: ET1, VI/15

• ST: ... No-one could ever accuse Fahey of adopting Metherell-like tactics.

• TT: ... wa-huwa bi-hādhā ba‘īdun kullu al-bu‘di ‘an ‘uslūbi Terry Metherell al-tayyibi al-dhikri.

• BT: ... thus, he is far from being identified with Terry Metherell’s style, bless his memory, [lit. of blessed memory].

There is shift of irony from word compound to idiomatic expression involving root
echo: baʿidun kulla al-buʿdi: he is far, and cultural adjective: al-ṭayyibi al-dhikri: ‘bless his memory’.

Example 2: ET3, IX/38
• ST: Flexible is not a word that comes readily to mind when one thinks of Senator Bishop.
• TT: ... fa-al-luyūnatu laysat mina al-ṣifātī allatī tataḥallā biḥā Bronwyn Bishop.
• BT: ... for flexibility is not a quality that Bronwyn Bishop is characterised by.

The stylistic restrictions in Arabic necessitate formal shifts. A conjunction ‘for’ is added for coherence; the adjective is replaced by a noun: ‘flexibility’, and a formulaic collocation: quality/characterised replaces the idiomatic expression ‘word ... mind’.

Example 3: ET3, XII/45
• ST: Warwick Smith, a name I must confess is not yet in the household category...
• TT: Warwick Smith, ʾismun bi-ṣaraḥatin lam yadkhul ʿilā qulūbi al-nāṣi baʿd ...
• BT: Warwick Smith, a name that, frankly, hasn’t entered the hearts of people yet...

Use is made of an idiom of similar meaning and a formula that reflects the writer’s doubt about the subject’s qualification, i.e. the adverb bi-ṣaraḥatin: ‘frankly’ instead of the expression ‘I must confess’ which doesn’t convey the intended meaning in Arabic.

Parallel structure:

Example: ET1, XIII/32 & 33
• ST: The last thing ... The second last thing ... stories about Fahey ready to take over as an ambitious and upwardly mobile deputy.
• TT: 'inna ākhira mā yurīduhu ...wa-aktharu min dhālika ...taḥaffuzi Fahey

• BT: ... the **preparedness** of Fahey to take over the post of deputy Leader and his **greed** to **move up to the helm** of Premiership.

Shifting irony to exaggerated adjectives with grammatical and lexical change to ‘ready’: preparedness. The English construction ... stories about Fahey ready: ... *qiṣaṣin ḥawla isti’dādi Fahey: ... Fahey’s readiness cannot be matched in Arabic. Syntactically, the postmodifier ‘ready’ cannot be used in such construction. A premodifier adjectival noun ‘readiness’ should be used instead. Moreover, the word ‘ready’ lacks, contextually, the connotative force it has when translated as such into Arabic, hence the lexical change to a metaphoric verbal noun: *taḥaffuzi: preparedness.*

Lexically also, use is made of ‘his greed’ instead of ‘ambitious’, and the idiomatic expression: *‘ila suddati al-ri‘āsati:* to the helm of the Premiership [lit. presidency] to express the opinion of the writer and also indirectly the attitude of the Premier, Greiner (refer to ET1, XIII/32).

**Formulæ:**

Example: ET3, I/5

• ST: Do me a favour!

• TT: *li-allāhi darrukum!*

• BT: How excellent you [pl.] are! (Literally: Your achievement is due to God).

Use is made of cultural formulæ.

**Gradation:**

Example: ET3, II/9

• ST: Those who have doubts might try to imagine the **devastation** ...

• TT: *wa-‘idhā kāna laḍā al-ba‘du shūkūkun ḥawla dhālika , fa-bi-‘imkānihim ‘an yataṣawwarū al-hāzīmata...*
• BT: And if some of them have doubts about that, [thus] they can imagine the
defeat ...

Grammatically, the statement becomes conditional in order to make the link with the
writer’s previous statement explicit, that is, ‘and if some of them have doubts about
that [what I have just said]’. As observed in the Arabic analysis (cf. AT3, V/11 and
VI/13), a conditional sentence is commonly used in commentary texts for interper-
sonal aims: here a pretended advice to the victim.

Lexically, substituting the exaggerated noun with a familiar noun which is part of a
collocation used in politics/battles etc.: muniya bi-hazīmatin: suffered a defeat.
Although the emphatic part is missing, i.e. muniya, the native reader will make the
link, hence the inference.

Stylistic placing:

Example 1: ET3, II/11

• ST: ...should go and go quickly.
• TT: ...‘alayhi ‘an yarḥala al-‘anī.qabla al-ghad:
• BT: ...he must go right now [literally: now before tomorrow].

The fixed expression in English is matched with another idiomatic expression.

Example 2: ET3,VII/30

• ST: He may, however, be able to discard the dead weight of the industrial rela-
tions baggage ... and present himself as a born-again moderate.
• TT: lakinnahu ma’a dhālika qādirun ‘alā al-takhallusī mina al-wathīqati al-‘afīna
li-al-‘alāqāti al-ṣīnā ṭiyātī ...wa-’an yuqaddima nafsahu ka-tā‘ibin jadīdīn
min taṭarrufīhī ...
• BT: However, he may be able to discard the rotten industrial relations document ...

and present himself as a new repentant from his extremism.

Irony embedded in the English idiomatic expression is paraphrased (Baker, 1992):
the two plays on words ‘baggage’ for ‘package’ and ‘moderate’ for ‘Christian’, and
the compound-word ‘born-again’ are neutralised in Arabic because no matching plays on words exist and the compound word is culture specific.

Fallacious reasoning:
Example: ET4, I/1
• ST: Keating must be blessed ...
• TT: 'inna ḥażza Keating mina al-samā’...
• BT: Keating’s luck is from heaven ...
A cultural Arabic religious idiom is used.

Pretended encouragement to the victim:
Example: ET4, XII/18
• ST: ... and there IS a chance you can do it.
• TT: ... wa-yābdū 'anna hūnāka 'amalun fī dhālika ...
• BT: ... and it seems there is a chance for that [that could be done]...
Replacing a graphological device and second person with a verb and demonstrative noun respectively. IS in capital letters emphasises doubt; yābdū: ‘it seems’ communicates doubt to compensate for the lack of capital letters in Arabic. Faithful translation of ‘you can do it’ will have a literal meaning, hence the use of a reference ‘that’.

Semotactic anomalies:
Example 1:ET2, II/5
• ST: These considerations may suggest that there is a certain science involved ...
• TT: 'inna jamī’a hāḍhihi al-’i’tibārātī ṭaftariqū ḥisābātin ‘īlmiyyatin daqīqatin
• BT: ... All these considerations suggest that there are accurate scientific calculations ...
Exaggerated lexical devices are used in the form of a metaphor and additions to convey the intended contrasts.
Example 2: ET3, VII/27

- ST: ...when he filled in for Dr Hewson who thought *Hey Hey It's Thursday Night* was a better medium to sell his complex policies.

- TT: ...حَنَّاء نَابَة اَنَّ دِرِّ هِوْسُن الْ-لَادِحِي رَأْيَا انْنَا هِيََّ هِوْسُن الْ-ثْنَاَيْيِن لَا تَشْتَكِيلُونْ اَنَا لِهَنَا لِهَيْا الْ-ثْنَاَيْيِن لَا تَشْتَكِيلُونْ اَنَا لِهَنَا لِهَيْا الْ-ثْنَاَيْيِن L-taswīqi siyāsatihi al-
mu'aqqadati.

- BT: ...when he replaced Dr. Hewson who thought that *Hey Hey It's Thursday Night* is a better medium to market his complex policies.

An equivalent political collocation is used.

Chain of collocational cohesion:

Example: ET3, I/1,2,3,4,5

- ST: losing elections ... stupid decisions ... worst defeat ... continue in the same vein ...!

- TT: haza'имихим fi-al-'intikhabati ... qarārātin hamqā'a ... 'aswa'a hazīmatin ...

- BT: their defeats ... stupid decisions ... the worst decision ... going ahead on the same dead end [road]!

Matching Arabic idiomatic expressions are used.

Repetition:

Example: ET3: VIII/32; IX/34

- ST: At the other end of the risk spectrum ...; In the same high-risk category....

- TT: wa-'alā al-ṭarfī al-'ākhari li-lā'iḥati al-khaṭari; wa-fī nafsi darajati al-

- BT: ...and on the other end of the danger list, and at the same risk level.

Spectrum and category are 'dead' metaphors (Newmark, 1988) matched with equivalent metaphors in Arabic.
Lexical choice:

Example 1: ET2, I/1

• ST: taunt
• TT: *jumlatihi al-sākhirati al-shahīrati*
• BT: [his] famous ironic sentence. ‘Taunt’ is not lexicalised in Arabic, hence the use of a paraphrase.

Example 2: ET4, XII/18

• ST: ... to inspire us
• TT: *li-yughrinā*
• BT: to seduce [attract] us

There is an explicit ironic marker in Arabic.

Figurative language:

Example 1: ET4, VII/11

• ST: ... rely on the wind of good fortune:
• TT: ... *al-i’timāda ‘alā dulābi al-ḥazzi:*
• BT: Relying on the wheel of fortune

An idiom of similar meaning is used.

Example 2: ET4, III/4

• ST: He was receiving a hammering...
• TT: ... *fa-qad kāna yatalaggā al-ḍarabāti yamnatan wa-yasratan ...*
• BT: ... he was receiving blows [from the] right and left ...

Irony becomes more explicit using an idiomatic expression.

Example 3: ET1, V/13

ST: an unlikely Rambo.
TT: *al-ladhi lā ... ‘Antara*
BT: who ... ‘Antara [bin Shaddad].
Use is made of a cultural reference. ‘Antara is an ancient Arab warrior and poet who lived in the sixth century and was known for his courage and strength.

Example 4: ET1, XIII/32
• ST: The last thing Nick Greiner, recovering from an ICAC inquiry, needs is ... sitting on the back bench fuming.
• BT: The last thing Nick Greiner, who is still in the stage of recovery following the ICAC inquiry, is ... sitting on the back bench burning with rage.

Equivalent idiomatic expressions are used.

Example 5: ET2, I/2
• ST: weather a stream of unflattering economic news.
• TT: tuwājihu duf'ata 'anbā'in 'iqtišādiyyatin baghīdatin:
• BT: face a number of loathsome economic news.

The understatement ‘unflattering’ has no equivalent in Arabic, hence it becomes explicit opinion.

Modality/adverb:
Example: ET4, II/3
• ST: magically
• TT: wa-bi-sihri sāhirin:
• BT: and with the magic of a magician.

An adverb is replaced with an idiomatic expression.

Idiomatic expression:
Example 1: ET3, V/20
• ST: holy writ
• TT: quds al-muqaddasāt.
• BT: the Holy of Holiest

An idiom of similar meaning is used.

Example 2: ET4, III/4
• ST: “big brother”
• TT: “al-ḥākim bi-ʿamrihi”
• BT: “autocrat”

A political idiom of similar meaning is used.

Personification:
Example: ET4, XIV/21
• ST: Luck and sleight-of-hand ... will not deliver you ...
• TT: ‘inna al-ḥāzza wa-ʾitqāna al-thalātha waraqātin lan yuksībā Keating...
• BT: Luck and mastering the three card game will not benefit Keating...

Use is made of an idiom of similar meaning and a straight translation of ‘deliver’ because it has no metaphorical meaning in Arabic in this context. In Arabic commentary, it is uncommon to attack someone in direct speech, that is, using ‘you’; it is mainly used in personal correspondence, such as, replies to letters to the editor.

Embedding:
Example: ET1, II/4
• ST: (an old chestnut).
• TT: (wa ḥiyā mishmishatun qadīmatun).
• BT: (and it is an old apricot).

An idiom of similar meaning is used.
**Conjunction of supposition:** ET1, VII/16

- **ST:** If that wasn’t enough ...
- **TT:** laidha hadhā fa-ḥasb bal ’anna ...
- **BT:** Not only that, but ...

A formulaic expression with similar meaning is used.

**Reference:** ET3, I/2

- **ST:** That’s easy.
- **TT:** al-jawābu basīqun:
- **BT:** The answer is simple.

Reference is made explicit. In Arabic ‘that’ in such condensation form is not used. Instead, either ‘al-ʾamru’ in al-ʾamru sahlu or ’al-ʾamru’ in al-ʾamru basīqun are used as the linguistic equivalents for the demonstrative pronoun. Given the ironic context and the preceding statement/question, using an explicit marker transfers the inference of the source language to an embedded statement, that is, ‘It doesn’t need a genius to know the answer’.

**Condition and contrast**

Example: ET1, VIII/18

- **ST:** Still, if nothing else, these extra challenges should raise Fahey’s profile.
- **TT:** wa-ʾalʾankā min dhālika,ʾanna kullā hadhīhi “al-taḥaddiyati” al-iḍāfiyyati allātī sa-yataḥammaluhā Fahey sa-tuʾaddī li-rafʾi shaʿbiyyati.
- **BT:** And worse than that, all these extra “challenges” that Fahey will be holding will raise his popularity.

Implicit doubt and fear of the outcome in the English text is translated as explicit fear and disapproval into Arabic using a fixed expression.
Adjunct adverbs:
Example: ET4, II/2

- ST: When the worst ... were released ...
- TT: 'idh 'annahu ma'a ṣudūri 'aswa'...
- BT: for as the worst ... were released.

‘When’ means in this context: ‘at the time that’ and ‘as the’, thus it reflects simultaneity of events. In Arabic its equivalent is: ma'. The use of ‘for’ is for linkage purposes.

Superlative:
Example: ET3, I/8

- ST: ...the most thick-headed of them ...
- TT: ...li-aktharihim ghabā'an
- BT: ... the most stupid of them ...

A verbal noun with similar meaning is used.

Inversion/cleft sentences:
Example 1: ET1, X/26

- ST: All it needs is a backbencher to move for a spill of the deputy leadership and Collins will be history.
- TT: ...fa-kullu mā yaqtaṣḥhi al-'amru huwa muṭālabatu 'aḥadi nuwwābi al-'aḥrāri bi-'iqālatihi ḥanā yuṣbīḥa Collins fī khabari kāna.
- BT: ... for all it needs is a Liberal MP calling for his resignation and Collins will be history ([lit.] will become the predicate of was).

The English fixed expression has no equivalent in Arabic, while the metaphor has an equivalent fixed expression, hence the changes.

Example 2: ET2, V/23

- ST: Given the precarious state of the economy, right now value for money in the political context means an election that is held sooner rather than later.

• BT: Briefly, the pathetic economic situation requires calling insistently for an election today rather than tomorrow.

Following the Arabic conclusions in this text-type, the reasoning past participle ‘Given’ is replaced with a formula ‘briefly’. The euphemistic opinion marker ‘precarious’ is substituted with an explicit equivalent ‘pathetic’. The fixed expression ‘value for money’ has no equivalent use in Arabic, thus the adjectival adverb ‘insistently’, while the idiomatic expression is matched with its equivalent.

**Use of double dashes:**

Example 1: ET2, II/6

• ST: - which would have caught ... peddling ... changes on the run during the campaign -

• TT: - allānh kana yumkunu ‘an tufāji’a ... taswīqi ... al-taghyūrāt ‘ala al-māshi khilāla al-ḥamlati -

• BT: - which would have surprised ... marketing ... changes on the walk during the campaign -

English fixed expressions are reduced to metaphor and equivalent fixed expression respectively.

Example 2: ET2, II/9

• ST: ... it is anybody’s guess what date will best serve - or do the least harm -

• TT: ... ḥattā yakūn fi-‘ilmi al-ghaybi matā yakūnu al-maw’īdu al-asfālu-aw ‘alā al-aqāli al-akhaḥfuf ḍararan -

• BT: ... it will be a divination when is the best date - or, at the lowest estimate, the less harmful [one]-

The English idiomatic expression, ‘anybody’s guess’, is replaced with matching idiomatic expression and embedded remark emphasised with the use of opinion marker
‘at the lowest estimate’ due to the use of comparative ‘less’ rather than the superlative ‘least’ and due to the unavoidable syntactic change in previous sentence.

Quotation marks:
Example: ET4, III/4

* ST: ... “big brother” tactics.
* TT: ... “dawri al-ḥākimi bi-ʾamrihi”.
* BT: ... “the role of a dictator”.

Quotation marks are used while the idiomatic expression is reduced to sense.

6.2.3 Translating by Using Different Structure and Form

In this strategy, the ironic inference is achieved through changes to both surface realisation levels: form and text structure. Topic shift and elimination of parallel structure which imply irony are two examples of the suggested structural change. Shift from singular to plural, and using exaggerated adjectives or culture-specific idioms are, as demonstrated in the above strategies, examples of the grammatical and lexical changes.

Overstatement:
Example: ET3, VII/26:

* ST: ... the most experienced and effective performer.
* TT: ... al-mumathhilu al-ʾakhiru khibratan wa- faʾāliyyatan.
* BT: ... the performer with the most experience and effectiveness.

Adjectives become nouns, due to the word order restrictions in Arabic.

Pretended ignorance, Parallel structure (paragraph level):
Example: ET1, sequence 1

* ST: When you are in trouble ... fail-safe way of defusing an issue ... deep, deep,
* TT: mina al-qawā'īdī al-dhahabiyyatī ... tamyī'ī al-mawḍū'ī wa-tanwīmihi ... al-faḍā'īha al-rannānati ... 'idhā bulūyta bi-al-ma'āṣī fa-'istikīrū ... kashfī maṭāmīrīhā.

* BT: One of the golden rules ... defusing the issue and putting it to sleep ... huge scandals ... “if you committed a sin, hide away” ... revealing its hidden secrets.

There is substitution of parallel structure, compound word, italics, modal verbs and second person singular with nominalisation, overstatement, adjectives, cultural proverb and passive third person respectively (see appendix E for full translation).

These changes were required due to the fact that direct address is, as discussed, not familiar in political commentary texts in Arabic and also because introductory utterances/sequences in Arabic, as shown in the texts used in the study, tend to use a general thesis (cf. AT3: wa-bāta al-ṣinā'iyyūn: Industrialists become; AT1: bi-al-nisbatī li-al-makhluq al-basharī: as far as the human being is concerned; hence the obligatory structural change to the first sentence. The change of parallel structure is due to change in punctuation and lexical items.

**Misrepresentation:**

Example: ET3, IX/38

* ST: **Flexible** is not a word ... when one thinks of ...

* TT: fa-lā 'aḥada yumkinu hu 'ittīḥāma ... bi-al-luyūnati.

* BT: for no-one could accuse ... of flexibility.

There is shift of irony from noun to colloquial idiomatic expression, and from cleft-sentence to understatement using the cohesive conclusive and causative fa.

**Parallel structure:**

Example 1: ET3, I/1,2 & 3

Shift of irony to explicit unmarked structure, that is, question/answer in line with the Arabic preference of enchanting the readership and calling for their early agreement
Example 2: ET2, II/5
On the utterance level:

- **ST:** These considerations may suggest that there is a certain science ... in fact there is as much alchemy as anything else.
- **TT:** yabdu 'anna jamī 'a hādhihi al-'i'tibārī tafiaīdu hisābātin daqīqatan ...
- **BT:** All these considerations suggest accurate calculations ...

Alchemy is a scientific word which is not used metaphorically in Arabic. Hence the neutralisation of the utterance and the omission of the parallel structure.

Example 3: ET3, VIII/32, IX/34
Textually on the sequence level: diffusing the parallel structure by using a variety of devices in line with Arabic grammatical and lexical restrictions.

- **ST:** At the other end of the risk spectrum is Peter Keaston Reith ... In the same high-risk category is Senator Bronwyn Bishop.
- **TT:** wa-‘alā al-țaraft al-‘akhari li-lā ‘iḥatī al-kaṭari hunāka Peter Keaston Reith ... wa-fī nafsi darajati al-kuṭurati ta‘ī al-sinātūra Bronwyn Bishop.
- **BT:** And on the other end of the danger list there is Peter Keaston Reith... And on the same risk level comes Senator Bronwyn Bishop.

In the source text, two cleft sentences are used in both utterances focusing on the risk factor in choosing either politicians as successor of the opposition leader. In Arabic, the parallel structure is not employed due to collocational restriction, lā’iḥa ‘list’ collocates with the verb ya‘ī ‘comes’ rather than the verb huwa ‘is’, which is also ungrammatical. The same rule applies in the first utterance where in Arabic the use of hunāka ‘there is’ is dictated by the use of ‘a place’ in the preceding sentence, i.e. the list. huwa: ‘is’, is used for description or emphasis in Arabic.

The irony in the parallelism and the dead metaphors ‘spectrum’ and ‘category’ (see ‘repetition’ in strategy 2 above) in English are reduced to equivalent metaphors ‘khaṭar’/‘kuṭūra’ into Arabic. The reason I opted for khaṭar and not mujāzafā (both
mean risk and could apply here) is that the latter has no connotative exaggerated meaning.

**Indirect appeal:**

Example: ET1, sequence I

- **ST:** When *you* are in trouble ...
- **TT:** *ladā wujūd faḍīḥatin mā ...*
- **BT:** ... when there is [lit. upon the existence of] a scandal ...

There is substitution of second person singular with *masdar*: verbal noun. (see translation in appendix E).

**Cleft-sentence:**

Example: ET4, V/7

- **ST:** What Mr Hewson’s strategy was is *anybody’s guess*, ...
- **TT:** *mā hiya khīṭatu al-doctor Hewson min warāʾi dhālika? allāhu waḥdahu yaʿlam!...*
- **BT:** What was Doctor Hewson’s plan *behind this? God only knows!*

Use is made of an addition, question/answer and cultural idiom.

### 6.2.4 Substitution

This is translating by using different form with different meaning to maintain the irony of the original through communicative equivalents.

**Overstatement:**

Example: ET4, VII/12

- **ST:** ... a *maestro* of *manipulation*
- **BT:** ... *‘ashhara ʿāshara al-iba al-kashāḥībin.*

‘Maestro’ has no expressive meaning in this context, thus it is paraphrased, while ‘manipulation’ is replaced by a fixed expression that usually conveys inherent irony.
Understatement:

Example: ET1, IV/8

• ST: The end of John Fahey’s week can’t have been so rosy. A former partner of Marsden’s, Fahey is about to wade into a mudfield full of unexploded mines.


• BT: And there he is, the old partner of Marsden, receiving the good news to enter a mine field full of scandals.

Irony is shifted because of the structural change to sequences III, IV and V which are joined in one paragraph in Arabic for fluency reasons, using explicit connectives such as ‘wa’ and ‘idh’: for. The deixis ‘hā’ functions as a notification particle which, in the Arabic style, imparts criticism of the noun it refers to when used thematically on its own, i.e. not linked, e.g. dhā > hādhā : this. The understatement here becomes an internal contradiction: good news / entering a mine field.

Repetition:

Example 1: ET1, VI/15

• ST: Green paper, white paper, lots of paper.

• TT: ’awrrāqun min mukhtalafī al-alwānī wa-al-‘aḥjāmī taṭallabahā i’dādu hādhā al-taqrīr:

• BT: Papers of all sorts of colours and sizes were required to prepare this report.

Exaggeration is emphasised in an absurd overstatement and an explicit explanatory sentence is used instead of the implicit contextual / structural meaning, i.e. that can only attract ironic meaning from the previous sentence, ‘Fahey took three years to get his industrial relations legislation.’

Example 2: ET2, first paragraph

• ST: THE (sic) advantage ... The disadvantage
• TT: ʾamāma Keating khayārayni: ʾimmā ... aw.

• BT: Keating has two choices: either ... or ...
This structural change was made following a change to the introduction. In Arabic, a short thesis has to be cited to set the tone of the argument (cf. four Arabic texts in Appendix C). The short thesis used in translation comes in the form of a summary to the long thesis in sequence one, followed by substantiating statements which involves explicit argumentative cohesive markers such as: fa-rughma: for although ... fa-ʾinna: thus; ʾammā ... fa: as for ... lākinna: but.

Modality/adverbs:
Example 1: ET1, VI/15
• ST: no-one could ever accuse ...
• TT: wa-bi-hādhā huwa baʿdun kulla al-buʿdi ...
• BT: and by this he is very far from [i.e. different to] ...
Understatement using an adverb is replaced by a pretended agreement with the victim using a fixed expression. Both the original and the translation violate Grice’s maxim of manner.

Example 2: ET2, II/5
• ST: These considerations may suggest ...
• TT: yabdū ʾanna jamīʿa hādhihi al-ʾiṭibārātī taṣfariḍu ...
• BT: It seems that all these considerations suggest ‘Yabdū’: ‘it seems’ is a gambit commonly used in Arabic commentaries to express certainty rather than doubt.

Compound words:
Example: ET1, I/1
• ST: It is an almost fail-safe way of defusing an issue.
• TT: ... fa-dhālika kafīlun bi-tamyīʿi al-mawdūʿi wa-tanwīmihi ḥattāʾishʿarīn ḍakhar, ....
• BT: This guarantees to dissolve the problem and send it into oblivion until further notice.
Here, the strategy of substituting a compound word with an expressive verbal noun is to use a preferred Arabic explicit and exaggerated criticism rather than a pretended and understated advice to victim.

The use of participle:
Example: ET2, II/6
- ST: **Having** rejected ...
- TT: *fa-bi-rafihi* ...
- BT: ... For by rejecting...

Although participles are used in Arabic, in this instance, the substitution strategy is warranted due to grammatical constraints: the conjunction *'bi'*: ‘by’ is equivalent to having. The coordination article *'fa'*: ‘for’ is used for coherence.

Illative conjunction: ET3, II/9
- ST: ... *if* the economy had been in good **shape**.
- TT: ...*law kāna al-'iqtīsādu bi-ḥālatin jayyidatin.*
- BT: ... *if* the economy had been in a good state.

The collocation economy/shape is not used in Arabic, hence the substitution. Ironic impact remains embedded in the use of the illative conjunction ‘if’.

Reference:
Example 1: ET1, I/1
- ST: ... in **trouble**
- TT: ... *wujūdi faḍīḥatin mā:*  
- BT: ... a scandal that exists

Implicit lexical meaning becomes explicit.

Example 2: ET4, III/4
- ST: ... “**big brother**” tactics.
- TT: ... “*dawri al-ḥākimi bi-'amrihi*”
• BT: ... “the role of a dictator”
A cultural metaphor is replaced by an Arabic equivalent.

Example 3: ET3, XIII/47
• ST: ... the latter.
• TT: ... makhlūqatīn bashariyyatīn.
• BT: ... human beings.
Reference is substituted by the referent.

**Italics:**

Example: ET1, I/2
• ST: ... in deep, deep, deep trouble.
• TT: ... al-faṣā′ihu al-rannānātu
• BT: ... the screaming scandals.

Arabic does not use italics for emphasis, hence the overstatement in an expressive adjective.

**Capitalised word:**

Example: ET4, XII/18
• ST: - and there **IS** a chance that you can do it -
• TT: - wa-yūjada `ālā mā yābdū `āmalun ǧī dhālika -
• BT: - and there is, **it seems**, a chance in that [making it] -

The use of capital letters to emphasise the meaning of astonishment is, as explained earlier, not possible in Arabic. Instead a verb expressing attitude is used.

**6.2.5 Addition to Target Text**

As suggested by the findings, Arabic is more verbal than English and cohesive devices used in Arabic are more explicit than those used in English. The additions
proposed in this strategy are required to give ironic inference. Any other formal change/s that may have ironic impact in the examples below are dealt with in another strategy.

**Antithesis: ET1, III/7**

- **ST:** Having defused a few ... landmines ... [Collins] went to lunch with the president of the Law Society.
- **TT:** māʾan “nawwama” adadan mina al-faḍā’iḥi ... ḥattā dhahaba ‘ilā al-ghadaʾi, maʾa ʿipzarū man? John Marsden:
- **BT:** As soon as he put a few ... scandals to bed, he went to lunch, guess who with? John Marsden.

Addition of question/answer using the 2nd person plural. This is a common strategy in Arabic commentary to involve the audience and call for their agreement.

**Condensation: ET3, I/2&3**

- **ST:** They keep making stupid decisions. Now, after ...
- **TT:** li-ʿannahum yastamirrūna bi-ittikādhi qarārātin ḥamqāʾ. fa-al-ʿān baʿda...
- **BT:** ... because they keep making stupid decisions, for now ...

Ironic intention and assumed link are made explicit through the use of conjunctions. The irony in English stems from the assumption that the first sentence above is an answer to the previous sentence: That’s easy. In Arabic, it is obligatory, in order to have the same equivalent effect, to add the conjunction ‘because’; otherwise the utterance will sound like an incoherent statement with regards to the texture. The same applies to the second conjunction ‘for’.

**Conjunction of supposition: ET1, XVI/38**

- **ST:** If the Liberals ...
- **TT:** khulāṣatu al-qawli ʿannahu ʿidhā ʿarāda al-ʿaḥrāru.
- **BT:** To sum up, if the Liberals ...
Addition of a formula is used to summarise the writer’s opinion explicitly. The referential meaning of the formula, that is, summing up all the political ‘absurd’ considerations to replace the deputy leader of the opposition, imparts its ironic inference.

Free indirect speech:

Example: ET3, XII/45

• ST: ... who, the hard heads in Canberra believe is exactly what the Liberals need.
• TT: ... yarā 'aghbiyā‘u Canberra 'annahu yunaththilu mā yahṭaju hu al-'aḥrāru bi-al-ẓabṭi.
• BT: ... who, the hard heads in Canberra see as representing what the Liberals need exactly.

‘Represents’ could equally be substituted in Arabic by ‘al-shakhṣu alladhī’... ‘the person who the ...’. In both cases the addition is warranted in Arabic to overstate the opinion, that is, saying one thing and meaning the opposite.

6.2.6 Omission or Neutralisation of Source Text’s Ironic Devices

Illative conjunction:

Example: ET1, V/13

• ST: ... [Fahey] an unlikely Rambo, if ever there was one.
• TT: ... al-ladḥī la ʿamuttu li-ʿAntara al-sandīd bi-ṣīlatin.
• BT: ... who does not have any relation with the mighty ‘Antara.

The ‘parenthetic clause’ (in bold) is omitted and the irony in the double understatement: ‘unlikely’ and ‘if ever ...’ is served by the use of one understatement replacing the adjective ‘unlikely’ with a fixed expression: ‘does not have any relation to ...’. This is because the sentence in question suggests that Rambo is fictional which is inconsistent with ‘Antara who is an historic Arab hero.

Modality/adverb

Example: ET1, I/1
• ST: It is an almost fail-safe way of defusing an issue.

• TT: ...fa-dhālika kafilun bi-tamyi‘i al-mawdū‘i wa-tanwīmihi ḥattā ’ish‘arīn 'akhir, ....

• BT: ...this guarantees dissolving the problem and sending it into oblivion until further notice.

The adverb is omitted in order to use an exaggerated and explicit style. The understatement conveyed by the adverb is compensated for by the use of near-synonyms in Arabic: ‘dissolving the problem’ and ‘sending it into oblivion’.

Internal contradiction:
Example: ET1, III/6

• ST: Mud? He doesn’t even know what it is, and if he did, he’s had it dry-cleaned ...

• TT: ...fa-huwa yakhrju mina al-maṭabbāti ka-al-sha’rati mina al-‘ajīn: ...

• BT: ...for he pulls out of pitfalls like a hair from the dough.

Rhetorical question, answer, conditional sentence and statement are reduced to a simple idiomatic expression with equivalent meaning.

Condensation/Aphorism:
Example 1: ET1, XIX/44

• ST: For now.

• TT: fī-al-waqtī al-rāhini ‘alā al-‘aqall:

• BT: At least at the present time.

An Arabic unmarked conclusive device is used here.

Example 2: ET4, VI/8

• ST: All this is a grist to Keating’s mill.

• TT: kullu hādhā yaṣubbu fi maṣlaḥati Keating.

• BT: All this is in Keating’s favour.

The metaphor is reduced to sense (Newmark, 1988).
Climax: ET4, Sequence IX

• ST: ... dried up ... economy's ills worsened ... glimmer of hope.

• TT: ... naqubat ... taṣfūqamat ḥiddatu al-tadāhwuri al-‘iqtiṣādī ... baṣīṣu 'amalin.

• BT: ... the economy's vehemence deteriorated ... a glimmer of hope

Here, there is reduction of the collocation 'economy/ills', which is not used in Arabic, to sense.

6.2.7 Question Becomes Answer/Statement

This is a scarcely used strategy given that Arabic commentary writers employ rhetorical questions abundantly, not to say nonchalantly. This strategy involves paraphrasing explicitly the implicit meaning of the question using idiomatic expressions.

Rhetorical questions:

ET1, III/6

• ST: Mud? He doesn't know what it is,...

• TT: ... fa-huwa yakhruju mina al-maṭabbātī ka-al-sha'ratī mina al-'ajīn.

• BT: ... for he pulls out of pitfalls like a hair from the dough.

A one word question followed by the answer is not a common strategy in Arabic, rather a complete unanswered rhetorical question is used. The word 'pitfalls' replaces 'mud', but impact is shifted to an idiom.

ET3, II/10

• ST: Do they now seriously suggest voters will suddenly forget who designed those policies?

• TT: gharībun 'amruhum! fa-lā yazālu bi-'i'tiqādihim 'anna al-nākhīhīna sawfa yansūna faj'atan muṣammīma tilka al-siyāsātī.

• BT: Strange! They still think that people will suddenly forget who designed those policies.

Rhetorical questions in Arabic are normally used en masse, hammering the reader
with two, three or more questions (cf. Arabic texts 1, 2 and 3). Another feature is that they are mostly used in the end of the paragraphs or form (a) paragraph/s in their own right. In other words, coherence is a major constraint for opting for a statement in this instance, hence the use of a cliché 'gharibun 'amrun hum' which has an equivalent meaning to the underlying meaning: unbelievable! This cliché usually questions the absurdity of others followed by an explanatory statement.

6.3 Conclusion

The above seven strategies evolved from the analyses of Arabic and English texts are general and can, I assume, accommodate various ironic devices from English into Arabic. Opting for narrower strategies, such as, translation by paraphrase or translation using loan words etc., may only be applicable to non-deviant texts where words have identifiable referents. I have argued in this study that finding equivalent translations to ironic utterances/sequences/text cannot be restrictive but rather creative. A competent ‘generalist’ translator or translator of scientific English into Arabic translator may fail to translate irony if they are not risk-takers. Given the nature of the text type, that is, commentaries, and the genre of the text type, that is, irony, the translator must also be an Arabic native speaker who possesses a good literary background in Arabic. The translated examples above coupled with the strategies are guidelines that teachers and students of translation as well as professional translators may find helpful in solving the problems of irony translation.

In brief, irony should not only be considered as a colourful style of writing but also as a discourse building tool. Both the way the message is written and conveyed are interdependent and must be accounted for in translation. Neutralising the irony in the source text, let alone misinterpreting it, runs the risk of imparting a message that is contradictory to the one intended. Creativity, risk-taking, literary and linguistic competence are essential elements in helping achieve equivalent effects in irony translation.
CONCLUSION

This study aimed at finding solutions to the problems of the translation of irony in political commentary texts. The attempt has proved that the translation of irony is as elusive as the concept itself; it has also emphasised, once more, the impossible task of suggesting a prescriptive approach to translation based on the features of any number of texts.

My study started as an exploration into an area which has not been adequately tackled in a linguistic framework either on the individual language analysis level or the translation level. I was faced with a large body of literature on linguistics and translation with relatively little written resources on the specific subject of irony.

The problem was not in choosing the topic of the thesis as much as substantiating my discussion and, to an extent, venturing through linguistics and its sub-disciplines in order to develop a theory or a combination of theories that I could claim to be a possible success for the analysis.

Numerous studies on the translation of Arabic commentaries into English have taken place in recent years. They have mainly tackled the problems of structure, cohesion and coherence, and of visual and aural modes from a discourse and text linguistics standpoint. However, none have dealt with the irony inherent in almost every political commentary and its effect on these texts' linguistics or discursive features, the overall intended meaning, and subsequently, the translation of their irony. Given this, it is important to say that this study is tentative and claims no absolute solution to the infinite problems of translating irony.
As mentioned above, the thesis highlights, once more, the sterility of positing a prescriptive approach to translation. Nevertheless, it suggests a pragmatic model for translating irony in particular. To understand the concept, I relied on writings on literary theory both in Arabic and English. The latter provided a host of detailed classifications which were partly adopted in the study, despite the fact that they took a literary rather than a linguistic standpoint.

Approaching the literary notions of the concept, from a linguistic view, relied on the philosophical linguistic theories of speech acts and conversational maxims, as well as functional theory in order to perceive, interpret and finally describe the ironic devices for the purpose of translation. The literary theory on irony managed to identify what I have called the rhetorical devices, that is, to classify certain phenomena of irony. However, it fell short of giving a comprehensive account of it. Stylistics and Halliday’s functional theory coupled with the philosophical theory were discussed to posit a linguistic explanation of the rhetorical devices and suggest other formal devices of irony, that is, grammatical, lexical and graphological.

Text development is perceived also as an interaction between ironic devices and the rhetorical meaning of the text. Speech act theory combined with the conversational cooperative principle proved to be useful to interpret the sequence meaning where utterance is taken as the smallest unit of meaning in the text. It is worth noting that much has been said about text development in commentaries, and this study particularly concentrates on how ironic devices contribute to the message intended by the writer in such text types.

Once ironic devices are identified and described, and the text’s communicative structure is laid out, a final but important word should be said about the overall meaning, which will test the findings and frame the text. While relying heavily on Halliday’s functional theory, that is, the experiential, interpersonal and textual functions in the
understanding of the meaning of the utterances, three stylistic situational dimensions, namely the province, participation and attitude were adopted to account for the intended meaning of the text. Attitude refers to the writer’s point of view; participation to the social role relationships between writer and readers on the one hand and writer and victim of irony on the other hand; while province refers to the idiosyncratic linguistic and cultural strategies of press commentaries, intertextuality, text type features and to the context of situation. These dimensions are expressed through the texture and structure of the text at hand.

The analysis of eight texts, four Arabic and four English, was then followed by a contrastive analysis. This was meant to point out the similarities and differences with a focus on the latter which, I believe, is the crux of any translation study. The analysis has also proved the necessity of the linguistic approach to translating irony. Arabic and English texts have shown some similar rhetorical, grammatical and lexical use of devices, text strategies and rhetorical meaning. However, the difference was most clear at the level of textual realisation. This was reflected in the discrepancy in the functions and the number of the devices in both languages. These restrictions are, of course, imposed by each language’s repertoire and culture. Thus, the task of finding strategies for translation equivalence becomes a matter of finding equivalent surface realisations that reflect equivalent function. In other words, each language has a preference of usage but both prove to have common features of use.

Based on this, the strategy of translating irony in commentaries must draw on an interactive functional approach to the discourse. Translators ought first to identify the ironic devices in the English text, and then understand the rhetorical meaning of the text through their textual functions and their role in the text’s structure. Secondly they need to match these devices with their Arabic functional equivalent with the focus on preserving the original overall rhetorical meaning and text development strategy. Examples of suggested translation strategies of the devices found in the study are provided in the last chapter.
I believe that the contribution of this study to the literature of translation is threefold: 1) it provides a principled framework for explaining irony from a linguistic standpoint, thus it has its use to translators of irony in various pair of languages; 2) it provides a practical approach to the translation of irony. Although translation examples in the study targeted translation from English into Arabic, professional translators in both directions can apply the suggested model to address the problems of non-equivalence of this form of writing. They are provided with an overall discursive framework through which new formal translation equivalences can be created; 3) it sheds light on an aspect of cross-cultural pragmatics that has not been comprehensively dealt with previously. This also highlights the need for the integration of a set of strategies for the teaching of translation in general and the teaching of irony translation in particular, that is, the teaching of text linguistics, stylistics and discourse analysis, and the application of these analytical theories to a variety of text types, for example commentary texts, academic papers, recipes, medical reports etc. In the case of irony, the appreciation of the 'uniqueness' of textual, structural and discursive features of irony in a certain text type in a pair of languages plays an essential role in proposing general translation strategies.

Given that irony is inherent in a wide range of texts, as discussed in Chapter One, further studies on the translation of irony based on discourse analysis are required in vocative and expressive texts, for example propaganda and popular fiction, and in aesthetic texts such as poetry where balance, rhyme and contrasts (Newmark, 1988) play an important role in the ironic message. I believe the expansion of the study to other text types will be beneficial to: a) language learners who will have at their disposal a scientific approach to the analysis of irony that will enable them to learn how and when it is used in writing; b) translation teachers; various text types use different ironic strategies, hence different translation methods are required, for example, irony used in the political advertisements during election campaigns differ in texture, structure and function from irony employed in novel writing; c) professional translators
who, again, can have practical tools that help them achieve accurate and accessible translations; d) the readers of translated materials who will have access to cross-cultural writings/literature and will appreciate the values of other language/s.

Lastly, it is worth noting that this study focused on translation in an exclusive multicultural society, thus it might be relevant to societies in a similar environment such as USA, England, Canada and others. However, I assume that different translation strategies have to be considered when the target language readers are geographically, that is, politically and culturally, remote from the source text origin.
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**NEWSPAPERS/MAGAZINE**


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

ARABIC TEXTS ANALYSES

Arabic Text 1 (AT1)

BACKGROUND FEATURE ARTICLE

WRITER: RAMI KUROUCH.
TITLE: AL-MUḌḤIK... AL-MUBKĪ?: THE LAUGHABLE TEARFUL [MATTER]

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Parallel structure:

In this text, irony is used in the form of a parallel structure, on the sentence and word levels. Parallelism, following Al-Jabr (1985, p. 198) is an abundant “method of overemphasis in Arabic, and this causes the recurrences of the same theme in the same texts”.

Parallelism on the sentence level found in the text are:

Sequence III/ Utterance7 khashafa lanā bi-dhakā‘i al-mas‘ūlī al-siyāsi al-fāqidi al-
dhakā‘i wa-ghabā‘i al-siyāsī ‘alladhi lā ya‘lūhu ghabā‘...: He unveiled to us the intel-
lligence of an unintelligent responsible...and the unmatched stupidity of a politician...

In this instance, irony is conveyed in the grammatical use of instrumental adjunct: ‘with’ in , bi-dhakā‘i ... wa-ghabā‘i: with the intelligence ... and the stupidity; in the use of reference to the participants, i.e. al-mas‘ūl: the responsible, al-siyāsī: the
politician; and the inclusive ‘us’ which isolates and targets the victim of irony.

The writer’s choice of adjectives such as al-fāqidi: ‘who lacks’, and the negated verbal expression lā-ya‘luhu: ‘nothing would surpass it’ also explicitly express discontent and bitter sarcasm (another form of irony, see discussion on Muecke in Chapter Two).

Interpersonally, this utterance is in the form of a statement conveying personal opinion through the extensive use of adjectives and the repetition of the words sharr, bukā’, ghabā’: evil, crying, stupidity; and the use of a synonym: al-mas‘ūl/al-siyāsī mentioned above.

The above linguistic strategies would have a mere analytical attack had the writer not employed a parallel structure. The linguistic usage was also perceived as ironic because it violates Grice’s conversational maxim of manner by the nonchalant use of adjectives, as well as the maxim of quantity by overstating the utterance.

V/10 la tafrikū “uynakum” wa-lā tamsahū zujājata “al-nazzārati”: don’t rub your “eyes” and don’t wipe the “spectacles”.

The writer literally commands his readers using a second person plural pronoun, and advises a course of action for them using a negated imperative signalling astonishment and disbelief. Lexically, he employs nouns of parts or related to the parts of the body (a common strategy in this text-type in Arabic. Refer to Arabic text 2 and 3.): ‘uyūnākum, al-nazzārati: your eyes, the spectacles; and the use of the typical Arabic metaphoric mode of irony where writers call for the approval of the readers by direct address using the verbs la tafrikū: don’t rub [pl. your eyes], and la tamsahū: don’t wipe [the eyeglasses]. The implied meaning here is: Yes, it’s true, don’t be surprised!

V/12, VI/14 wa-ḥattā ’akūna ūdiqan ... kay ’akūna munṣifan...wa-li-kay ’akūna
...waqiḥan: and to be honest ...to be fair...and to be...blunt;

The repetition on the subjunctive governors ḥattā and kay followed by the same verb in the subjunctive mood infringes the maxim of quantity. In addition, the first two statements are undermined by the third which is considered a breach of the maxim of quality.

V/13 al-qaḍi lan ya’mala ‘akthara min...lan yataqāda akthara min: the judge will not work more than...will not receive more than;

In this instance the ironic emphasis is placed on the the repetition of the comparative structure: ‘akthara min: more than. The utterance infringes the maxim of quality given the contradiction between the understatement/defence of the victim and the understatement of the absurd reality/mismanagement of the victim.

IX/22 ...kam wa-kam min ‘ummāli ...wa-kam wa-kam min al-madārisi...wa-kam wa-kam min ‘asirrati al-maṣahḥāti...: how many workers...how many schools...how many rehabilitation centres’ beds...;

A series of rhetorical questions whereby irony is enhanced by using the same question noun: kam, i.e., the adverb: how; hence infringing the maxim of quantity.

X/23 hal fakkara ... kam faʾiʿin ...wa-hal kallaṣa...kam furṣata...hal ḥasaba ‘adada...: did he think...how many hungry...and did he take the trouble...how many opportunity...did he count the number of....

Similarly to the above utterance, parallel structure here infers irony based on the violation of the maxim of quantity. The writer opts here for the repetition of the question particle hal which is equivalent to the adverb ‘how’ and to the verb ‘to be’ in English.

Parallelism on the word level:

V/12 ḥikmati wa-jadārati wa ghayrati: wisdom, competence and care.
Parallelism is indicated here through two devices: 1) phonological: al-saja' the rhymed prose, and the near-synonymy, i.e. the three expressions. This is considered a flouting of the conversational maxim of quantity, hence its ironic impact.

b) Rhetorical questions:

This device which marks a forceful statement (see Leech & Svartvik 1994) by the writer, is used in both the aural and visual mode of Arabic writing. It does not need an answer but command agreement. In this text, it is employed extensively in a series of ironical questions in the conclusion, VII/19, VIII/20, IX/22, X/23.

Grammatically the use of the question particle kam: 'how' or 'to be' indicates a presupposition, or rather accusation, by the writer, i.e. that there will be further million dollars to be wasted ... and there will be many schools that will be closed etc. . Furthermore the use of the second person plural (inflected) e.g. sa-yughliʔun 'they will close', refers indirectly to the "them against us" strategy in persuasive political argumentation. On the lexical level, naming the participants: Fahey, judge, [the] hungry, workers enforces the writer's criticism of the Premier by discussing two social categories the fortunate, i.e. people in power, affluent etc. and the needy and battler.

The important indication that imparts irony in addition to the linguistic features above is the repetition of the question kam wa-kam ... kam etc. how many and how many ... how much etc. This marks a violation of the maxim of quantity given the number of questions asked in relation to a single topic: a judge will be receiving $9000 in three days work a week?

c) Cumulation:

Cumulation is used to overwhelm and convince the readers. Examples:

Using a string of near-synonymous adjectives. This strategy is frequently used in Arabic prose, but normally is confined to two successive adjectives, hence the inference in this device.

A set of grammatical strategies is used also to further enhance the ironic meaning, that is, 1) the deictic ‘this’ which implies a declarative utterance pointing to the writer’s opinion; 2) the reference ‘behaviour’ which marks a cohesive device referring to Fahey’s mishandling of the ‘Home Fund’ scandal. This reference coupled with the exaggerated understatement of the three adjectives above indicates a violation to the maxim of quantity and manner, given that the sentence is in contradictory distribution with the precedent paragraph.

V/12 li-ḥikmati wa-jadārati wa-ghayrati al-ra‘isi Fahey wa-wa‘yihi al-kāmil: to the wisdom, competence, care and total awareness of Premier Fahey.

This utterance is lexically marked as ironic due to use of morphological parallelism (Emery 1991, p. 3) in an unusual number of successive near synonymous nouns. This indicates an infringement to the maxim of quantity.

d) Antithesis:

The heading and the epigram in I/3: al-mudhiku al-mubkī: ‘the laughable tearful’.

This device could also come under oxymoron, i.e. two striking contradictory words using nominal adjectives. Although the expression is a cliché in Arabic, it infringes the maxim of manner.

III/7 bi-dhakā‘i ... wa-ghabā‘i. with the intelligence ... and the stupidity...

Using instrumental adjunct with two homonymous nouns violates the maxim of manner.
e) Paralinguistic devices:

Used as explicit markers of ironic intentions.

Examples: inverted commas in I/3, V/10, V/13, VIII/21; three dots, which are used nonchalantly by some writers to replace semi-colon while others use it rhetorically to give the prose a ‘philosophical’ meaning and the reader a hint that there are more unsaid about the status quo, as in Ghassan Touweini’s [known Lebanese commentator] writings and as in I/2, III/6, IV/9, IX/22.

f) Pretended encouragement to the victim:

VII/16 hanī‘an lahu bi-hādhihi al-muhimmati: congratulations to him [the judge] on this mission.

In Muecke’s classification of irony, this device could also come under burlesque, that is, treating serious material with ridicule, given the use of an informal cultural expression, hanī‘an: ‘congratulations’ addressed to a ‘judge’. This undermines the ostensible truthfulness of the expression, hence violates the maxim of quality.

g) Understatements:

The device involves the readership in this context by evoking in them an unpleasant feeling about the future of the inquiry into the subject matter: the Home Fund scandal.

V/12,13: wa-ḥattā ‘akūna šādiqan ma‘akum ... lan yataqūdā akthara min 9000 dūlaran ṭusbū‘iyyan: and to be honest with you...he will not receive more than $9000 a week.

A direct assertion to the readers: ‘akūna šādiqan ma‘akum: ‘to be honest with you’, followed by an understatement using a comparative: akthara min: ‘more than’. The experiential meaning of ‘more than’ in the context of criticism is ‘just or only’ which in an informal conversation or writing, such as the text at hand means always
irony. This breaks the maxim of quality with regards to the seriousness of the writer's surface meaning.

II/4 yuḥāwilu 'immā an ... duna murāʾātin li-raddāti al-fī'ī āllān qad tatawalladu ladaynā: trying either to...without any consideration to the reactions that would be generated in u.

The writer's lexical choice: 'consideration', 'reaction, 'generated', depict the reader and himself (inclusive 'we') as guinea pigs. Besides this experiential meaning, the device has textual meaning which stems from the absurd proposition that two idioms are being tested on us by the Premier which violates the maxim of manner.

V/13 lan ya'mala 'akthara min thalāthati 'ayyāmin fī-al-'usbū'ī: he is not going to work more than three days a week.

The conversational maxim of quality is violated given the fallacious defence of the victim when stating that the judge will only work three days a week, following a previous statement in V/11 saying the daily pay will be three thousand dollars a day. The ironic impact is communicated through the use of the adverb 'only' which carries the writer's intention.

h) Overstatement:

The entire text is considered an overstatement as far as the exaggerated style is concerned.

II/5 ẓalāḥīyyātin jammātan: enormous power.

This phrase has to be matched anaphorically and cataphorically with, respectively, 'alā ḥaddi taʿbirīhi (same utterance): according to him, and 'a maqi dawāfiʿī al-fashali (same utterance): 'the depth of the motives of failure'. Thus the inference is intratextual.
V/13 "al-kabīru al-qalbi wa-al-ḏamīri": "the man with the big heart and conscience": Using a collocation: 'big heart'; 'conscience' collocates with 'wide' and not 'big' as the coordinating particle suggests here. The use of the adjective 'big', depicting someone's heart as big and conscience as wide [as intended] in Arabic means praise for having desirable qualities. In this context Fahey does not fit this category in the mind of the writer given 1) the use of inverted commas to emphasise his ironic intention or otherwise to eliminate any doubt from the mind of the reader regarding what he really means; 2) the fact that Fahey is offering the judge $3000 a day which is considered in Australia a questionable wage. For these reasons the phrase is violating the maxim of quality.

IV/14 muḥāwalatān li-takhṣīfī ḥiddatā ḍīḥkati al-bukā’i allātī qad taqdi’ alā al-kathīrānā minna: an attempt to ease the keenness of laugh that might kill many of us: Two lexical elements impart this overstatement: the expression ‘keenness of laugh’ and the exaggeration in ‘killing many of us’. Both breach the maxim of quantity.

VIII/21 tarkī al-‘umūrī bi-‘aydī "al-diwanjiyyīn" sa-yadmanu lanā ... kilfatu al-taqrīrī qad faqat qimata khasāratī al-wilāyatī wa-sha’bīhā ...: leaving matters in the hands of ‘the liars’ will secure us ... the cost of this report will exceed the amount of the loss incurred by the State and the people of the State. Direct criticism accusing the victim of irony that he left the matters in the hands of ‘the liars’ using a metonymy. Grammatically, the use of the definite article ‘the liars’ indicates the writer’s opinion. The following statement ‘will secure ...’ is an exaggeration considering the proposed cost for writing a report, thus the ironic inference based on the violation of the maxim of quality.

i) Shift of register:

This commentary is written in a formal, informal and colloquial register. This strate-
gy is used to enhance the relationship between the writer and his readers and to create the necessary superficial contrast:

I/2 ḥaḍmiḥā wa-madghihā: to digest and chew.

The irony is reflected in the verbal nouns used: informal metaphors related to parts or functions of the parts of the body - a formal substitute could be "istiʿabiḥā wa-fahmiḥā: to absorb and understand. - This phrase is incongruous with the rather formal opening sequence which marks a shift of register.

V/10 lā tafrīkū "uyūnakum" wa-lā tamsahū zujājata "al-nazzārati" don’t rub your “eyes” and don’t wipe the glass [lit] of the “spectacles”.

The directions communicated to the readers through the adverb of negation, ‘[do] not’, plus the colloquial metaphors that relate to parts of the body is also a sign of incongruity with the formal verbs tafrīkū: rub and tamsahū: wipe, and with the overall rhetorical meaning of the text (see below).

VIII/21 tarka al-ʿumūrī fī ʾaydī “al-diwanjiyyīn”: leaving the matters in the hands of the liars/administrative officers.

The metonymy: al-diwanjiyyīn marks a shift of register from formal to informal / colloquial.

The three above shift of registers indicate a violation to the maxim of relation.

j) Internal contradiction:

This device reflects the attitude of the writer by way of intratextuality, assertion in one utterance or sequence than contradiction in another, thus, it represents macro or textual device. Example:

Sequence II: Fahey wants to show his concern about the mismanagement scandal, so he forms a committee. Sequence IV: The head of the committee is to receive $3000 a day.
k) Praising in order to blame:
V/12, 13. (see understatements above)

l) Semotactic anomalies/Contrast (Nida 1990):

The juxtaposition of contrasts reflects a sarcastic impact. The writer employed this device to express his major personal opinion about the Premier as a result of the scandal given his view that Fahey is trying to apply the proverb in I/3 on us. I/3 al-mudhiku al-mubkī: the laughable tearful;

Experientially, this expression is frequently used to depict explicitly an ironic situation. It is marked lexically by an antonym. III/7 bi-dhakā‘i al-mas‘ūli al-faqidi al-dhakā‘i wa-ghabā‘i al-siyāsī alladhī lā ya‘lūhu ghabā‘an with the intelligence of a responsible [sic] who lacks intelligence and the stupidity of a highly stupid politician.

This example carries an experiential meaning through the reference to politicians. Lexically, the utterance is marked ironically by an antonym Intelligence/Stupidity.

VII/19 malāyyīni al-dūlārati ... yajibu ‘an tubdhara...’amalan fi tanzīfi wajhi ḥukūmatī: millions of dollars must be wasted ... in the hope of cleansing the face of his government. The two expressions reflect experiential meaning through the metaphoric usage of money as a cleanser of parts of the body.

III/7 kasha‘a bi-dhakā‘i al-mas‘ūli al-faqidi al-dhakā‘i ... ‘an diḥkati al-bukā‘i: he revealed with the intelligence of a responsible [sic] who lacks intelligence ... the laugh of cry.

Irony is marked lexically in the use of a repetition: dhakā‘: intelligence; and grammatically by the embedded negation, that is, lacks [or un] intelligent.

The examples of this device infer a violation of the maxim of manner.
Lexical devices

a) Use of synonyms:

Explicit exaggeration, considered tautological in English.

II/4 ُدَنَّا ْمُرَّةً اَتِّيَ اَنْ ْيِتِمَمْنِ: without care or attention;
This device has an interpersonal meaning through an understatement using the preposition: ُدَنَّا: without. This infers a violation of the maxim of quantity.

IV/9 ُعَنْفُسَنُنا وَأَرْفَاهُنَّ: our souls and inner-selves;
Experiential meaning through two connotations using parts of the body. The redundancy marks a violation of the maxim of quantity.

VI/15 ُمَاذِبْدِي وَأَلْرَوْثُبِي: wages and payments; ُعَسُّنِي أَلْنَعْسُ وَاْيُمْلُلِ: people get bored and sick of.
Ironic inference is textually communicated through an aesthetic and emphatic style.

VI/14 ُمَرْوَقِحَتِن وَأَنَافَقُن: cunning and tricks; VII/17 ُرَعْسِيْن وَمْعَاسْلِيْن اَلْعَوْلِي: its head and first responsible; ُنْحِمْتِن وَاْيَي: wisdom and awareness; ُخَحْرِي وَاْمُضْلاحِتِ: welfare and benefit.
The use of synonyms in both utterances has an interpersonal function, i.e. expresses the writer’s opinion in the form of overstatement. This indicates a violation of the maxim of quantity.

VIII/21 ُعَشَّبِي وَأَرْعَسَى اَلْدَوْعِي: the chairmen and heads of the administrative offices’.
In this utterance, the cultural reference ُعَشَّبْ اَلْدَوْعِي: ‘liars/heads of administrative offices’ imparts an experiential function, in addition to the double meaning of this
expression (see discussion on al-diwanjiyyin: liars/administrative officers above). This latter lexical feature marks a violation of the maxim of manner.

IX/22 ‘awratihim’aw fādīhatihim: their privates or scandal.
The writer employs an analogy using parts of the body, ‘awratihim’ is a metonymy given its double meaning: faultliness and private parts; although the second usage is more common and has its biblical connotation. Given this, the synonym in this utterance indicates an experiential function and a violation of the maxim of manner.

b) Near synonymy:

II/4 yujarribu fīnā hādhayni al-qawlayni’aw ... yuṭabbīquhumā: testing both sayings on us ... or implementing them.
Interpersonal function communicated through the description of the victim’s action.
The sentence also has a textual function given the reference to the saying/title of the article. Furthermore, the uncommon and absurd collocation, that is, testing sayings on people, indicates infringement of the maxim of quality.

An interpersonal function is inferred through the markers of opinion, i.e. the understatement using a number of adjectives. This violates the maxim of quantity.
IV/9 ‘alimat wa-sami‘at: learnt and heard.
Redundancy imparting an exaggeration, hence infringement of the maxim of quantity.

VI/14 waqiḥan wa-jari‘an ‘akthara mina al-lāzimi: blunt and over-daring.
Interpersonally marked opinion using two ḥāl[s] expressing disgust and courage to tell the Premier in the name of the people of NSW. This is considered as a violation of the maxim of manner.
VII/19 ... fawāriqi wa'-alāmātī al-fashali wa-sū'ī al-īdāratī: ... particular features and signs of failure and mismanagement.

This near-synonymy has a textual function given the contextual reference. Experientially, it marks a connotation, personification, and uses parts of the body.

c) Root-echo/Paronomasia:

II/4 'amadan aw muta'ammidan: willfully or premeditatedly.

The use of two ḥāl: adverbs of circumstance. Both words have the same meaning. The only possible interpretation given the use of ‘or’ which casts doubts as to the seriousness of the proposed distinction between the two words, is irony. The use of root-echo in this instance is considered a high register with an aesthetic function for emphasis (see Emery, 1991).

d) Use of figurative language/epigram:

- Epigram:

I/3 sharru al-umūrī mā yuḏhiku: the most devilish things are the ones that bring laughter [lit.].

Originally, sharru al-baliyyati mā yuḏhiku: the most devilish misfortune is the one that brings laughter [lit.]. The ironic inference stems from the experiential function of the epigram which is commonly used as an explicit reaction to an ironic situation. It marks intertextuality given its formal written usage in the Arabic prose.

- Figurative expressions:

I/1 marāḥili al-talahhufi: the stages of ‘eagerness’;

The connotative meaning of ‘eagerness’ communicates an experiential function. The word talahhufi [li-al-ilmi wa-al-ma‘rifati]: ‘eagerness’ [for learning and knowledge]
is incongruous with the epigram (see above).

The expression violates the maxim of quality based on the untruthful statement.

II/2 kalimātin kunnā najidu ṣu ‘ubatan quṣwā fī hadmihā wa-madghiḥā: words we used to find extremely difficult to ‘digest and chew’;

This expression attracts its ironic meaning from its experiential function. The connotation embedded in the use of functions of parts of the body impacts on the formality in utterance one.

II/4 ‘an yujarriba fīna ḥadhayni al-gawlayni: trying out these two sayings on us;

The irony stems from the abstract concept used, that is, the two sayings are to be tried out on us. Conversationally, this infringes the maxim of quality given the impossible proposition.

II/4 li-raddāti al-fī’li allātī qad tatawalladu ladaynā: the ‘reactions’ that might be ‘generated’ in us;

As above, continuation of the abstract concept and impossible proposition, hence the experiential function of the connotation (using the underlined collocation), and the violation of the maxim of quality.

Interpersonally, the use of the Arabic grammatical particle of intensifying apposition: qad: might, which is diminutive when used with the imperfect (Ghālib et al. 1991. V. 4), is an opinion marker that emphasises the possibility of the absurd proposition above. This leads to an infringement of the maxim of quality.

II/5 ‘izhāri wajhi al-barā’ati wa-ḥikmati al-taşarrufi: showing the face of innocence and the wisdom of behaviour;

An experiential function stems from the connotative meaning of the two collocations. The reversal of both collocation from the original noun/modifier, wajh bari’: ‘an innocent face’ and ṭasarruf ḥakīm: ‘wise behaviour’ to a possessive construction/adjectival nouns, ‘of ...’ coupled with the use of the participle ‘showing’ imparts the opposing attitude of the writer as to what he said. This strategy comes also under
the rhetorical device

Textually, the above collocations attracts their underlying ironic meaning in contrast with the context of sequence five and six in which the writer loathes the appointment (the wise behaviour of the Premier) of a judge for an inquiry who will receive $3000 a day etc. This indicates a violation of the maxim of quality given the rhetorical ‘praising in order to blame’ strategy used.

III/6 fuṣūlī al-faḍīḥati: the ‘acts’ [of a play] of the scandal;
The word fuṣūl has an experiential function since it derives from the idiomatic expression used in political commentaries: al-qadīyyatu lam tantahī fuṣūlān ba’d: the acts of the matter aren’t over yet. The use of ‘iḍāfa: the of-construction also infers an ironic view. ‘Scandal’ is a reference to the theme of the text, i.e. ‘the Home Fund’ mismanagement modified by the noun ‘acts, thus comparing the scandals with a play. The maxim of quality is violated given the incorrectness of the information.

III/7 wajhi al-sharri al-muḍḥiki: the funny face of evil; IV/8 wajhi al-ḍīḥki: the face of laugh; IV/9 ḍīḥkata al-bukā’i: the laugh of cry.

In these three figurative expressions, the writer repeats nonchalantly the derivation of the root: ḍḥk, which is the theme the commentary expanded on. The ironic meaning stems from the obvious unfamiliar and repetitive register involving the word laugh, for example, in the last instance where the use of the figure is unclear: our souls could not suppress the ‘laugh of cry’. This leads to an infringement of the maxim of manner.

IV/9 lam taṣṭat‘ anfusunā wa-‘arwāhunā: our ‘souls and inner-selves’ couldn’t;
‘indaṃā ‘alimat wa-sami’at [‘arwāhunā]: when it [our souls] learnt and heard;

VI/14 hiddati ḍīḥkati al-bukā’i... sa-taqdi: the extent of the ‘laugh of crying’... will kill;
VI/15 ‘argāma al-maqbūdān ... allātī sa-taṣilu ‘ilā yādi: the figures of payments ... that will reach the ‘hand’;

These figures of speech are in the form of personification of abstract using parts or functions of parts of the body to replace, respectively, a pronoun nastat: ‘we’ were unable; a collocational expression e.g., al-mushkilat or al-’azmati: the problem or the crisis; and a pronoun using a collocational expression sa-yahṣalu, ‘he’ will ‘receive’.

Thus, the function is experiential based on the choice of words. However, although explicit, this style is still considered a violation of the maxim of quality given that the information could be perceived as untrue.

VI/15 yamūṭuna min ḍāḥiki al-bukā’i: to die from the laugh of crying;

A common expression in colloquial Arabic that stems from; māta or faqa’a min al-duḥki: He died or exploded [lit.] from laughing. Its intended meaning is drawn from the experiential function of the clause using state of the body, that is, ridiculing the fact that despite the money that will be spent, no findings will be announced because of the corruption involved. The redundancy of the expression is also a marker of an exaggeration inferring a violation of the maxim of quantity.

IX/22 min ‘ajli ‘ikha’i ‘awratihim aw faḍḥihatihim: to hide their ‘faults [lit. genitals]’ and scandal;

The inference here is deduced from the experiential meaning of the common Arabic connotation using parts of the body.

X/23 kam jā‘i’in yuṭ‘imu dhālika al-maḥlaghu: how many hungry this ‘amount’ [of money] will ‘feed’; kam furṣatu ‘amalin yuwaftiru ḍāṭhā al-maḥlaghu: how many job opportunities this ‘amount’ will ‘provide’; ‘adada malayini luqmāti al-‘ayshi allātī sa-tasruqūhā ...: how many millions of ‘food bites’ his government will ‘steal’.

The ironic meaning is triggered by three factors: 1) The materialisation of abstract concepts which impart an experiential function given the Arabic usage of the underlined
metaphoric expressions; 2) the interpersonal function of the utterance in the form of questions/accusation (see rhetorical question above) directed to the victim of irony; 3) the infringement of the maxims of quality due to the untruthfulness of the information provided by the relation between the metaphors and the verbs (underlined).

e) Repetition, recurrence:

I/1, I/2 al-dahshati wa-al-'istighrābi: the amazement and astonishment;

Textually, in this instance, the repetition is used as a cohesive device or link between utterance one and two. However, the underlying meaning rests in the violation of the maxim of quantity given that the writer could have resorted to a conjunction ḥaythu: when’ or a relative pronoun aššātī: ‘which’ instead of the two near-synonyms. This stress on two lexical items, which are themselves repetitious, sends the reader a clear message as to the writer’s ironic intention rather than the ostensible textual function pretended.

III/6/7 al-bukā': the cry;

The ironic inference is derived from a textual function due the words’ contextual meaning by reference to the epigram in the title and sequence 3.

The words also carry interpersonal function given that they assert the writer’s viewpoint: forming an investigative committee enhanced the belief that there is a political mismanagement.

III/7 kashaṣṣa al-sayyidu Fahey bi-dhakā'ī al-mas'ūli al-faqidi al-dhakā'ī, wa-gḥbā’i al-siyāṣī alladhi lā ya‘lūhu ghabā’un: Mr Fahey demonstrated with the intelligence of an unintelligent responsible and the stupidity of a politician that cannot be surpassed in stupidity.

The contrast in meaning, that is negating an assertion and asserting a negation, violates the maxim of manner.
III/7, IV/9, VI/14 diḥkata al-bukā'i: the laugh of crying;
A textual device whose ironic meaning stems from the reference to the theme. This
repetition has also experiential meaning communicated by the internal contradiction
between the meaning of both abstract nouns.

f) Metonymy, double meaning:

VIII/21 “al-diwanjiyyīn”: the liars and/or the administrative officers;
A cultural reference that is used colloquially to refer to liars or to con men, hence its
connotative experiential meaning.

IX/22 ‘awratihim: their genitals, their faultiness.
This word also has an experiential meaning. Generally, it is used metaphorically in
formal writing to refer to liars, except as euphemism in religious texts where it refers
to genitals.

g) Binomial: Aesthetic and emphatic device. Use is made of near-synonyms.

I/1 li-al-‘ilmi wa-al-ma’rifati: for knowledge and education; al-dahshati wa-al-
’istighrābi: the amazement and astonishment, kalimātin... haḍmihā wa-madghihā:
words ...to be chewed and digested;

I/3 al-kalimāti wa-al-‘aqāwīli: the words and sayings;

V/11 al-‘amru wa-al-qarāru: the order and the decision;

VI/15 sa-tuḥraqu aw tumazzaqu: will be burnt or torn.

In these four utterances the use of binomial has an experiential meaning which stems from
the Arabic style in addition to its aesthetic and emphatic function. This device is used here
to over emphasise the writer’s point of view which violates the maxim of quantity.
h) Modality/Adverbs:

II/4 'amadan aw muta'ammidan: willfully or premeditatedly;

Here, an interpersonal function is communicated. The writer aims at enchanting the reader using a synonym from the same root. The use of the conjunction 'or' contributes also to its intended ironic meaning suggesting two possible 'similar' reasons. Conversationally, this leads to the infringement of the maxim of quality.

VI/14 wa-li-kay 'akīna rubbamā waqīhan: and to be [first person], perhaps blunt...;

The proposition in this statement is uncertainty or rather pretended politeness of the writer regarding his opinion. However, the use of rubbamā: ‘perhaps’ means stylistically in Arabic: ḥattā: ‘even’ which infers the opposite meaning which entails interpersonal function.

VII/19 kam min malāyīn al-ḍūlarātī al-‘idātīyyatī yajību an tubdhara wa-tūhrqa 'amalaḥ ... wa-sū'i al-‘idārātī: How many millions of dollars must be wasted and burnt ‘in the hope’ to clean ... and mismanagement.

A rhetorical question that embeds answer/viewpoint given the use of an adverb. The ironic meaning is inferred through the contradiction between the wish/motive: ‘in the hope to’ and the negative answer to this rhetorical question. The plausible interpretation, as a result, would be: In spite of the millions of dollars that might be wasted, there is no hope that his government can clean [its record of ...] and mismanagement. This utterance infringes the maxim of manner due to the ambiguity of the meaning.

i) Collocations:

The use of exaggerated clichés which mark an overstatement in relation to the topic.

I/1 sanawatī al-futūwwati: the years of youth;

This utterance has a textual function. This stems from the context in question, that is,
the years of youth ‘are’ the days of astonishment and bewilderment.

This ambiguity represents a violation to the maxim of manner.

I/1 al-makhlūqi al-bashariyyī: the human being;

In this expression, irony is experiential, based on the Arabic usage of makhlug: being which has, unlike English, a sarcastic connotation. In addition, the choice of this expression marks a shift of register in comparison with the opening sentence. The stylistic inconsistency imparts also a violation to the maxim of relation.

I/1 ahammu marāhilī al-talahuufī: the most important stages of eagerness;

This expression carries an interpersonal function given the embedded overstatement. This violates the maxim of quality.

I/3 sabbabat lanā ba’dan mina al-‘irībāki al-dhuhnī: caused us some mental confusion;

Experientially, the expression carries a connotation using parts of the body. The utterance also marks a violation to the maxim of quantity given the understatement triggered by the word ba’dan: some, and the cause of this ‘some confusion’, that is the epigram al-mudhiku al-mubki: the laughable tearful.

II/5 wajhi al-barā’ati wa-hikmati al-tasarrufī: the innocent face and wise behaviour;

(see figurative language above).

V/10 lā tażunnū anna hunāka khaṭā‘an maṭba‘iyyan: don’t think it is a misprint;

Experientially, its ironic intention stems from its common metaphorical usage: insinuating that a fault was premeditated. The ironic meaning is reinforced textually because the collocation refers to the $3000 a day that the judge will earn [utterance nine].

V/13 “al-kabīru al-qalbi wa-al-’amīri”: “the man with the big heart and conscience”.

A commonly used expression in Arabic, in both its literal and opposite meanings. Here, the intention is the opposite meaning by contrast with his unjustified spending of taxpayers’ money. This collocation violates the maxim of quality given the untruthfulness of the statement/opinion.
Grammatical devices

a) Reference:

I/3 al-irtibā`i al-dhuhniyyī: mental confusion.

A cataphoric reference to the ironic proverb in I/3 sharru al-`umūri ma yuḍḥiku`: The most devilish things are the most laughable ones. Textually, this device marks a cohesive device attracting, experientially, the inference from the famous ironic proverb.

V/10 na'am... : yes....

This device is an emphatic anaphoric reference to the previous utterance, that is, ‘... the judge will receive $3000 in a single day, thus considered a text building device on the sequence level. Interpersonally, it calls for readers’ participation in the use of the ellipsis (three dots) which could obviously be filled out with ‘indeed, this is what happened.

VIII/21 “al-diwanjiyyīn”: the administrative officers/liars

A textual anaphoric reference to the parliamentary committee in the previous utterance.

The irony of the utterance stems, experientially, from the connotation in the double meaning of the word. The pun here is in the referential meaning and the connotative meaning intended.

X/23 famun wāḥidun: one mouth.

A textual anaphoric reference to the appointed judge.

Experientially, its connotative meaning derives from a metaphor that, contrary to English, depicts greed in colloquial Arabic, e.g. tummahu kabīr: ‘he has a big mouth’ means he is a greedy person.

b) Redundancy:

For sound-effect (Newmark 1988, p. 208). Although the Arabic language encourages such a pompous style, it is more intense than usual in this commentary text.
1/1 bi-al-nisbatī li-al-makhluqī al-bashariyyī: in relation to the human being [lit.];
This device has an a textual function, given that it is merely aesthetic (compare it with
the use of ‘human being’ in ET3, XIII/47).
This device marks a violation of the maxim of manner, given the obscurity of the
expression.

II/4 'amadan aw muta'ammidan: willfully or premeditatedly;
An aesthetic textual device. The ironic inference derives from the use of synonyms
and root-echo, and the infringement of the maxim of quantity.

IV/8 qad yaqulū qa'ilun: a speaker might say;
A textual device using a root-echo. The irony is inferred by the violation of the maxim
of manner, that is, the brevity of speech.

V/11 kamā tarawnahumā 'amāmakum: as you can see them in front of you;
Another aesthetic textual device infringing the maxim of manner.

V/12 naḥnu sha'bu ḥādhihi al-wilāyati: we the people of this state;
The resumptive pronoun (Al-Jabr 1985) naḥnu: ‘us’ has an interpersonal function. In
addition to calling for the agreement of the readership, it infers irony, on the textual
level, by emphasising John Fahey’s utmost care (in previous utterance) towards ‘us’
to pay no more than $3000 per three days per week for the judge (in the following
sentence).

c) Free indirect speech:
It promotes an ironical and satiric tone of the main victim/s (Stephens 1992) as
well as the detachment of the writer’s stance, that is, putting words in the mouth
of the Premier:
Il/5'alā ḥaddi taʾbirīḥī ...waʿada bi-tashkīlī ... dawafīʾi al-fashali: according to him ... he promised to form ... the roots of the failure;

This device has an interpersonal function. It expresses the disbelief of the writer of what the Premier said as well as his (the writer's) knowledge of the outcome in advance. This is considered a breaching of the maxim of quality given that the writer is saying what he believes is false.

V/13 waʿada biʿanna al-qādī lan yaʿmala akthara min thalāthati ʿayyāmin fī al-ʿusbūʾi: that the judge will not work more than three days a week.

Interpersonally, this device expresses the writer's by the use of a praise in order to blame strategy by understating the Premier's quote. Again, there is a violation of the maxim of quality as above.

d) Abundance of the use of ḥāl (see Al-Mufdi and Abū-Bakr 1964 (2nd vol.), p. 27): In Arabic grammar, ḥāl refers to adverbs of manner or quality, called either emphatic ḥal (used with intransitive verbs) e.g. Il/4 'ammadan aw mutaʾammidan ..: 'willfully or premeditatedly...', which expresses the writer's opinion; or institutional ḥāl (used with transitive verbs) e.g. IV/8 mutasāʾilan wa-mufattishan 'an wajhi al-duḥki: 'wondering and asking about the funny side of...', which plays an interpersonal function in that the writer calls for the reader's approval.

Both examples violate the maxim of manner, that is, brevity.

e) Aural mode:

This mode and the visual mode are used in Arabic writing. Following Saʿadeddin (1989), the selection of the aural mode is conditioned by the topic and the assumed readership. Although this article shows an overall use of the aural mode, markers of visual text development are employed structurally (see the analysis of the text type focus and text's rhetorical meaning below). The aural mode is marked by:
• The occurrence of resumptive pronouns in the same sentences which is allowed in Arabic for emphatic purposes (Al-Jabr 1985), e.g.

V/12 ...taṣrīfī anwālinā ... naḥnu sha’bu ḥādhihi al-wilāyati: ...to manage our money ... us [lit.] the people of this State; (see discussion in (b) above.)

X/23 ... fī famin wāhidin...huwa bi-ṭabi’atihi mutkhamun!: in one mouth ...which is by nature overstuffed!

An aesthetic textual device which communicates an emphatic statement about the writer’s views regarding the fat belly of the beneficiary of the Premier’s mismanagement.

• Paraphrasing: e.g.

I/2 ...ay faḥmiḥā bi-kullī ma’nā al-kalimati: ...that is understanding it fully;

This device has an interpersonal function whereby the writer emphasises his ironic opinion in the previous sentence using the inclusive ‘we’: ... hearing things we used to find a great difficulty to swallow or digest ... .

The paraphrase itself violates the maxim of manner given the ambiguity in the meaning.

V/10 ... ghawghā’yyun wa-lā ya’ī mādhā yanqulu lakum: ... erratic and is unaware of what he is conveying to you;

Interpersonally, this paraphrase also stresses the writer’s opinion about the victim (erratic). It marks a violation of the maxim of quantity.

VII/19 ‘alāmāti al-fashali wa-sū’i al-‘idārati: the signs of failure and mismanagement.

The use of ‘mismanagement’ has an aesthetic textual function. It infers irony given the violation of the maxim of quantity.

• Speech redundancies:

1) Repetition (see examples and discussion above in lexical devices, point (e)).
2) Shift of thought:

'Iidh 'annahu ḥattā laḥazātī ... fa-kullu shay'in fī fuṣūli al-fadīḥati yushīru 'ilā al-sharri wa-al-bukā'ī: For until the minute [literally minutes] of ... for everything in the chapters of the scandal is indicating laugh and cry ....

This sentence is nonchalance used in this utterance. The use of fa: the second ‘for’ confuses the meaning. The writer ought to use kāna: ‘was’ which would give coherence to the English, i.e., ‘everything ... was indicating ....’

The embedding here and the lexical choice clearly mark the writer’s views about the topic before even analysing it, cf. fadīḥa: ‘scandal’ and yushīru: ‘indicates’. The ambiguity lying in the use of ‘the laugh and cry’ is considered infringement of the maxim of manner. The shift of thought indicates also a violation of the maxim of manner because of the disruption to the order of the argumentative substantiation.

3) Colloquialism:

V/10 la-tafrikū “uyūnakum” wa-la tamsāḥū zujajata “al-naẓẓarati”: don’t rub your “eyes” and don’t clean [lit] the glasses of “the spectacles”.

This device has an interpersonal function. The writer expresses solidarity with the readership.

The use of parts of the body and the colloquial form infers irony. This disorderly shift of register marks a violation of the maxim of manner.

4) Inflammatory expressions:

X/23 ‘allatī sa-tasruqūhā hukūmatuhu: which will be ‘stolen’ by his government.

The irony in this instance is inferred in the metaphoric and contextual meaning of the word as well as the indirect address to the victim. The untruthfulness of the expression violates the maxim of quality.
Communicative Function of the Structure

Text type focus: through-argument

Direct/indirect speech acts.

Sequence I

- Propositional meaning: recollection of the days of youth and the misapprehension of certain concepts such as: “the laughable crying”

- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner triggered by the use of the binomial in I/2: kalimātin kunnā najidu ṣu‘ūbatan fi hadmihā wa-madghihā: words we used to find hard to chew and digest. I/3 al-mudhika al-mubkī: the laughable tearful [things that brings laughter and crying].

- Illocutionary force: dilemma, sayings that we need some explanations for.

- Sign: Thesis cited to be explained

S. II

- Propositional meaning: Fahey’s application of the sayings on us: a committee to look into the ‘scandals’ of Home Fund Program.

- Conversational strategy: Breaching of the maxim of quality using the understatement: ḏūna murā‘atin...tatawāllādu ladaynā: without any consideration of the side-effects that we might suffer.

- Illocutionary force: Statement: Fahey is, un-sympathetically, providing a concrete example to explain the sayings to us.

- Sign: Specific thesis to be substantiated

S. III

- Propositional meaning: Fahey’s stupid act: the appointment of a judge as head of an investigating committee.

- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality triggered by the parallelism in III/7: bi-dhakā‘i ... wa-ghabā‘i: intelligence... and stupidity.
• Illocutionary force: Statement: a judge to head ‘another’ committee. Preparing the
ground for attack.
• Sign: Substantiation of specific thesis

S. IV
• Propositional meaning: The irony rests in the wages the judge is going to receive,
i.e $3000 a day.
• Conversational strategy: In IV/8 ḥādhā al-taṣarrufi al-ṣabi‘ī al-ma‘hūd wa-al-
mutā‘arafī ‘alayhi fī kulli shu‘īni al-bilādi aw al-hayāti: this usual, natural, and
conventional behaviour in all the country matters and life, three maxims are violated;
namely, the maxims of quantity and manner through the use of an understatement and
a cumulation, respectively, and the maxim of quality by using a near synonymy.
• Illocutionary force: Statement: $3000 a day!
• Sign: Further substantiation of specific thesis

S. V
• Propositional meaning: Fahey is sympathetic and considering.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quantity using repetition: insist-
ed negative request in IV/10: lā...lā thumma lā: don’t ... don’t then don’t [lit].
Violation also of the maxim of quality through the use of inverted commas, and the
understatement in V/13.
• Illocutionary force: Praising in order to blame. Fahey has no conscience nor sympathy.
• Sign: Substantiation of specific thesis

S. VI
• Propositional meaning: The awareness of the people of NSW about what is likely to
happen: the figures of the wasted money will be destroyed.
• Conversational strategy: infringing the maxim of quality triggered by the pretended
defence of the victim in IV/15: fa-qawlwān ħādhā laysā taṭāwulan ‘alā ... Fahey:
what we are saying is not to be insolent ... on Fahey.
• Illocutionary force: Fahey is abusing his power.
• Sign: Argument of the specific thesis.

S. VII
• Propositional meaning: No offense meant to the judge, Fahey is responsible for he
wants to clean his record.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality using innuendo in VII/16: *hanīṭ an lahu bi-hādbhi al-muhammati*: congratulations to him on [getting] this task.

• Illocutionary force: If the judge accepts this job he will be as corrupt as Fahey.

• Sign: Substantiation of argument.

S. VIII

• Propositional meaning: The unlimited time given to this committee will result in a huge loss to the State.

• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner triggered by the metonymy in IIIV/21: *tarku al-‘umūrī ... “al-diwaanjīyyīn”*: leaving matters in the hands of the “liars/ administrative officers”...

• Illocutionary force: Fahey is using a political tactic.

• Sign: Substantiation of argument.

S. IX

• Propositional meaning: The question is about the resulting decline in welfare services and loss of jobs.

• Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of quantity using a run-on of rhetorical questions.

• Illocutionary force: Fahey and Co. will cause so many misfortunes to cover their mismanagement.

• Sign: Conclusion

S. X

• Propositional meaning: The question is that this $9000 a week ought to be spent on welfare and jobs.

• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quantity using rhetorical questions.

• Illocutionary force: We advise you to spend this amount on welfare and jobs instead.

• Sign: Conclusive solution
The Text’s Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

The writer loathes the premier of NSW for his responsibility for the Home Fund Program’s scandal. After ridiculing Fahey’s management of the matter he expresses no surprise about the formation of a committee chaired by a judge who is to receive $9000 a week for three days work. He questions the use of the committee and expresses sympathy to the people who are going to suffer as a result of this scandal.

The writer uses consultative formal language. He questions Fahey by claiming explicitly that he is speaking in the name of the majority of the people of NSW. He uses the passive voice to conceal the identity of the corrupt person who is going to hide the figures that will be given to the judge, and to avoid naming the person who is wasting the public money, e.g. VI/15 lan takshafa: it will not be disclosed; VII/19 yajibu ‘an tubdhara: going to be wasted.

Province

Journalistic background feature written by a Lebanese writer known in the Australian-Arabic press. He is one of a few writers who comment on Australian politics. The article was published in The Arab World, a newly published [no longer in circulation] Egyptian-owned newspaper.

Given that commentary genre is elitist, it attracts literate Arabic readership and follows what Sa‘adeddin (1987, p. 150) describes as Arabic expository text-form whereas “...the plan-preference is that of audience-enchantment (Mendosa 1973), reinforcement and intensification of effect, argument, and conclusion.”
The article shows signs of argumentative texts, such as recurrence and parallel structure which are features of evaluation. Its dominant function following Hatim and Mason (1990, p.155) is "...to manage or steer the situation in a manner favourable to the text producer’s goals." This is reinforced in the structural arrangement of utterances which is in agreement with Hatim and Mason’s (p. 155) view that "The topic sentence in argumentation ‘sets the tone’ and must be substantiated...thus Through-arguments exhibits the pattern: Tone-setter > Thesis substantiated...". Furthermore, Hatim (1989, p.139) argues that "...the [predomination of] Nominal [clause-type in Arabic] is characteristic of texts with an argumentative and evaluative focus (editorials, book-reviews, and so on)". The latter argument, that is, evaluative focus, fits the description of the text at hand although the former exists as a variety in certain types of Arabic editorials.

Examples of Nominal clause-type:

I/1 ʿidhā kānat sanawātū al-futūwwati ... basharīyyī...: If the years of youth to the human being...; II/5 fī-al-ʿusbīʾi al-māḏī...fī ḥukūmatī: The week before last and after the known crisis scandals of “the Home Fund Program” and due to his wish, according to him, in showing the face of innocence and the wisdom of behaviour that he and every minister in his government have, he ...[literally for illustration; refer to the Arabic source text in Appendix C for full utterance II/5].

Participation

In his argument about the existence of the visual mode in the Arabic writing, Saʿaddedin (1989, p. 49) argues that “The expectations of receivers feed back to the producers, and provide the basis for the selection and preponderance of specific modes for specific language communities.”

The aural mode chosen reflects the nature of readership targeted in this article, that is,
middle class and literate. The writer interacts with three participants in the text; namely the readership: labourers and public servants, the sick, the needy, the parents of school children and potential victims of Home Fund Program; secondly, there are the government members and the Premier; and lastly, the judge in question.

Another marker of aurality is the writer’s nonchalant address to the victim (of irony) where he inconsistently alternates between the use of first person singular, e.g. V/12 ḥattā 'akūna: to be [first person]; VI/14 wa-likay 'akūna: and to be [first person], and the use of the second person plural, e.g. I/4 fa-naqūlu: and we say; VII/17 'alāqatanā wa-haqqanā: our right and relation [rests with].
Background Feature Article

Al-‘alam al-‘arabi (Sydney), February 19, 1993. P.2. First issue


Title: Al-Mu’arrigh Irving wa-Suqūt Ḥurrīyat Al-ra’ī: The Historian Irving and the Fall of the Freedom of Opinion

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Overstatement:

I/1 ‘aṣamma al-gharbu ʿādhānanā wa-dawwakhanā: ‘the West has deafened our ears and sickened us’:

Lexically, the writer chooses two metaphors: ‘aṣamma al-gharbu ʿādhānanā: the West has ‘deafened’ our ears, a nominal verb is used to depict the state of parts of the body;

dawwakhanā [lit] ‘sickened’ us, A colloquial metaphor also using a nominal verb to describe the effect of the West on ‘our’ physical state. Both metaphors break the maxim of quality.

This device has an interpersonal function given the use of the first person plural ‘na’: ‘us’, attracting an early agreement from the readers and indicating a mark of solidarity. The exaggerated metaphors and the alienation from the victim mark the attitude of the writer, that is, the West and us.

I/2 wa-khuṣūṣan bi-taqdīshi li-ḥurrīyati...: and especially for its sanctification of freedom...:
taqdisihi: 'its sanctification' marks a lexical ironic trigger in the form of a metaphor-
ic verbal noun. It refers to the West in utterance one as explained above. The use of
the adverb 'especially' gives it its exaggerated tone, hence the inference that the
writer is being untruthful. Interpersonally, the writer's opinion is indicated in the use
of modality: 'especially'.

II/3 khayran kāna 'am sharran, āliyan kāna 'am wāti'an, jamīlan kāna 'am qabin:
beneficial or evil, high [ly-ranked] or low, beautiful or ugly (see discussion on
antonyms in lexical devices below).

III/6 ghayru musta'idīna 'abadan li-al-tanāzuli 'an ḥadhā al-ma'qili al-hāmni wa-
al-'irthi al-hadāriyyī al-kabīrī: [they are] absolutely not prepared to waive this impor-
tant stronghold and great cultural heritage:

Grammatically, a reference is employed using the adjective 'great'(breaking the max-
im of quality): this great cultural heritage, that is, democracy and freedom of
speech in IV/3.

The use of deictic: 'this', an anaphoric reference characteristic of closely argued dis-
course, followed by the definite article 'al' marks an emphatic indirect, and rather
impersonal, statement about the writer's view regarding the subject matter. Had the
writer said: important stronghold, the utterance would have lost part of its exaggerat-
ed tone and the implied indirect speech act.

Lexically, an exaggerated metaphor is used: 'cultural heritage'.
The utterance also carries an experiential function in the use of free indirect speech,
that is, that's what Thatcher said.

By hiding his views, the writer breaches the maxim of manner.

IV/8 bi-ṣuhufihi wa-'idha'ātihi, bi-sufarā'īhi wa-wuzarā'īhi, yaktubu, yaudafī'ū,
yuḥāwiru wa-yuṭādilu...: with its newspapers and radio broadcasts, with its ambassadors and ministers, writing, defending, discussing and arguing:

The writer makes use of inversion in this utterance: ‘with its newspapers ... writing...’ which breaks the maxim of manner with regard to word order in Arabic. Lexically, the use of binomials, i.e. newspapers and radio broadcasts etc., and near-synonyms: writing, defending etc. is considered a violation of the maxim of quantity.

IV/9 takfī li-‘it’āmi shu‘ūbi al-Ṣumāl wa-Tanzānīa wa-al-Muzambiq: enough to feed the people of Somalia, Tanzania and Mozambique:

Lexically, use is made of cumulation which marks a violation of the maxim of quantity.

On the experiential level, intertextual exophoric references are used, that is, the three African countries are renowned for their famine crises. The use of these references violates the maxim of quality given the lack of logic in the statement.

VI/15 'ilā yawmi al-qiyāmati : until the day of resurrection:

This utterance involves experiential function and use of intertextuality in the form of cultural religious reference and exaggerated metaphor, ‘the day of resurrection’: for ever. Conversationally, there is a violation of the maxim of quality.

VIII/23 'akhtabūtun lahu alfu ra‘sin, wa-milyūnu dhirā‘in: an octopus that has a thousand heads, and a million hands:

Lexically, use is made of a metaphor depicting the Jewish lobby as a sea animal. The exaggeration imparts a violation of the maxim of quality.

b) Understatement:


Lexically: use of the word ‘poor’. The ironic meaning is inferred from the preceding line of argument where the West is depicted as arrogant in its defence of the freedom
of speech, and the Rushdie case is given as a symbol of that freedom. Hence, this adjective is considered a structural device that infringes the maxim of quality. Å

IV/8 lā li-shay'in 'illā li-'annahu kataba kitāban yu'abbiru fīhi 'an ra'yihī: just because he wrote a book expressing his opinion:

Irony is communicated grammatically through: lā li-shay'in 'illā: literally 'not for anything in particular; just for ...'. Although the combination of the two particles used, the negation 'lā', and the exception 'illā': just for, have the same meaning of the conventional standard faqat: but, they give, textually, an ironic force to the utterance through the postponement of the statement with the phonological stress on the latter part of the expression 'illā'. which marks the detachment of the writer from his pretended assertion about the truthfulness of the utterance. This is also considered as a breach of the maxim of quality.

VII/16 tayyib..wa-mā al-gharibu bi-al-'amri?: so..what's so strange about the matter? Lexically, the use of a colloquial term: tayyib., followed by two points, a punctuation device which is loosely used in the Arabic press, could be described as ellipsis that requires the readers' input; the most likely interpretation, here, is the continuation of the colloquial expression 'tayyib', wa-shu ya'nī : 'so what'.

Synonymy: The colloquial term and ellipsis above are synonymous with the following standard utterance (VII/16) wa-mā al-gharibu bi-al-'amri?

Use is made of a reference: al-'amri 'the matter' to the indirect speech of Irving's claim above.

Experientially, this utterance pertains to the field of journalism: the writer's detachment from Irving's statement against the Jews while at the same time agreeing with, and defending it. There is a violation of the maxim of quantity by not giving enough information and of the maxim of manner by the obscurity in terms of expressing explicit views.
c) Pretended agreement with the victim:

III/4 *wa-ākhiru maʿārikī al-gharbī...bi-qatlīhi:* ...and the latest battle of the West...to kill him:
Grammatically, a cataphoric reference is used: *maʿārikī:* battle, i.e. the defence of freedom.
Lexically, the use of ellipsis, ‘three points’ (at the beginning of the utterance) and the conjunction ‘*wa:*’ ‘and’ which require a certain input by the reader and mark a textual cohesive link respectively. The input may well be connected (i.e. structural) with the thesis of the article ‘*aṣamma* etc., for example, *wa-li-ʾilmikum fa-ʾinna:* ‘and to your knowledge’. This subtlety in the meaning marks a breach of the maxim of manner.

III/5 *ʿanna Salmān...wa-ḥurriyatī al-taʾbirī:* that Salman...and the freedom of speech:
A free indirect speech. The experiential function of the utterance in the form of intertextuality, that is, a quote by a Western leader, coupled with the depiction of Rushdie (in VII/19) as a sick-minded alcoholic and drug addict, reveals the writer’s real intention. This strategy violates the maxim of quality.

III/6 *wa-naḥnu...ghayru mustāʾiddīn...abadan:* and we...are not prepared...at all:
A free indirect speech. (see discussion on III/5 above).

d) Pretended attack upon the victim’s opponents/self disparaging:

IV/8 *Salmān Rushdī al-maskīn alladhi yataḥaddaduḥu al-muslimūna al-barbara...:* poor Salman Rushdie who is threatened by the barbaric Muslims:
Lexically, contrasting adjectives are used: *al-maskīn, al-barbara:* the poor, the barbarians. By ‘the poor’, as explained in ‘understatement’ above, the writer intends the opposite meaning. The barbaric is considered a self-disparaging ironic device. Similarly, on the textual level the word ‘poor’ constitutes a sign in one of two contra-
dictory textual sets of references: 1) the battle of the West (in defence of the freedom of speech), great cultural heritage, poor (Rushdie); 2) the thesis in the first paragraph which clearly states the writer’s opinion about the topic.

The interpersonal function is a clear indication of the inference: the West is describing Muslims as barbaric and the writer is happy to quote it in order to launch a defence against such allegations. This relative obscurity of expression violates the maxim of manner.

e) Cumulation:

II/3 khayran kāna 'am sharran, 'āliyan kāna 'am wāṣī' an, jamīlān kāna 'am qabīhan: beneficial or evil, high [ly-ranked] or low, beautiful or ugly.

This device carries interpersonal function through the use of a string of antonyms to praise in order to blame. This marks a violation of the maxim of quantity.

IV/8 wa-qāma ...yu‘abbiru fīhi ‘an ra’yih: and [the West] started...expressing its opinion; IV/9 wa-khas’su li-Rushdie harasan, wa-mukhabaratin, wa-kilāban wa-shurṭatan: and they allocated guards, detectives, dogs and policemen for Rushdie:

Lexically, four pairs of related nouns are made use of in the form of four consecutive nouns: newspapers, radio broadcasts; ambassadors, ministers; and verbs: writes, defends, converses, argues.

The use of ellipsis: the conjunctions wa, wa: ‘and, and’ are missing between the verbs; they are considered necessary in Arabic prose.

Two maxims were deliberately breached here, the maxim of quantity by the over-abundance of lexical references and actions, and manner through the use of ellipsis.

f) Shift of register:

I/1 wa-dawwakhanā: and it sickened us:

Stylistically, the use of the colloquial/standard form of the verb instead of the standard
Arabic form ْwa-‘adākhānā infers an early attack on the victim and appeal to the general readership to share the point of view, that is, through the use of the inclusive we: ْna: us.

VII/16 ْtayyib.ْwa-mā al-gharibu fi al-‘amri?  so what...what is the unusual thing about the matter?

ْtayyib  is a colloquial reduction of the formal cohesive conjunct ْwa-ḥattā law qāla dhālika...: even if he said that ... The informality of the word conveys an interpersonal function to attract solidarity with the readership and underrating the victim’s claim about Irving.

The irony in both examples above is triggered by the infringement of the maxim of relation, that is through the change of register, from analytic to layman’s language.

g) Paralinguistic devices:

This device comes in various forms.

- Use of elliptic two and three dots is made in IV/7; V/13; VI/15; VII/16; VIII/23; this marks a violation to the maxim of quantity by saying too little.

- Use of two exclamation marks is made in IV/8, a form of emphatic expression of disbelief in the press. In contrast with the context of the utterance, the exclamation marks convey irony and carry an interpersonal function in the form of address to the readership: would you believe it?

- Simultaneous use of one exclamation mark and one interrogative mark. This device has, in this context, two purposes: (1) a rhetorical question marker and (2) an interpersonal function as above, cf. V/10; VI/14; VII/18.

h) Climax:

VII/15 li-‘annahu, ْa‘yyuhā al-sūdatu...wa-‘ibritāzihi ‘ilā yawmi al-qiyāmati: because, dear gentlemen...and the exploitation [of the world] until the day of resurrection. The climax in this instance is marked grammatically by the use of an indirect speech
act and interpersonally by the use of an understatement: the writer agrees with Irving’s long statement. The understatement is marked by the ellipsis: *li-mujarradi or faqat*: ‘just [because]’ deduced from the previous rhetorical question and the emphatic particle *li*: ‘because’.

Lexically, the use of a religious cultural metaphor to close his defence of the victim of the freedom of speech has interpersonal and experiential functions based on the common use of the phrase in Arabic ‘*ilā yawmi al-qiyāmati*': until the day of resurrection.

This climax breaches the maxim of quantity, that is, giving more information than is required.

**i) Parallel structure:**

II/3 khayran kāna ‘am sharran, ‘aliyan kāna ‘am waṭī’an, jamīlan kāna am qabīḥan: beneficial or evil, high [ly-ranked] or low, beautiful or ugly.

There is a parallel structure on the clause level here expressed phonetically in the repetitions of the case ending (refer to cumulation above).

V/11,12 ‘a-huwa difā‘un ‘an al-dimuqrāṭiyati...? ‘am difā‘un ‘an kātībin...? was it a defence of democracy...? Or a defence of a writer ...?

Following Leech & Svartvik 1994, a positive rhetorical question normally is like a strong negative statement and vice versa. In this instance, the norm is broken, in that we have two positive rhetorical questions that mean, in context, two contrasting statements: ‘of course it’s not ...’ for the first, and ‘yes, it is a ....’ for the second.

The same strategy applies to the two rhetorical questions in VIII/21&22.

The indirectness and the contrast of the statements constitute an infringement of the maxim of manner.

**j) Clichés:**

I/1 ‘aṣamma ...‘ādhānanā: [the West] ... deafened our ears.
This is a cultural expression using parts of the body. Its ironic meaning stems from its experiential function.

IV/7 wa-’aqāma al-gharbū al-dunya wa-lam yuq’idhā: and the West lifted the world up and hasn’t put it down.

Lexically, antonyms are made use of: ’aqāma: it lifted up, yuq’idhā: put it back.

Grammatically, the use of negation is another trigger to the irony in this example, given that lam: ‘didn’t’ is an addition to the formula.

Both devices in the two utterances above violate the maxim of quality.

V/13 ‘ilā-al’an wa- al-qisṭatu lam tantahi Laravel: until now and the story ... is not over: al’.

Grammatically, ellipsis is used: the two points. A cohesive textual device; the obvious words to complete the formula are fuṣūlan ba’d: ‘chapters are yet’ [to finish]. The expression has also an interpersonal function in that it requires the readers’ anticipation.

There is a temporal preposition which is an addition to the formulaic expression: ‘ilā: ‘until’ plus the adverb of time:’al-’an: ‘now’.

Interpersonally, this utterance is a statement indicating the forthcoming core of the argument as well as a cohesive and structural device linking the two sections of the text, as devised by the writer, that is, the top section where the writer mocks the West’s democracy with reference to Rushdie’s case and the bottom section where he exposes the West’s double standard views of democracy with reference to Irving. The formula (in full) means ‘but wait, that’s not all’ or ‘moreover ...’.

This utterance infringes the maxim of manner given the obscurity of the expression.

k) Rhetorical questions:

V/10, 11, 12; Limādhiḥ ūadhiḥ al-dīfā’u al-mustamītu ... wa-shatama rasūla al-muslimīn? Why this desperate defence ... and insulted the prophet of Muslims?

Here there are three rhetorical questions, the first in the form of a wh-question and the
following two in the form of positive rhetorical questions (see parallel structure above). Grammatically, impersonal verbal nouns are used: al-ḍīfāʿ u al-mustamītu, ḍīfāʿ u: ‘desperate defence, defence’: a reference to the irony in the previous utterance. The lexical choice of the adjective mustamīt: ‘desperate’ conveys irony in the form of praise in order to blame.

Textually, the questions in utterances 11 and 12 are ‘answers’ to the question in utterance 10 (see question/answer below).

VI/14; ...limādhā ya turā?: ...why, one might wonder?

An open-ended question followed by an explicit answer although the reader is led to deduce the real answer from the views so far communicated by the writer, that is, ‘because Australia is no different than other Western countries which stands against Muslims (by reference to Rushdie) and Arabs (by reference to Irving).

VII/16, 17, 18; tayyib ... Salmān Rushdie? So what ... Salman Rushdie?

Use is made of three questions with the same strategy as in V/10, 11, 12 above. The difference is that the irony is not inherent in the third question as above, but rather stems from the colloquial: tayyib: ‘so what’, as explained in VII/16 in understatement above.

Also, lexically, the use of muwāṭīnan garbiyyan: Western citizen is an ironic textual cohesive device. In other words, it is a reminder of the West’s double standard manipulation of the freedom of speech which, according to the writer, applies only when it favours the enemies of Islam and Arabs.

VIII/20, 21, 22. limādhā muniʿa Irving min ... madhbaḥati al-yahūd: Why was Irving denied ... the Jewish holocaust.

Again, a three question strategy is used as in V/10, 11, 12 above where the only plausible answer to the third rhetorical question/statement is ‘yes’. In addition to this implicit expression of opinion, irony in this instance is lexically served in the use of
three synonyms in VIII/21: \textit{al-fawḍā wa-al-fitana wa-al-khalala al-’amniyya}: ‘anarchy, riot and civil unrest’ which flouts the maxim of quantity.

1) \textbf{Question/answer:}

\textit{VI/14&15 li-mādhā yā turā?! li-’annahu, ’ayyuhā al-sādatu …: Why, one might ask?!} Because, he, dear Sirs …

Lexically, irony is marked by the address to the readership using an honorific title: dear Sirs. The inference here is deduced from the violation of the maxim of relevance through the change of register. This strategy also violates the maxim of manner given that the ostensible interpersonal function, that is, achieving maximum agreement and solidarity with the readership, does not stand.

\textit{VII/16,17, 18 tayyib ... Salmān Rushdie? So what ... Salman Rushdie?} (See discussion in ‘rhetorical devices’ above)

\textbf{m) Semotactic anomalies/contrasts:}

\textit{IV/9 wa-khaṣṣaṣū li-Rushdie ḥarasan...wa-kilāban...wa-shurtatan: and they provided guards..., dogs and policemen for Rushdie.} The use of animals: ‘dogs’ is, formally, insulting and incompatible with the human ‘policemen’ (the word dogs in Arabic refers metaphorically to ‘a bunch of bastards’. However, this cannot be demonstrated in this context). The juxtaposition of the word ‘dogs’ with police and guards gives the two nouns an associated meaning with it. This violates the maxim of quality.

\textit{Lexical devices}

\textbf{a) Repetition:} A single word repetition is, following Al-Jabr (1985, p. 186), a phenom-
enon of the indefinite sentence boundaries. In this text, it is clear that this device is part of the rhetorical intention of the whole text as well. The number of repetitions within and beyond the sentence level creates doubt in the reader’s mind as to the seriousness of the writer’s defence of the repeated concepts.

II/3, IV/8 al-ra’yu...huwa al-ra’yu...hādhā al-ra’yu, ra’yihi: opinion...is opinion...this opinion, his opinion.

Personification of the abstract is used: the opinion in II/3 has the right to express itself. This violates the maxim of manner.

Interpersonally, the victim/s are indirectly addressed through the pronoun hi: ‘his’ in IV/9.

Textually, this repetition is thematic. The use of the pronoun huwa: ‘is’ as a connective between the subject ‘opinion, and the predicate ‘opinion’ to emphasise his point, which in fact communicates the opposite meaning, that is, [the freedom of] opinion is not respected as they claim. The irony stems from the violation of the maxim of quality, given that the writer is expressing what he believes to be false.

Grammatically, use of an indirect speech act is deduced in II/3, ‘opinion, for the West, is opinion’ which reminds the readers of a statement that the West usually claims.

I/1,2 II/3 III/4,5 wa-ḥurriyati... li-ḥurriyati...fa-ḥurriyati...’an al-ḥurriyāti...ḥurriyati al-ta’biri: and the freedom...the freedom...for the freedom...the freedom[s Lit.]...the freedom of expression.

This repetition of the theme of the article infers a violation of the maxim of quantity

III/6 ’abadan ...’abadan: absolutely [Lit. never...never].

Interpersonally, the writer is mocking the victim/s using direct speech. This inference stems from the contradiction between this ‘emphatic’ statement and the on-going breach to the false Western freedom of speech value.

The ambiguity in the repetition here represents a violation of the maxim of manner.
III/5 al-dawlātī al-barītaniyyati, hādhīhi al-dawlātu: the British nation, this nation.
An indirect speech act is used. The confirmatory clause is implicitly an interjected clause emphasising the writer’s refutation of the statement in question. This analysis is based on the shift from a statement: Rushdie is one of ..., to description: this nation that has been .... This change of register is considered a breach to the maxim of relation, hence the ironic inference.

b) Lexical choice:

I/1 dawākhānā: [the West] sickened us:
The use of the colloquial form of the verb conveys an experiential function. This common word conveys bewilderment and rejection like other similar colloquial verbs that depict effect on parts of the body, e.g. ʂara 'nā: he caused us epilepsy, falaqānā: he split us apart, nafakhnā: he never stop raving to us etc..
Interpersonally, the communicative function of the word is in its informality and the inclusive ‘we’ to attract early agreement from the readership.
The stylistic use of the colloquial in such a text-type is not uncommon in Arabic. However, it always infers irony in the form of a breach of the maxim of relevance.

I/2 bi-taqdisīhi: by its sanctification:
A metaphoric verbal noun that has experiential function based on the reference to religion. The ironic inference stems from the infringement of the maxim of quality given the untruthfulness of the meaning of the word used by contrast with dawwakhānā in utterance I/1 above.

III/4 ma'ārikū ‘the battles’
A figurative expression with explicit meaning, that is, ‘utmost defence of’ does not stand for two reasons: the use of the word in the plural which violates the maxim of quality, and the contradiction between the ostensible meaning of battles and the obvi-
ous inference in the introductory sequence and the rhetorical question in V/12 which 'states' that the West is defending a writer who insulted Islam, etc.

c) Modality/adverbs:

I/1 min kathrati ḥadīthihi ‘an: by its abundant raving about:
Grammatically, use is made of a causative adverbial conjunction ‘min’: by reason of. This conjunction is used in the colloquial form which is standard Arabic for ‘bi-sababi’ or ‘li’, i.e. by reason of or because.
The colloquial form marks interpersonal function that seeks solidarity with the readership.

III/6 'abadan: never
An adverb is used marking an interpersonal function. The writer mocks the victim by repeating her emphatic adverb.

d) Antonyms:

II/3 khayrān kāna 'am sharran, ṣāliyan kāna 'am wāṭi’an, jamīlan kāna am qabī-ḥan: beneficial or evil, high [ly-ranked] or low, beautiful or ugly.
This is a cumulation (see cumulation above) that has an interpersonal function in the form of praise in order to blame. There is a violation of the maxim of quantity.

IV/7 wa-'aqāma al-gharbu al-dunyā wa-lam yuqīdē: the West has lifted [stirred] the world up and hasn’t put it back to its original state.
Textually, this is an aesthetic device using a negated antonym which is a departure from the conventional use of the idiomatic expression. This is considered a violation of the maxim of quality.
VI/15 li-‘istidrāri ‘atfī al-‘alami, wa-‘ibtiżāzīhi: to seek [gain of] the world’s sympathy, and to exploit it;
Textually, there is a juxtaposition of opposites that mean the same: exploit. This is a violation of the maxim of manner.

e) Synonyms: This is a recurrence of the same theme. It is another device for ridiculing the issue by flouting the maxim of quantity.

I/1,2 III/5 ḥurriyatī al-ra‘yī ...ḥurriyatī al-fikri, ḥurriyatī al-ta‘bīri: freedom of opinion...freedom of thought...freedom of expression;
Textually, the synonyms are used here as a set of cohesive devices. However, the writer’s rebuttal of the West’s idea of freedom as discussed so far, infers a violation to the maxim of quantity.

III/5 ta‘assasat wa-buniyat: has been founded and built on; IV/8 yuḥawir wa-yuŷūdīl: Interacting and arguing; VII/19 ‘adillatin wa-barāḥīna...li-al-ḥiwrā wa- al-munāzaratī: proof and demonstrations...for discussion and debate, marīḍu al-fikri mawbū‘u al-khayālī: sick-minded and an infested imagination; VIII/21 al-fawdā wa- al-fitani: the anarchy and riots.
These synonyms are commonly used in Arabic rhetoric. In this text they represent a set of collocations used, aesthetically, to emphasise a point or to convince the readers. Nevertheless, their frequency of use here is considered an infringement of the maxim of quantity, cf. VII/19.

f) Binomial/Lexical repetition:

I/1 ‘aşamma al-gharbu ‘aḍhānanā wa-dawwakhanā: the West has deafened and sickened us;
An aesthetic and emphatic device: The idea of emphasising the intended meaning in
parallelism is part of the Arabic aural mode. (see examples of forms of aurality mode in grammatical devices in text 1). Experientially, use is made of connotation, colloquialism and effect on parts of the body.

IV/8 bi-ṣuḥufihi wa-ʿidhāʾatihi, bi-sufarāʾihi wa-wuzarāʾihi: with its newspapers and radio broadcasts, its ambassadors and ministers;
Again, this synonymy and near-synonymy carries textual aesthetic function. Both utterances flout the maxim of quantity.

g) **Personification of abstract:**

I/1 aṣamma al-gharbu, III/4 maʿariku al-gharbi...tabannīhi...wa-ʿistihfānihi: the West deafened, the battles of the West...its [Lit. his] adoption...and its disapproval. The connotation in the effect on parts of the body marks an experiential function, cf. I/1.
Textually, the repetition of 'the West' which has a referential meaning to the theme, is a strategy used to conceal the victim, but not to conceal the attack on it. Interpersonally, the three utterances are overstatements that violate the maxim of quality.

h) **Figurative language:**

III/6 hādhā al-maʿqilu al-hāmmu: this important stronghold.

Textually, this is an anaphoric reference to the theme 'the freedom of thought'. The pompous meaning of the noun 'stronghold' clashes with the views conveyed in the introductory sequence. Hence the inference that the writer means the opposite of what he says.
Experientially, the idiomatic expression 'maʿqilun hāmmun' is commonly used in 'non-deviant' texts.
The use of the adjective ‘important’ flouts the maxim of quality because the writer has already mocked the West’s freedom of speech in the introduction.

i) Inconsistency in the use of honorifics: In Arabic, honorifics are maintained even in ironic prose. Other implicit means are used to suggest the opposite of what the writer wants to say about his victim, such as, repetition and inappropriate praise through the use of honorifics. In this text, the use of honorifics was explicit, reflecting a lack of respect to the person/s in question, thus all titles could not be considered seriously.

III/5,6 al-sayyidatu Margaret Tatchar, misiz Tatcher: Mrs Margaret Thatcher, Mrs Thatcher.
Experientially, this is an infringement of the normal honorific use for naming a lady by transliterating Mrs. This violates the maxim of quality.

j) Paraphrasing:

I/1 diminātīyyīti wa-hurriyati al-ra‘ī wa-al-mu‘taqadi: Democracies and the freedom of speech and religion.
The meaning of the utterance stems from its context. The writer assumes the background knowledge of his readership and wants to assert his position with regard to these Western values, that is, his belief that they don’t exist. This interpretation stems from the paraphrase as well as the use of the colloquial verb dawwakhanā: ‘sickened’ and the colloquial conjunctive adverb in I/1: min: because.

Grammatical devices

a) Reference:

Exophoric reference:
I/1 al-gharbu: the West.
This word has an experiential function. In Arabic the use of the concept 'West' instead of the 'Western countries' always has a certain connotation, mainly a critical attack on the West. Its personification and use with the verb 'deafened' creates the intended bitter sarcasm or, following Muecke (1969), the displayed irony.

III/6 ḥadhā al-maʿqili al-ḥāmmi, wa-al-ʿirthi al-ḥaḍāriyyī al-kabīri: this important stronghold, and great cultural heritage (see figurative language above).

maʿqil: 'stronghold' and ʿirth haḍāri: 'cultural heritage' are both references to the theme 'freedom of thought'. The ironic inference stems from the assumed overstatement in contrast with the introduction of the article. Experientially, the two 'coordinated' phrases are used as discussed above, in non-deviant texts.

Similarly, the adjectives: ḥām: 'important' and kabi: 'great' obviously impart the writer's opposite views.

All the above is considered an infringement of the maxim of quality.

VII/17 fī biladīn ghariyyatin tuʿminu bi-al-ḥurriyyātī: Western countries which believe in freedoms:

Textually, the irony in the theme of the article is reiterated for emphasis, cf. I/1 the West, VII/16 Western country, VII/17 Western nations.

Lexically, use is made of a synonym: tuʿminu: 'believes', a reference to the ironic word (see lexical choice above) tuqaddisu: sanctifies/worships/values.

b) Redundancy:

IV/8 al-muslimūna al-barbara wa-al-mutakhallīfūna: the barbaric and under-developed Muslims:

This is a statement that has an interpersonal function using free indirect speech. The use of near-synonymous adjectives to attack the Muslims by a Muslim writer who is defending Islam in the article conveys, rhetorically, blaming in order to praise, given the inappropriateness of the blame. This violates the maxim of manner.

A textual device that makes use of synonyms, striking an aesthetic chord to enchant the readers. Conversationally, this device violates the maxim of quantity.

VIII/23 akḥātabūtun lahu ‘alfu ra’sin, wa-milyūnu dhirā’in: an octopus with a hundred heads, and one million hands.

The writer expresses a personal opinion about the Jewish lobby using an exaggerated description of a simile: ‘octopus’. This violates the maxim of quantity.

c) Inversion:

III/4 wa-‘akhiru ma‘ārikū al-gharbi...kāna tabannihi: and the latest battles of the West was its adoption of...;

The theme fronting communicates an interpersonal function by putting the emphasis on the concept: West.

The metaphor ‘battles’, as explained in the lexical choice device above, coupled with the adjective ‘akhir: ‘the last’ contributes, experientially, to the irony with regard to the foregrounding of the incorrect statement.

A textual argumentative strategy to substantiate the thesis of the topic is also used through the connective wa: ‘and’ at the beginning of the utterance.

d) The use of khabar: predicate:

II/3 ṣaḥīḥan ... hādhā al-ra’yu...khayran ... sharran...‘aliyan ...waṭi’an ...jamīlan ... qabiḥan: whether true this opinion ... beneficial ... evil ... high [ly ranked] ... low ... beautiful ... ugly;

Here there is a string of predicates to one subject: ‘opinion’. This marks a textual, aesthetic and emphatic function. It infers irony based on the exaggeration of the number of predicates used and the false collocation in one instance: high or low [opinion].

This device violates the maxim of quantity.
e) Free indirect speech:

II/3 huwa al-ra'yu wa-lahu..., 'alā ḥaddi ta'birīhi, ... bi-ḥaddi dhātihā: is opinion and it has, according to it, ... in itself:

Interpersonally, the writer is using, explicitly, a detached opposing view to the quotation/statement through a subordinate clause 'according to it'.

Experientially, the alleged quote flouts the maxim of quality, given the use of an exaggerated and unsubstantiated quote made by the West.

Direct speech:

III/6 wa-nahnu, wa-al-kalāmu lā yazālu li-misiz Tatcher; ghayra musta'idīn 'abadan li-al-tanāzuli 'an ħādhā al-ma'qili al-hāmmi wa-al-'irthī al-ḥaḍāriyyī al-hāmmi: And we, in Mrs Thatcher’s words, are absolutely not prepared to relinquish this important stronghold and great cultural heritage.

The writer exaggerates Thatcher’s quote (no quotation marks used) through lexical and grammatical items: an adverb: absolutely, a negation of future action: not prepared, a verb: to relinquish, nouns: stronghold, cultural heritage and the adjectives: important and great.

This utterance marks an infringement of the maxim of quality given the incorrectness of the information.

f) Absolute/cognate object:

I/2 wa-khuṣūsan: and especially:

This is an interpersonal opinion marker: In this context it conveys a false emphatic opinion given that the writer believes, in contrast with utterances I/1, V/12 and VII/19, that the West is oppressing the freedom of speech, and not, as the absolute object suggests, ‘especially sanctifying the freedom of speech’. This is an indication of a breach of the maxim of quality.
g) Simile

VII/16 wa-man’ihi min dukhūli dawlatin gharbiyyatin tuqaddisu ... ka-‘ustrālia: and preventing him from entering a Western country that sanctifies ... as Australia:

This is a textual device that infers its meaning from the context. The writer repeats the words tuqaddisu and gharb: ‘sanctify’ and ‘West’, associating Australia with the West. This reiterates the irony employed in the introduction.

h) The use of ḥāl:

IV/8 difā’an: in defence of.

Emphatic ḥāl. Use is made of an adverb of manner. It conveys an interpersonal function marking the victim’s opinion (through an indirect speech act). However, the writer’s views on Rushdie in VII/19, undermines the thesis that the West is defending the freedom of speech by defending Rushdie.

These two contradicting opinion markers (although one is in an indirect speech act) violate the maxim of manner.
Communicative Function of the Structure

*Text-type focus:* counterargument

*Direct/Indirect speech acts:*

Sequence I

- Propositional meaning: The West exaggerates its dedication to freedom especially in reference to the third world countries.
- Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of quality: by the use of overstatement, triggered by I/1: 'ṣamma al-ghārbi ṭāḥānā wa-ḍawwakhanā: The West deafened and sickened us.
- Illocutionary force: We are fed up with the West’s claim that, unlike us the people of the third world, it practises democracy.
- Sign: Thesis cited to be substantiated.

S. II

- Propositional meaning: The West says that it respects the freedom of opinion at all costs.
- Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of quantity by using praise in order to blame in II/3.
- Illocutionary force: We have different views from the West regarding the freedom of speech.
- Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. III

- Propositional meaning: The West defended Salman Rushdie and stood by his country’s side. Thatcher pledged to defend Rushdie to the end.
- Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner through the ambiguity of expression in III/4, and the maxim of quality through the pretended agreement with the victim in III/5.
• Illocutionary force: One example of the West's claim of defending the freedom of speech is Rushdie's case who, in fact, deserves the Imam Khoumeini's opinion (fatwā) that he should be executed.

• Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. IV

• Propositional meaning: The West over-protected Rushdie with every possible means.

• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxims of quantity using contrast and overstatement in IV/8,9, and manner using self-disparaging in IV/8: 'the barbaric and ...Muslims' etc.

• Illocutionary force: The West did its utmost to protect Rushdie and took this opportunity to launch a campaign against us, Muslims, whose threat to Rushdie is justified.

• Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. V

• Propositional meaning: The West's motives behind defending Rushdie are not clear, but there is more to tell you.

• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner using rhetorical questions in V/10,11,12.

• Illocutionary force: The West has an anti-Islamic attitude. I will give you an example to this effect.

• Sign: Thesis substantiated preparing the grounds for counterargument.

S. VI

• Propositional meaning: The refusal to give an entry permit to the historian Irving on the grounds that he has inflammatory views regarding the Jewish holocaust.

• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of quality and quantity by the use of pretended agreement with the victim and overstatement in VI/15, respectively.
• Illocutionary force: Irving is denied an entry visa because of his personal plausible views.
• Sign: Counterargument.

S. VII
• Propositional meaning: Irving has the same rights as Rushdie. He has logical proof of his claims, while Rushdie’s book was written by a sick, unreliable person.
• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxims of relevance and manner through the use of colloquialism and ellipsis in VII/16, respectively.
• Illocutionary force: Why this double standard dealing with the freedom of speech? Irving has a well-founded claim.
• Sign: Counterargument.

S. VIII
• Propositional meaning: Irving has been denied a visa by the authorities owing to the Jewish lobby because of his controversial views. Irving, we, the freedom lovers support you.
• Conversational strategy: Flouting the maxims of manner using the rhetorical question in VIII/21
• Illocutionary force: It is obvious that Irving is denied entry because he revealed the truth about the alleged holocaust. The Australian authorities are pro-Jew.
The West does not practise what it preaches.
• Sign: Conclusion.
The Text's Rhetorical Meaning

**Attitude**

The writer, proud of his cultural background, mocks the West and its freedom of speech by comparing the controversial anti-Islam writer Salman Rushdie with the British historian David Irving. He uses an extensive variety of ironic devices to present his opposing views to Rushdie and his advocate, the Western world. In order to get his message across, the writer resorts to a number of conventional rhetorical devices including the set of rhetorical questions mentioned above.

His attitude towards the persons mentioned or the West is reflected through the way they are named in the text:

- Metaphorically: *al-gharbu*: the West; III/5 *al-dawlatu al-barţāniyyatu*: the British state; VIII/21 *sa-yajlubu ‘alā ‘ustrālia*...: he [Irving] will bring to Australia...

**Province**

The text attempts to draw a counterargument to the opponents’ views in an ironic manner. This textual strategy is not preferred in Arabic commentary writing (for a dis-
cussion on argumentative style see Hatim 1989, p. 25). The writer’s counterargument, however, was not substantiated and was religiously and politically motivated; this is evident in the lack of use of intertextuality and exophoric reference on the one hand and the abundance of use of collocations and rhetorical questions on the other hand.

*Participation*

The assumed readership represents Arab nationalists, particularly Muslims, in Australia. The writer shows solidarity with his readers through the use of the first person plural, the frequencies of the use of three dots and rhetorical questions calling for the learned readers’ agreement, for example, VI/15 *‘ayyuhā al-sadatu*: Dear Sirs, to infer the knowledge they share with him which goes without being said explicitly.
BACKGROUND FEATURE ARTICLE


Writer: Antoine Kazzi

Title: Al-'Adâlatu wa-'Asâbû Al-Manâjîmi: Justice and Mine Owners.

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Ambiguity:

The title: al-'adâlatu wa-'asâbû al-manâjîmi: Justice and mine owners.

Implied antithesis. A topical title that capitalises on the participation of the readers discussing a moral/political issue (see Muecke 1982, p. 55). Inherent contradictory elements are marked by the use of the concepts justice and wealth. The obvious ideational function of this utterance is saying that wealth can’t buy justice. There is a violation of the maxim of manner.

b) Internal contradiction:

I/1 muta'ashshiqû al-maddati yatahaddathûna 'an ḥuqûqi al-'insâni: the lovers of material possession are talking about human rights:

Paraphrase of the title: mine owners are money lovers and human rights represents justice. This device has an ideational function as above and a textual function given that it is a contextual reference.

Again there is a violation of the maxim of manner.
c) Analogy:

III/4 maʿlūmātī al-sayyid Morgan al-nāpūlyūniyyati hiya bi-mustawā manājimihī: Mr Morgan’s Napoleonic information is at the level of his mines:

Lexically, the writer chose the use of honorifics: al-sayyid: ‘Mr’, an indirect appeal, which contradicts the analogy ‘information at the level of mines’. This imparts a breach of the maxim of quality.

Grammatically, use is made of a nominal adjective: Napoleonic, a reference to Morgan’s earlier statement, which also violates the maxim of quality.

This analogy has an interpersonal function, in that it isolates Morgan from ‘us’.

III/4 maʿlūmātī hiya bi-mustawā manājimihī ay taḥta al-ʿardī: information which is at the level of his mines, which means under the ground.

Grammatically, a resumptive pronoun is used for emphasis: hiya, ‘which is’. Lexically, a paraphrase is used: ‘that means under the ground’, which is considered an explicit ironic marker given its double meaning: the referential and the connotative. This flouts the maxim of manner.

The use of the adjective ‘Napoleonic’ is a feature of intertextuality. The collocation between this adjective and information is situational, that is, peculiar to the Arabic language, hence the inference based on the infringement of the maxim of manner.

Interpersonally, the utterance addresses Morgan indirectly: ‘it seems your Napoleonic information etc.’, a typical strategy of argumentative style.

The analogy here does not stand in general and violates the maxim of quality.

d) Overstatement:

III/4 maʿlūmātun napūlyūniyyatun: Napoleonic information:

An anaphoric reference using a nominal adjective. As discussed above, the irony stems here from the violation of the maxim of manner.
IV/8 sar‘atin ‘i’lāmiyyatin: a media hype:

Lexically, this is an unusual collocation. sar‘a: ‘hype’ is used in social news e.g. sar‘atu al-mawsimi: The craze of the season [in the fashion design context]. In this political context it conveys irony in the statement of the utterance, depicting the information as unfounded and as having no substance. This contradiction with the ostensible meaning attracts the violation of the maxim of manner.

e) Pretended advice to the victim:

V/11 wa-law kāna al-sayyid Morgan ya‘ī mā yaqūlu la-‘adā qalīlan ‘ilā al-tārikhi wa-la-qara’a ... wa-la-‘alima ‘anna ha’ulā’ā ‘āshū ...: and if Mr Morgan was serious about what he says he would have gone back to history a little, and he would have read ... and learned that those have lived ...:

Grammatically, the use of conditional style: law ... la ... wa-la... wa-la...: if ... [he] would ... and [he] would etc. imparts the advice to the victim. However, the use of honorific title: al-sayyid: ‘Mr’ infers a fallacious naming based on the irony in utterance 4 (see overstatement above), and the pretended advice. This leads to the violation of the maxim of quality.

The utterance has also an interpersonal function given the address to the victim, ‘we advise you, Morgan, to review your history first.’

f) Understatement:

V/11 la-‘ada qalīlan: he would have gone back [in memory] a little.

An adverb of quantity is used qalīlan: ‘a little’.

Incongruity is detected in this utterance given the fact that reviewing European history logically needs more than a quick glance [lit. a little time]. This gives the utterance an ideational function and infringes the maxim of quality.
g) Parallel structure:

V/11 la’ada qalîlan ‘îlâ al-tarîkhî...wa-la-qara’a min ‘ayna ‘istaqâ...wa-la-‘alîma ‘anna ha’ulâ‘a...: he would have gone back to history for a while...and he would have read the source from which...and he would have learned that those...:

There is indirect address to the victim using the third person singular.

A repetition of the answer to the conditional lia: ‘[he] would have’ is used. This infringes the maxim of quantity.

IX/17,18 fa-hal bi-al-lawni...wa-hal si’atu ...wa-hal tastaqîmu...: is it by the colour...and is it by the [bank] account...and does [justice] prevail...:

Grammatical: three consecutive rhetorical questions. The irony here stems from the repetition of the question particle hal: ‘is it’ which infringes the maxim of quantity by flouting the brevity of speech.

h) Cumulation:

I/1 yataḥaddathûna ‘an ḥuqûqi al-‘insâni wa-yusharri’ûna wa-yunaẓẓirûna: speaking about human rights, legalising and theorising:

Lexically, use is made of near-synonyms. The writer hammers his readers with three synonymous verbs where the object is a moral issue: ‘human rights’ in an attempt to enchant the readers, convince them and to gain their earlier agreement.

This is considered a violation of the maxim of quantity.

i) Rhetorical questions:

IX/17, 18: fa-hal bi-al-lawni ... al-ma’rifati?; wa-hal tastaqîmu ... aşhûbu al-manâji-mi?: Is it by colour that ... knowledge?; And does [justice] prevail ... mine owners?

These three questions carry a number of ironic triggers, namely:

• The use of two metaphors: ‘skin colour’ helps survival; and ‘wealth’ means knowledge.
- Condensation/Pun in the first question *fa-hal bi-al-lawnī waḥdahī yahyā al-‘insānu?:* is it by colour only that man survives? [is it colour only that matters?]. The pun in this instance stems from the play on the original Arabic proverb's words: 'not by bread alone does man survive' which flouts the maxim of relevance. The irony here is based on the experiential function of the utterance given that the inference is deduced from a cultural reference.

- Repetition of 'Justice' and 'mine owners' which is a reiteration of the original thesis and a cohesive device.

- Grammatically, there is a repetition of the question particle: *hal* 'is it/ does it' (see parallel structure above)

- Textual references: the three themes of the questions are retrievable from the text, that is, colour: Aboriginal culture; bank account: mine owners; justice: human rights. This insinuated style could come under violation of the maxim of manner.

**j) Cliché:**

**IV/9** *la-‘akalati al-kabīratu minhā al-ṣaghirata:* the bigger [culture] would have eaten the smaller..

A Condensation/Pun is used. Again the writer plays on the original Arabic saying: 'the bigger fish eats the smaller'. Irony stems here from the violation of the maxim of quality based on a cultural reference.

**VII/14** *wa-naḥnu lá nasfa‘ī‘u al-‘ikhtifa‘a khalfa ‘aṣabi‘anā:* and we are unable to disappear behind our fingers.

A spelling mistake is detected here: *al-‘ikhtibā‘a:* hide is the right word in the cliché. The device would not have a special ironic effect by the intentional misspelling of the word.

Grammatically, the use of specification *naḥnu:* 'we' stresses the inference of the ellipted accusative noun: 'Australians', while lexically, a metaphor is used: 'hiding
behind fingers'. This self-disparaging style and the impossibility of the proposition are considered violation of the maxim of quality.

The utterance has a subtle interpersonal function which requires the participation of the readers and makes indirect address to the victim.

k) Semotactic anomalies:

The title: *al-‘adālatu wa-‘aṣḥābu al-manājimi*: Justice and mine owners:

Lexically, ellipsis is used, while grammatically, a conjunction: *wa*; 'and' is used with an adverbial conjunction function that means 'versus'.

A nominal cataphoric reference: both nouns constitute the theme of the text to come.

The concise and ambiguous style constitute a breach of the maxim of quantity and manner, respectively.

IV/8 *ḥaḍarati al-‘inklīzi wa jazīrati al-tanaki*: the English and the isle of tin [sic!]
civilisation:

'Isle of tin' was not found in any reference book (although the writer of the article defended his descriptive nominal phrase claiming that Britain is historically known as the isle of tin!). In any case, it is considered here as infringement of the maxim of manner, given the use of a word that is out of place (stylistic placing, (Muecke 1969)).

*Lexical devices*

a) Binomials:

I/1 *wa-yusharri‘ūna wa-yunazzirūna*: and legislating and theorising;

Lexical repetition in the form of synonyms is used.

VIII/16 *ṭaliqūna 'abriyā‘a*: free [and] innocent.
Lexical repetition: synonyms are used with no connective wa: 'and'.

Both devices are used aesthetically for emphasis. This strategy is common in Arabic style (Emery, 1991); the ironic inference, however, stems in the first instance from the use of the adjective chosen for the subject: 'money lovers' ... are legislating ..., while the second binomials considered a violation to the maxim of quantity given the syntactic structure dictated by the emphatic particle 'amma' : 'as for' which is an opinion marker, that is, tamma 'i'tiqālu al-āsyawiyīna ammā al-bīḍu fa-talīqūna 'abriyā': The Asians were arrested but 'as for' the whites they are free [and] innocent, in contrast with the news report structure: tamma 'i'tiqālu al-āsyawiyīna wa-iṭlaqū sarāhi al-bīḍī: The Asians were arrested and 'the whites set free'.

b) Lexical choice:

III/4 maʿlumātī ... Morgan al-nāpūlyūniyyati: ... Morgan's Napoleonic information. An opinion marker using an exaggerated adjective. This adjective is a contextual reference (II/3). The surface ambiguity is a violation of the maxim of manner.

IV/10 wa-saqāṭa min bālī al-sayyid ...: and it skipped [lit. fell from] the memory of Mr...:
This is an idiomatic expression commonly used in writing for bitter sarcastic remarks. This intertextuality marks an experiential function.

The use of the honorific marker 'Mr' is untruthful in contrast with the idiomatic expression. Hence, it asserts the ironic intention given the assumption that one cannot show respect to someone and at the same time make a sarcastic remark about them unless they mean the opposite. This textual manipulation imparts infringement of the maxim of quality.

c) Figurative language:

I/1 mutaʿashshiqū al-māddāt: the lovers of material possession;
Experientially, the connotative meaning of the metaphor, that is, materialising the abstract, imparts ironic opinion.

II/2 yaqfizu min manājimihi 'ilā 'ilmī al-ḥafaẓrātī: he leaps from his mines to archaeology; Experientially, staging is used: leaps from. This is considered an opinion marker that violates the maxim of quality, given the implausibility of the propositional meaning.

II/3 yaḥmilu liwā‘a qaḍiyyatī Mabo: carrying the flag of the Mabo case; This is another staging strategy using a collocation: yaḥmilu liwā‘a: carrying the flag [lit. in the front leading the attack]. A violation of the maxim of quality is communicated here also.

III/4 ma‘tūnātī Morgan...taḥta al-‘ardī: Morgan’s information ...is under the ground; This utterance has an experiential function based on the double meaning of taḥta al-‘ardī: under the ground. (see III/4 in ‘analogy’ above)

IV/8 ṣar‘atīn 'i’tāmiyyatīn: media hype [lit.: craze]; (see discussion on overstatement, IV/8 above).

V/12 wa-taqwawqaw‘a al-yūnānu wa-taḥajjamat ʻimbarāfūriyyātu al-mashriqi: the Greeks seashelled and the empires of the East have shrunk; Experientially, there is the use of a connotation. Persons are given the quality of animals. This metaphor violates the maxim of quality.

VII/14 al-‘ikhtifā‘a khalfā 'aṣābi‘anā: to hide behind our fingers; An idiomatic expression is used which marks an experiential function. The irony stems from the contrast between ‘accusing China for its atrocities towards its people’ and ‘we [the white Australians] are even worse, considering our racial views’. This device violates the maxim of manner given the ambiguity of the expression.
VIII/15 faṣlan 'unṣuriyyan: a racial chapter;
A textual cataphoric reference which ironic inference stems from the experiential connotative meaning of the subject faṣlan: chapter. The false proposition here flouts the maxim of quality.

IX/17 si‘atu al-juyūbī: pockets’ size [lit. large bank accounts]
Experientially, use is made of a fixed expression which has two metaphoric meanings: large bank accounts or corrupt and dishonest people. Contextually, the first meaning stands here. This imparts the violation of the maxim of manner, hence, the irony.

d) Repetition:

III/4, IV/8, IV/10; V/11, VI/13 al-sayyid Morgan: Mr Morgan: A device that emphasises a bitter sarcastic remark about Hugh Morgan in this context (see examples in lexical choice above).
Interpersonally, this device communicates doubts about the earnestness of the writer. This is a violation of the maxim of quantity (the repetition) as well as quality (the untruthful intention of the use of honorific title).

e) Proverb:

IX/17 bi-al-lawni waḥdahu yahyā al-ʿinsānū: by colour only man survives. Play on words.
(See explanation on rhetorical questions above.)

f) Personification of abstract:

IV/9 wa-kaʿanna ḥaḍāratī al-ʿālamī yajibu ʿan takūna ...waʿillā laʿakalati al-kabīrūn ṭamuḥā al-saghirātā: as if the world’s civilisations must be...otherwise the bigger
[culture] would have eaten the smaller.

(See discussion on clichés in rhetorical devices above).

g) Collocations:

II/3 yaḥmilu liwā‘a: carrying the flag of:

(See discussion on figurative language above).

III/5 wa-ghāba ‘an bālihi: and he forgot [lit. it slipped his mind]

Interpersonally, use is made of an idiomatic expression addressing the victim indirectly: ‘you must have forgotten that etc.’. The ironic inference is in the textual function of the device: The victim is told that his information is Napoleonic ‘given that he ...’ which marks pretended ignorance, i.e. ignoring the irony in the use of the adjective ‘Napoleonic’ by using a non-deviant idiomatic expression. This could be labelled under infringement of the maxim of relation because of the change of register.

IV/8 ṣālqa al-‘ināna: he let loose [the harness]:

The ironic inference here is experiential. An idiomatic expression related to ancient Arab life is used.

IV/10 wa-saqāta min bāli mr...: and it slipped the mind of Mr...

(see lexical choice above).

V/11 ʿashū ‘alā ʿanqāḏi ḫaṭārāti...: they lived on [owing to] the debris [the heritage] of the cultures ... .

Experientially, ʿanqāḏ: ‘debris’ is a historical reference to the Europeans and English cultures. The writer defends the aboriginal culture by comparing it with the culture of the victim of irony which was originally adopted from various ancient cultures.

There is a violation of the maxim of manner considering the obscurity of expression.
VII/14 *tafuḥu min tašarīḥihim rāʾiḥatu al-ʿunṣuriyyaṭi*: their statements smell racism. Interpersonally, this is a statement of opinion using a collocation: *tafuḥu rāʾiḥatu*: it smells [lit. the odour smells]. The use of a collocation which is slightly out of place imparts a violation of the maxim of relation.

h) Chain of collocational cohesion:

I/1 *mutaʿashshiqū al-māddati...*: the lovers of material possession...; II/2 *ṣaḥibu al-manājim...manājimiḥi...*: the mines’ owner...his mines...; IV/10 *la-ʾakalati al-kabīrātu...*: the richer [cultures] would have eaten...; IX/17 *siʾatu al-juyūbi...*: the bank account...; IX/18 *ʿašḥābu al-manājimi*: the mine owners.

Experientially, the chain of collocations is in the use of figurative expressions. On the textual level, the device is considered thematic given its link with the victim of irony: mine owners.

The irony rests also in the device’s interpersonal function in the form of an indirect address to the victim and in the use of adjectives denoting [lit] a group of people in the rhetorical questions. This variety of deviant adjectives is a violation to the maxim of manner.

i) Naming of the participants:

This is an interpersonal device, given that “The way characters are named in a text is often part of focalization in discourse” (Stephens 1992, p. 94). This is achieved:

Metaphorically, as in I/1 *mutaʿashshiqū al-māddati*: the money lovers; through reference with a shift of register, e.g. the use of formal collocation, as in I/1 *huqūqu al-ʾinsāni*: mankind’s rights; the use of a cultural reference, as in III/6 *qawmin*: tribesmen / people; and finally the false use of honorifics calling Hugh Morgan *al-sayyid*: Mr, throughout the text.
Grammatical devices

a) Conjunction:

I/1 wa-bāta al-ṣināʾīyyūna ...: and the industrialists are ...;
Interpersonally, an informal marker is used instead of the formal ‘laqad’; it requires
participation given that it presupposes the readers’ awareness of an earlier setting, that
is, situation, texts or statement/s. This intertextuality gives the device an experiential
function.
Given its odd position as an argumentative gambit, wa: ‘and’, here, has an aesthetic
textual function. This stylistic placement and the inherent ellipsis represent a viola-
tion of the maxim of manner.

b) Catenative verb construction:

III/4 wa-yabdū ‘anna ...hiya bi-mustawā: it seems that...is at the level of...;
Interpersonal: In this text-type the use of yabdū reflects a rejected attitude of the
writer to the following statement. The explicit meaning of ‘yabdū’ is possibility,
detachment and objectivity. Like rhetorical questions, it, implicitly, always communici-
tates a forceful statement, i.e. certainly ...
In such an argumentative context, the device infringes the maxim of quality, hence,
the ironic inference.

c) The use of conditional sentence:

The use of conditional sentences consists of protasis, i.e. the condition, and an apo-
dosis, i.e. answer (or result clauses, according to Abboud et al., 1971) of the condition,
“... which is the main sentence expressing what will result from the condition.”
(Haywood and Nahmad 1965, p. 290). According to Wright (1981, P. 347), the parti-
cle law: if, “... which forms hypothetical clauses ... implies that what is supposed either
does not take place or is not likely to do so ...”, (see V/11 below). The likely condi-
tion, following Haywood and Nahmad, “... is usually introduced by 'in or 'idhā [:
if]...” (p. 291).

V/11 wa-law kāna al-sayyid Morgan ya'ni mā yaqūlu la-‘āda...wa-la-qara‘ā...wa-la-
‘alima: If Mr Morgan was serious about what he said, he would have referred
back...and he would have read...and he would have learned...;

The conditional construction here communicates an interpersonal function in the form
of a pretended advice to victim. (See parallel structure above).

VI/13 wa-'idhā kāna al-'amru kamā yarāhu al-sayyid: and if the matter was as Mr ...
sees it.

Textually, use is made of a conditional, 'idhā: if, is followed by two rhetorical que-
tions, which is a standardised colloquial variation in Arabic, coupled with an untruth-
ful use of honorific, al-sayyid: Mr, and a contextual reference to the victim’s state-
ment, al-amru: the matter. These intricate devices impart an emphatic, interpersonal
and hypothetical (Leech & Svartvik 1994) statement: what you are saying, Morgan,
is not true. In other words, reference is made to present time and not the ostensible
past. This relative obscurity, marked by the departure from the grammatical norm
conveys a breach of the maxim of manner.

d) Free indirect speech:

II/3 wa-'anna Keating 'idhā mā 'istamarra...sukkānu Moscow madinatahum 'amāma
al-ghuzā'ī: and that Keating, ‘if Keating continues ... the inhabitants of Moscow to
their city in front of the invaders’;

IV/8 ḥīna ra‘a ‘anna al-ḥadārata al-aburiginiyyata law kānat qawiyyatan lamā...:
when he noted that ‘if the Aboriginal culture was rich it would not ...’
Textually, both indirect ‘quotes’ attain their ironic inference in contrast with the previous statement of opinion and the following undermining argument. In the first device, this is indicated by the transitions in II/2 *yaqṣizu* ... *yushabbihu*: jumps ... likens etc. (see figurative language above); while in the second device in IV/8 the transition *alṭaqa al-‘ināna* ... *ḥīna ra‘ā*: he let loose ... when he thought ... (see overstatement above), communicate the inference.

e) Reference:

- Anaphoric: VI/13 *al-‘amru*: the matter, VII/14 *‘unāsun*: people. Two textual references to the irony in the indirect speech act, that is, the victim’s infuriating statement and the victim respectively.


(See figurative language above).

- Exophoric: The writer resorts to devices that mark interpersonal and experiential functions. He calls on the Arabic readers’ historic background and cultural solidarity in a ‘them against us’ style in: I/1 the industrialists versus human rights; II/3 *Nāpūliyyūn, qawmin*: Napoleon, people [the Aborigines]; V/12 *taḥajjamat ‘imbarā-ňūriyyatu al-mashriqi*: the Eastern empires shrank [but still, you can’t ignore our culture].
Communicative Function of the Structure

Text-type focus: through argument

Direct/Indirect speech acts:

Sequence I

- Propositional meaning: Rich industrialists have no right to talk about human rights.
- Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of quantity by the use of cumulation in I/1: yatahaddathūna'an ḥuqūqi al-ʾinsāni wa-yusharriʿūna wa-yunaẓẓirūna: speaking about the human rights, legalising and theorising.
- Illocutionary force: Rich industrialists should not interfere in politics.
- Sign: Thesis cited to be substantiated.

S. II

- Propositional meaning: Hugh Morgan, a wealthy mine owner, launches an attack on Keating over the Mabo issue.
- Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of manner through the use of figuraiive language in II/2: yaqīṣu min manājimithi: leaps from his mines.
- Illocutionary force: Hugh Morgan, the mining personality, is trying to impress us with a historic analogy.
- Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. III

- Propositional meaning: Morgan’s information on history is not plausible.
- Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of quality using analogy III/4 maʿlūmātī ... taḥta al-ʿardī: information ... below the ground.
- Illocutionary force: Morgan’s analogy is pathetic.
- Sign: Argument.
S. IV

- Propositional meaning: Morgan also declares his opposing views to the Aboriginal culture. Cultures are not equal. However, Australia endeavours to implement, and proud of, its multiculturalism.

- Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner through the metaphor in IV/7 šar‘atīn ‘i‘lāmiyyatin: a media craze; the idiomatic expression in V/10:wa-saqāṭa min bāli al-sayyid ...: and it skipped the memory of Mr...; and the collocation in IV/8: šar‘atīn ‘i‘lāmiyyatin: a media hype.

- Illocutionary force: Morgan shows his lack of cultural knowledge. He needs a lesson on culture: Morgan, look at Australia, it is benefiting from multiculturalism.

- Sign: Argument.

S. V

- Propositional meaning: Morgan’s statement cannot be taken seriously because he lacks the knowledge of the evolution of the European and English cultures.

- Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of manner: the use of a conditional sentence V/11: la‘āda ... he would have referred, and the maxim of quality in the use of adverb of quality qalīlan: a little ....

- Illocutionary force: The Aboriginal culture is genuine unlike the European and English cultures which were inherited from, among others, our Eastern culture.

- Sign: Argument.

S. VI

- Propositional meaning: Morgan is wrong. This is evident from the policy adopted by the Government to legalise the teaching of languages other than English in secondary schools.

- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxims of quality and manner using conditional construction and honorifics respectively in VI/13: wa-‘idhā kāna al-‘amrū kamā yarāhu al-sayyid: and if the matter was as Mr ... sees it.
• Illocutionary force: What you are saying, Morgan, is not true because the government adopted multiculturalism in Australia.

• Sign: Argument.

S. VII

• Propositional meaning: How are we going to host the Olympics with this mentality? We should clean up our own backyard before throwing accusations concerning human rights at other countries.

• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner using a metaphor in VII/14 ra‘iḥatu al-‘unsūriyyati: the smell of racism, and using an idiomatic expression: al-‘ikhtifā‘a khalfā‘ aqābi‘a’nā: disappear behind our fingers.

• Illocutionary force: Some people must change their racist attitude for Australia to become a democratic and multicultural country.

• Sign: Argument.

S. VIII

• Propositional meaning: there are many examples that confirm the existence of racism in Australia, among them the Ombudsman’s latest finding about the Police discrimination in a certain incident.

• Conversational strategy: Flouting the maxim of quality through the use of figurative language in VIII/15: fašlan ‘unsūriyyan: a racial chapter.

• Illocutionary force: Racism exists on all levels in Australia. There are many examples.

• Sign: Argument.

S. IX

• Propositional meaning: colour and money are not everything. Justice will not be served by mine owners.

• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner by the use of rhetorical questions and pun in IX/17: fa-hal bi-al-lawni waḥdahu yakhṣā‘ al-‘insānū: is it by
colour only that mankind survives.

- Illocutionary force: Colour or wealth do not make true Australians. People like Morgan should not have a say in the Mabo case.
- Sign: Conclusion.
The Text’s Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

The writer raises the issues of multiculturalism and racism in Australia through the mocking of a racist comment on the Aborigines’ land rights, that is, the Mabo case. He expresses his views regarding racism and exposes the white Anglo-Saxon culture in history, praising his own culture.

The opinion filtered in this article reflects hostility felt by the writer towards his own culture.

Province

The writer tackles the topic in a circular fashion, using frequent collocations, idiomatic expressions and constantly violates conversational maxims to get his views across. In addition to that, a circumlocutionary chain of collocational cohesion was detected.

On the other hand, the text shows certain features of intertextuality, such as the use of free indirect speech. It also employs parallel structures and cumulation for emphasis. The abundance of nominalisations indicates also the text’s ironic argumentative tone in the emphatic statements made. This is marked by the abundant use of the emphatic verbal particle ‘anna: cf. III/4 ... ‘anna ma ‘lumān al-sayyid ... hiya taḥta al-’ardī: ... that Mr... information is under the ground; IV/8 fa-al-muhimmu fi-al-mawdū‘i ‘anna al-sayyid Morgan ‘atlaqa šar’atan...: what is important in the matter is that Mr Morgan launches [lets loose] a craze; IV/10 wa-saqāta min bāli al-sayyid Morgan ‘anna ‘ustrālia tuṣirru ‘alā...: and it skipped Mr Morgan’s memory that Australia insists on...
Participation

The use of first person plural reflects two interpersonal functions that contribute to the rhetorical meaning: (1) implicit solidarity with fellow Arabs living in this country and, (2) solidarity with other Australians from backgrounds other than English or European. The text also stresses the ‘them against us’ concept by employing the third person, singular and plural, and the second person plural as follows:

• The use of the third person plural and singular when referring to the victim [of irony] indicates a direct and indirect attack on the victim, for example, I/1 wa-yusharri’u-na: and they make laws; II/2 yaqīzu min manājimihi: he leaps from his mines; IV/8 ‘aṭlaqa al-‘ināna: he gave a free rein;

• the use of the first person plural as a marker of solidarity and nationalism, cf. VII/14 ‘innanā nuṭālibu bi-‘ilmīyyād sanatā ‘alfayn...wa-‘indanā ‘unāsun ...: we are bidding for the year 2000 Olympics...and yet we have people... .
Arabic Text 4 (AT4)

EDITORIAL: OUR OPINION

TITLE: wa'āniyyatun muzzawwiyatun: DOUBLE NATIONALISM.

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Overstatement:

VI/8 al-qarārāti al-ša’bata: difficult decisions.

This a reference to the call to abolish the Queen’s birthday holiday which, textually, constitutes a reiterated cohesive device in conjunction with al-ʿutulāti al-rasmīyy-ati: public holidays in I/1 and silsilatu qarārātin ḥāsimatin: ‘a series of definitive decisions’ in I/2.

The irony here stems from the violation of the maxim of quality given the contrast between the abolition of ‘our leisure times’ - in sequence VI - and ‘making difficult decisions’.

b) Cumulation:

II/3, 4 ʿustrālīā kāna ʿalayhā...mina al-maliki nafsīhi?: Australia should have...than the king himself.

Grammatically, use is made of a rhetorical question based on a culturally bound expression.

Interpersonally, the utterances/sequence conveys exhortation.

The use of a superlative and a rhetorical question marks infringement of the maxim of quality and manner.
c) Antithesis:

The heading: *waṭaniyyatun muzdawijatun*: A double nationalism.
Lexically, the use of antonyms. There is a contrast here in ‘us, Australians, having two nationalities/loyalties. The infringement of the collocation, borrowed from: *jin-siyyatun muzdawijatun*: ‘dual citizenship’, flouts the maxim of manner and imparts an experiential ironic inference.

d) Rhetorical question:

II/4 *wa-hal bi-'imkāninā 'an nakūna ... malakiyyīna akthara mina al-maliki nafsihi?*: and could we be ... more monarchists than the king himself?
Experientially, this is a reference to an established loan proverb used commonly in politics.
Interpersonally, the use of the first person plural to address the Federal Government flouts the maxim of manner. The use of the proverb in the form of a rhetorical question marks also a violation of the maxim of manner.

e) Cliché:

VI/9 *‘alā ḥisābi rakhā’inā*: at the expense of our leisure time.
This device communicates the writer’s final opinion on the matter: ‘our one day of leisure time seems more important than the issue of becoming a republic!’. This infringes the maxim of manner given the intended opinion behind the pretended objective political analysis.

f) Pun:

I/1 *tanfuḍa ‘anhnā rakhā‘a al-’uṭlāti al-rasmiyyati*: dust off the leisure of public holidays.
Experientially, this is an idiomatic expression used metaphorically: *tanfuḍu*: dust off, usually collocates with *ghubar*: dust. This causes the breaking of the maxim of manner.

*Lexical devices*

a) Repetition:

*I/1 rakḥā‘a al-’uṭlati al-rasiyyati*: the leisure of public holidays, VI/9 rakḥā‘inā wa-’uṭlātina al-rasiyyati*: our leisure and public holidays.

This is a thematic reference to the interrelation between the antitheses of monarchy/republic and leisure time/work. This has an interpersonal function in the fact that the writer is calling on Australians and the Australian Federal Government to put their money where their mouths are.

Experientially, the connotative meaning of *rakḥā‘*: ‘leisure time’ depicts, in this context of criticism the laziness and not the well-being of Australians. Given its connotation, the repetition of this word is considered, following Muecke (1969), a stylistic ‘placing’ that imparts irony.

This deviance in the expression of opinion breaks the maxim of manner.

b) Personification of abstract:

*I/1 ‘ustrālia...‘alayhā ‘an tanfuḍa*: Australia must dust off.

An indirect address to the Federal Government is used, that is, ‘Australia’. This, in Arabic, has an experiential function based on the field of the discourse. A metaphor: ‘dust off’ is also used in the opening thesis. It is also considered a stylistic placing given its connotative meaning. Both strategies implies an infringement of the maxim of manner, hence, irony.
Grammatical devices

a) Inversion/Theme fronting: This device enhances the expectations of the ironic tone and cites the thesis of the commentary.

I/1 'astrāli ā al-sa’iratu naḥwa al-jumhuriyyati 'alayhā: Australia which is heading towards becoming a Republic must...

In Arabic, the modal verb in the form of a preposition: 'alā: 'must or should’, normally comes at the beginning of the sentence. The inversion here has two functions:

1) an experiential function given that the expectations of the readers by using nominal structures in the introduction of a commentary texts necessitate a thesis cited to be argued or counterargued (Hatim (1989); 2) an interpersonal function based on the exhortative meaning of the utterance (see cumulation above).

II/3 'astrāli ā kāna 'alayhā 'ilghā'a: Australia should have had cancelled.

This device carries, similar to the device above, experiential and interpersonal functions based on the inference deduced from the exhortative tone communicated: ‘Australia, how do you expect to become a republic while you ... etc.’

b) Comparative:

I/2 'ab'ada min nuṣūsi dastūrin: farther than texts of a constitution.

The lexical choice of the comparative 'ab'ada: ‘farther than’ implies, functionally, ‘far more important than’ or ‘deeds not words’. This form of implicature breaks the maxim of manner.

Interpersonally, use is made of an indirect address to the Government regarding its insincere approach to the issue of the Australian Republic. This expresses the writer’s strong pro-republican view.
c) Condition and Contrast:

VI/9 ḥattā wa-law kāna 'alā ḥisābi rakhā'īnā: even if this was at the expense of our leisure.

Interpersonally, the use of the adverb ḥattā: 'even' and the conjunction of supposition law: if, convey following Leech and Svartvik (1994, p. 111), a "...contrastive meaning ... expressed in hypothetical conditions by even if ...". This, coupled with the following repeated hypothesis 'our leisure' and the use of the first person plural pronoun na: 'us', mark a self-disparaging irony. On the conversational level, the obscurity of expression reflects an infringement of the maxim of manner.

d) Pronouns:

• The use of reflexive pronouns:

II/4 bārīṭānya dhāṭahā...al-maliki nafsihi: Britain itself ... the king himself;

Interpersonally, the use of the reflexive pronouns dhataha: itself and nafsihi: himself communicates an emphatic personal opposing view and reinforces their preceding noun phrases: 'anna bārīṭāniya: 'that Britain’ and 'akthara mina al-maliki: ‘than the king’ (see Leech and Svartvik 1994, p. 336). There is a violation of the maxim of quality, given the underlying bewilderment of the writer's statements: 'even' Britain does not have ... and more than the king 'even!'.

• The use of the first person plural pronoun as a marker of pretended attack upon the victim's opponent.

II/4 wa-hal yumkinunā 'an nakūna: and can we be;

A first person plural pronoun is used in a rhetorical question. It implies, ostensibly a self-disparaging irony, while, in fact, it is an attack upon the victim [of irony]. This flouts the maxim of manner.
IV/6 'immā 'an naḥtarima ... aw nabqā taba'iyyina: either we respect ... or we remain followers of ...

VI/9 rakḥā'ina: our leisure.

The functional meaning of the pronouns in both devices is similar to the functional meaning of the pronoun in II/4. In the first instance, the irony is conveyed, interpersonally, through advice to the victim.
In the second device, the implied meaning stems from the internal contradiction between 'leisure' and 'hard decisions'

- The use of the third person singular. Circular address.

I/1 'ustrāliā... 'alayhā 'an tanfuḍa: Australia...[she] must dust off.
Interpersonally, this device is used throughout the text in the forms of exhortation and self-disparaging to ensure the readers' sympathy and agreement about the reality or logic of the situation, indirectly blaming the Federal Government for the shortcomings.

e) Superlative

II/4 abrazuḥā: most importantly.
The contrast here is giving the highest degree of importance in the reasoning, as to why we should abolish the Queen's birthday, to the fact that even Britain itself does not celebrate this occasion, followed by the 'real' important issue, that is, the effect of this holiday on the economy of Australia. This departure from the norm of argumentation, i.e. beginning with the most important and proceeding to the least important points/reasons, flouts the maxim of quality.
Communicative Function of the Structure

*Text-type focus: through argument*

*Direct/indirect speech:*

Sequence I

- Propositional meaning: Australia, the future republic, must take decisive steps to achieve its goal of becoming a republic.
- Conversational strategy: Infringement of the maxim of manner through the use of the stylistic placing in I/1: *tanfuđa... rakhâ‘a:* dust off the ‘leisure’.
- Illocutionary force: Australia will, inevitably, become a republic; however, the Federal Government must start implementing this concept now.
- Sign: Thesis cited to be argued.

S. II

- Propositional meaning: Among these steps, abolishing the public holiday in celebration of the Queen’s birthday given that Britain itself does not have one.
- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner through, mainly, the use of the proverb in the form of a rhetorical question in II/4.
- Illocutionary force: It is time for the Government to forget about the British monarchy and make a real separation move from Britain.
- Sign: Argument.

S. III

- Propositional meaning: The extensive economic loss as a result of this day’s holiday is another reason why we should not have taken a day off.
- Illocutionary force: The need for every day’s work to improve our economy.
- Sign: Argument.
S. IV

- Propositional meaning: The sound choice for us towards sovereignty is to do what the majority wants: stop being followers of the British throne.

- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner through the use of a pretended attack upon the victim’s opponent in the form of pronoun in IV/6: *taba‘ iyyīn*: ‘followers [us]’.

- Ilocutionary force: The majority of Australians want Australia to become a republic and you, politicians in power, must respect this wish.

- Sign: Recommendation.

S. V

- Propositional meaning: The Labor Party in NSW is honest with its propositions because it decided to drop the Union Jack from its flag.

- Ilocutionary force: The Federal Government should follow the steps of the NSW Labor Party and put its money where its mouth is.

- Sign: Recommendation.

S. VI

- Propositional meaning: Deeds not words, our wish for independence must be achieved by making certain sacrifices.

- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality given the use of the overstatement in VI/8: *al-qarāratī al-ṣa‘abata*: ‘the difficult decisions’.

- Ilocutionary force: Enough slogans and do what is in the best interest for our future independence.

- Sign: Conclusion.
The Text's Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

Editorials in the Arabic press in Australia are rarely written about Australian politics. This is normally left to the background features in the so-called 'Australian affairs'. When such an editorial dealing with local issues is found (normally on the front page), it tends to have the form of serious and cautious piece of writing given that it reflects the newspaper's opinion. This article was chosen from a large number of editorials based on the existence of irony which, as shown by the analysis, was scarcely employed.

The article exhibits support for the republic and for the Labor Party of NSW. This is obviously owing to the fact that the owner of the newspaper is a member of the Labor Party in NSW and a Senator in the Upper House. The commentary looks ironically at the fact that in spite of the depression and the views of the majority we should become a republic and that even Britain does not have a public holiday for the Queen's birthday; and although the Federal Government is calling for a republic, it is insisting on celebrating the British monarch's birthday. To achieve sovereignty and independence from the British throne, action must start now.

Province

The article is well structured (see communicative function above), it employs the visual mode of address which is marked by the use of less repetition, an ending that assumes an inevitability in the mind of the writer (see Sa'addedin 1989, p. 49) and the use of collocational cohesion.

Participation

The writer is blaming the Australian Government for its lack of nationalism (a situational irony!) and its double standards in decision making. This goal is achieved implicitly using hinted ironic devices, such as, clichés, repetition and pronouns.
APPENDIX B

ENGLISH TEXTS ANALYSES

English Text 1 (ET1)

BACKGROUND FEATURE ARTICLE

WRITER: MARK COULTAN.
TITLE: UNPOPULAR, BUT COLLINS IS STAYING

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Antithesis:

I/1, 2 defuse the issue...reveal the truth.

Lexically, in this political context, ‘defusing’ an issue denotes covering the truth, while a no-call for a report means it may help to avoid a scandal. The strategy used here is naming the process through the use of ‘defusing’ and ‘reveal’. Grammatically, use is made of a third person neuter gender pronoun ‘it’ and the resultative construction ‘defusing -> may reveal’. This depersonalisation of the utterance gives the inference of an advice given.

Both antithetical trigger words above are given a rhematic position in the sentences. On the conversational level, both utterances are breaking the maxim of quality based on two contradictory statements offering solution for troubles in politics while both lead to the same end: getting politicians out of trouble.
Having defused a few nasty landmines...went to lunch with the president of the Law Society.

The irony in this antithesis is communicated through the use of lexical collocation 'nasty landmines' which refers to 'critical political issues', and by naming of the two participants: Collins and Marsden who represent politics and the law and in the context of this article the marriage between tricks, manipulation, untruthfulness and the body that is supposed to protect 'us' from such felonies. This subtle criticism is considered as an infringement to the maxim of manner.

The use of a statement in the form of a participle 'Having defused' and a report, Collins went to...

The collocation 'nasty landmines' is, textually, thematic. It has also an experiential meaning as well as an interpersonal meaning (refer to figurative expressions in lexical devices below).

A violation of the maxim of quality is also deduced from the implicit connection between 'defusing ... landmines, that is, calling for reports and the lunch between the two participants.

Gyles's answer to the problems (i.e. the solution according to the report of the Gyles Royal Commission) ... is to try to destroy the power of the BWIU (i.e. the destruction of the union).

Here also the rhetorical realisation of the utterance in the form of contradictory statements using an embedded question: 'what was Gyles's answer ...?' and answer/indirect speech act: 'try to destroy ...' is perceived as a violation of the maxim of manner. The implicature here is in the striking and unexpected answer of a Royal commission.

Collins may hang on despite, or perhaps because of, his lack of support.

This is an interpersonal device in which the writer is analysing the political maze. The irony is implied in the statement of opinion using the modal auxiliary 'may' and the contradiction of the reasoning which is imparted in the use of an adverb of contrast
‘despite’ and the adverb of purpose ‘because of’. This obscurity of reasoning imparts a violation to the maxim of manner, hence the ironic inference.

b) Overstatement:

III/5 Collins is an expert, in fact the champion ...

Lexically, irony is inferred in the use of near-synonyms: ‘expert, champion’ which imply the exaggeration, hence the violation to the maxim of quantity.

The device has interpersonal function in that it conveys a statement of opinion using the auxiliary verb ‘be’: Collins is ..., and the unique use of ‘the’ (Leech and Svartvik 1994), that is, to denote a uniqueness of the abstract quality ‘champion’ to describe Fahey.

c) Rhetorical question:

III/5 Mud?

The word ‘mud’, an anaphoric reference to political troubles in the text, has an experiential function given its usage as a defamatory gossip.

The use of the question form imparts an interpersonal function: the writer on the one hand is substantiating his thesis by way of a rhetorical question and on the other hand, activating the participation of the readers, that is, by asking: ‘do you think mud is affecting him [Collins]? Textually, Mud is a cohesive device of the main theme ‘trouble, landmines’.

Given the little information the word is explicitly expressing, this device infers a violation to the maxim of quantity.

d) Internal contradiction:

III/6 ... and if he did ...

An interjected clause that communicates an interpersonal function given the use of a hypothetical argumentative device, the conditional ‘if’ coupled with ‘and’ which
addresses the readership in the sense of ‘mind you if ...’.

The ironic inference here stems from the contradiction of the clause with the writer’s convictions. This is based on his statement in utterance 2: Collins ... had called for three reports [to defuse legal problems the government is facing] and the doubt he’s imparting in the use of ‘if’ in this utterance. This ambiguity is an infringement of the maxim of manner.

e) Understatement:

IV/8 The end of... can’t have been so rosy.

Lexically, use is made of an adjective, ‘so rosy’ that has the figurative meaning of excellent. In political commentary, this term seems out of conventional register or marks a shift of field (Spencer and Gregory 1964).

Grammatically, the writer expresses his point of view through a contracted negative modal auxiliary ‘can’t’. The stylistic utilisation of the above lexical and grammatical devices communicates indirectly the meaning of: the end of ... ‘was very bad’.

This is a violation of the maxim of manner.

V/13 ... an unlikely Rambo ...

Use is made of a simile. Fahey, an ‘aide’ to the victim is denied comparison with a fictional hero. Following Muecke’s classification of the “... principal techniques employed in Impersonal irony ...” (1969, p. 67) this understatement is considered a praise for desirable qualities known to be lacking. However, the real meaning does not stop here for, contextually, the writer is not depicting Fahey as a coward but as a smart politician who does know how to take care of big problems for the government and sends them into oblivion.

Based on such circumlocutionary meaning, the device is considered a violation of the maxim of manner.
VI/15 no-one could ever accuse Fahey of adopting Metherell-like tactics.

Similar to the above instance, the irony is implied in the form of a praise for desirable qualities known to be lacking. Fahey is denied comparison with his former minister Terry Metherill, known for his hasty reactions to problems in his portfolio. The use of 'ever' affirms the writer's certainty as to Fahey's cautious manner of dealing with political matters. Again this understatement is an infringement of the maxim of manner.

VII/16 If that was not enough to keep Fahey busy, he now has the housing portfolio. Use is made of a conditional clause, which usually communicates 'open' (Leech and Svartvik 1994) uncertain statement coupled with 'that', a reference to the implementation of the report of the Gyles Royal Commission. However, negating the probability that Fahey is carrying large responsibilities communicates an assertion, because of the certainty of the intricate task ahead of Fahey, that is to try to destroy the power of the BWIU [utterance 11].

Now, by considering the above and given that a pseudo cleft sentence construction is used, the postponed comparative clause (Leech and Svartvik 1994) can be shifted, for interpretation purposes, to the front position and the inferred meaning becomes: Fahey now has the housing portfolio although he has enough to keep him busy. This obscurity of expression marks a flouting of the maxim of manner, hence irony.

f) Irony displayed:

VIII/19,20 A Newspoll opinion poll...showed that just 5% of people would prefer Fahey as Premier. The reason is that most people don't know him.

This inference in this device is conveyed through the naming of the participants: 'people, him'; while the use of modal verb 'is' and the adverb 'most' marks the writer's statement and opinion respectively.

On the other hand, the ellipsis in 'don't know him' (as an expert on problem defusing!) constitutes a cohesive textual device and has an interpersonal function.
In the final analysis, the conclusive opinion in utterance 20 in contrast with the poor opinion poll rating and the statement in utterance 18, imparts the ironic meaning, that is, defusing issues gives politicians popularity. This ambiguity violates the maxim of quality.

g) Pretended ignorance:

First sequence/paragraph

The writer proposes an absurd plan of action. This is marked by a number of factors: grammatically, by the use of cleft sentences ‘when you are... is to call;’ The only exception ... is when you’; parallel structure ‘When you are ... when you are in ...’ and; reference ‘trouble, deep, deep, deep trouble’. This device has a textual function given that it breaks the rule of variety in writing which creates the effect of tying “... the sentences conceptually so they are read as one cohesive entity of text.” (James, 1980, p. 108). The use of the adverbs ‘almost, only, never, may’ reflect, interpersonally, the writer’s thesis/suggestion; while the second person pronoun ‘you’ is used to attack politicians indirectly.

Lexically, use is made of a compound word ‘fail-safe’ which has experiential and interpersonal functions [refer to section ‘i’ in lexical devices below].

The irony in this device stems from the violation of the maxim of manner based on the long and intertwined presentation of the thesis of the argument. The irony is also communicated through the overall rhetorical meaning of the sequence, that is, the superficial earnestness of the writer in his advice to the victim.

h) Praising in order to blame:

III/5, 6 Collins is an expert ... John Marsden.

The use of an overstatement and a rhetorical question, as explained above, implies a flouting of the maxim of manner where the writer’s ostensible meaning contradicts his intended one. Here the writer is saying: Collins is a corrupt politician.
i) Pretended advice to the victim:

I/1, 2

In addition to the irony communicated in the antithesis, as discussed above, this sequence shows other ironic features, namely the pretend advice to the victim. Here, the writer resorts to the use of modality: 'almost, never'. Both adverbs reflect, superficially, agreement with political tactics 'to get out of trouble'. Also use is made of imperative mood: 'call for... never call'. The real implication, however, stems from sequence 2 where the writer identifies the victim/s, 'you', that is, politicians in trouble, to whom the pretended advice is given.

This ambiguity of the meaning is a breach of the maxim of manner.

j) Parallel structure:

XIII/32,33; XIV/34: Three cleft-sentences used: The last thing ... is, the second last thing ... is, the last thing ... is:

This stylistic manipulation is used as an analytical substantiative device whereby balance and emphasis is given to the three points expressed. Grammatically, the writer's opinion is conveyed through the adverbs 'the last' and the transitivity markers 'fuming, take over, to give his ... rival'.

Lexically, use is made of repetition: 'the last' and naming of the participants: 'Greiner', 'Baird, Fahey'.

The ironic implication derives from the flouting of the brevity, hence the violation of the maxim of manner. The message of the unpleasant situation for both Greiner and Baird is presented as a three parallel no-win situation where Fahey [the unpopular minister] is the threat.
k) **Indirect condition: the use of if-clause:**

VII/16 If that wasn’t enough to keep Fahey busy...:

According to Leech and Svartvik, this type of conditional sentence “... expresses an unreal or hypotheses condition; i.e. for this type of sentence the speaker assumes the falsehood or unlikelihood of what is described ...” (1994, p. 107) [bold in original]. The writer’s assumption here is ‘although this was enough to keep Fahey busy ...’.

The ironic inference is signalled by emphasising how an experienced minister is relied upon to manage many problems at a time.

This inference stems, grammatically, by the use of the reference to Fahey’s existing problems: ‘that’ which is an anaphoric cohesive device, and the use of a modal verb: ‘was’ which marks attitude.

Lexically, use is made of an idiomatic expression ‘keep ... busy’.

This implicitness of the meaning is considered as a breach of the maxim of manner.

XVI/38 If the Liberals really wanted to kick Collins out, ...

Similar to the above example, a hypothetical condition is used whereby the hypothetical meaning is signalled by the use of the hypothetical past tense ‘wanted’.

Grammatically, the attitude and the interpersonal function, i.e. the advice to the victim ‘the Liberals’ is conveyed through the use of the adverb ‘really’.

Lexically, kick ...out is an idiomatic expression that also communicates the attitude of the writer towards the person in question.

In the final analysis, the writer wants to say here ‘but the Liberals don’t want to kick Collins out’.

I) **Condensation, the use of aphorism:**

XIX/44 For now.

A conclusive remark summing-up the writer’s whole view about the situation he discussed. The interpersonal function here is ‘only for the time being’, i.e. ‘this situation
will change as soon as the circumstances are changed.
This condensed way of expression violates the maxim of quantity.

**m) Indirect appeal:**

The first sequence/paragraph; XII/28 The one privilege of being deputy is getting to pick your own portfolio, ...
This device has two functions, grammatical and interpersonal. The writer employs the second person singular ‘you, your’ to involve the addressees directly in order to heighten their interest in the subject matter (House 1977). However, in this context the implied addressees are the politicians, as explained in the antithesis device above.

**n) Semotactic anomalies / contrasts:** The juxtaposition of incompatibles.

I/1 The stylistic placing of ‘trouble’ constitutes a cohesive textual device, to build the coherence of the thesis in the introduction ‘trouble; rules; report’. However, it equally indicates the insincerity of the mischievous proposal, i.e. the advice to ‘politicians to get out of trouble’. This is an infringement of the maxim of manner, hence its ironic inference.

II/4 ... had enjoyed the privacy of a closed court.
Lexically, the collocation ‘enjoyed the privacy’ is incompatible with ‘closed court’ because the latter in Australia is not a luxurious privilege given to certain people but conditioned by the law, e.g. for children or families in order not to be identified. In other words, one can enjoy the privacy of his own office, room etc. but not the court. Here it means covering the police force misconduct. This is a violation of the maxim of quality given that the writer is saying what he believes to be false.

V/11 Gyles’s answer to the problems...destroy the ...BWIU.
The suggestion that a Royal commission (Gyle) proposes that the government should
'destroy' a union is considered a misrepresentation, hence an infringement of the maxim of quality.

VII/17 the mess...a tribute to.
The irony is signalled by the double meaning of the word tribute: 'a price of' and 'a testimonial to'. This ambiguity is a violation to the maxim of manner.

IX/24 partly...mostly.
Two contradictory adverbs of quantity are used to communicate opinion. The end-weight is placed on the second ironic opinion 'the backbench is incensed ... mostly because they can see themselves up before the ICAC next. Here the writer is depicting the opportunistic attitudes of politicians who only care about saving their necks. An infringement of the maxim of manner is deduced due to the fallacious reasoning (Muecke 1969).

XIV/36 Hannaford ... has ambitions but stuck in the Upper House.
The stylistic placing of 'stuck' suggests an ironic intention given the incompatibility of the word choice which marks the writer's view that 'the situation will not allow Hannaford to move to the Lower House'; and the violation of the maxim of quality by way of using a metaphor.

**Lexical devices**

a) **Repetition:**

I/2 deep, deep, deep trouble;
Insinuation is inferred by contrasting the utterance with the previous single 'deep trouble' and the assumption about the readers' knowledge of the political situation, that is, the reader can identify 'one deep' with 'serious political problem' and 'three
deeps' with ‘very serious political crisis’. Coupled with the connotative meaning of the word ‘trouble’, this violation of the maxim of quantity infers an ironic intention.

III/6, IV/9 mud, mudfield. (Refer to section ‘c’ in rhetorical devices above)
The word ‘mud’, an anaphoric reference to political troubles in the text, has an experiential function given its usage as defamatory gossip.
Textually, mud and mudfield are cohesive devices of the main theme ‘trouble, landmines’. The irony stems from the exophoric referential meaning of both words which is considered a violation of the maxim of quality.

VI/15 green paper, white paper, lots of paper ..., 
The repetition of the word ‘paper’ infers more than its ostensible referential meaning.
The stylistic placing of an incompatible, and additional, expression: ‘lots of paper’ displays a shift in the writer’s intention. In the political sense, this shift implies ‘stalling to take attention from political blunders’.
This is considered as an infringement of the maxim of quality.

b) Near-synonymy:

III/5 ‘expert ... champion’.
The word ‘champion’ calls on the experience of the readers as to its connotative meaning: ‘the best’. This praise in order to blame strategy violates the maxim of quality.

c) Lexical choice:

The devices below share the textual, experiential and interpersonal functions. Their conventional expressive meanings (Baker 1992), as they would be evoked in the English readership, in this context, impart an ironic opinion in the form of insinuation, in other words, by way of a violation of the maxim of manner.
• Adjectives: III/7 nasty; IV/8 rosy; XIII/31 unglamorous;
• Verbs: II/4 enjoyed; IV/9 wade into; V/12 drips;
• Nouns: VII/17 the mess, tribute; VIII/21 the people's choice
• Idiom: VII/16 keep Fahey busy

d) Figurative language:

This device is considered, following Baker (1992), in terms of the violation of the words to the restricted meaning of the language. Other factors play a role in the ironic inference made.

I/1 ... golden rules of politics;
‘Golden rules’ refer here to the norm in politics, which is, as stated, ‘calling for reports’. Hence, the experiential function of the figure, where the readers are reminded of the dishonesty of politicians in thwarting important issues.
Lexically, the idiomatic expression ‘golden rule’ is, stylistically, used out of place. It gives the inference of inappropriate praise which violates the maxim of quality.

I/2 ... a report...may reveal the truth;
Interpersonally, this is a statement of opinion using a modal auxiliary ‘may’. However, ironic inference is communicated given the fact that the statement suggests the possibility, i.e. doubt, that some reports could reveal the truth.

III/5 dry-cleaned;
The irony is inferred, formally, in the verbalisation of the compound word and the connotation it has in reference to the word ‘mud’. This innuendo imparts a violation of the maxim of manner.

III/7 Having defused a few nasty landmines;
The focus in this device is on the ironic inference of the collocation ‘defuse’ ‘landmines’ which conveys interpersonal, experiential and textual functions. In this context,
the collocation ‘defusing landmines’ refers to the unenviable political trouble the government is in. It depicts the writer’s critical view of the situation and of the remarkable skill Collins has in avoiding trouble. This praise for having undesirable quality is considered a violation of the maxim quality.

IV/8 The end of John Fahey’s week...so rosy;
There is more to the meaning of ‘rosy’ here than its connotation ‘bright’ or ‘promising’. Its interpersonal function in this account is saying that Fahey was ‘extremely unfortunate’ because he was given a mudfield full of unexploded mines to wade into. This implicit opposite meaning infers a violation of the maxim of manner.
This metaphor was used by a Syrian reporter in a report on the news in the Arab world (SBS Radio, the Arabic morning program, 26/7/96). However, this borrowing, yabdu ‘anna al-bāqata lan yakūna kulluha wurūd: ‘it seems that the bunch will not be full of roses’, was merely an interference in the Arabic language due to the dominance of English news reports on the international scene and did not have the impact intended.
The Arabic, experientially functional, device that the reporter ought to use is perhaps a collocation: lā tahmiylu kulluha tabāshira al-khairi; ‘does not all carry good news.’

IV/9 ... to wade into a mudfield;
Experientially, ‘wade into’ is a colloquial stage direction expression. Its ironic meaning stems from the fact that Fahey is about to ‘begin energetically’ his task as a scandals/trouble defuser. Following Muecke (1969), this is again a praise for having undesirable qualities, hence a violation of the conversational maxim of quality.

V/12 The whole report drips with exhortations to battle against the union;
Textually, the verb ‘drips’ refers to the message of a report on a Royal Commission handled by Fahey. This concise, sharp and indirect way of depicting political manipulation of an official investigation comes under the violation of the maxim of quantity.
V/13 ... John Fahey, an unlikely Rambo;
Experientially, 'Rambo' is a reference to a Western fictional hero known for his unrelenting courage. The writer here is negating the analogy (see understatement above), hence stylistically signalling irony.

VII/17 .. has to clear up the mess ... a running sore;
Two idiomatic expressions that have experiential functions. Both refer to a governmental scandal: the Homefund Scheme.

X/26 ... and Collins will be history;
Interpersonally, the use of an idiomatic expression 'history' and the modality 'will' impart in this context an analytical opinion. 'History' always infers a bitter sarcasm of one's unenviable likely outcome. This is a flouting of the maxim of quantity.

XIII/32 ... recovering from an ICAC inquiry.
The reader is referred here, experientially, to the hard time Premier Greiner endured facing the ICAC inquiry. The connotation is that he was on the receiving end of the 'battle' against a Commission that investigates corruption. The contrast between this embedded meaning and the ostensible pretended defence of the victim implies a violation to the maxim of quality.

XIII/32 ... sitting on the back bench fuming.
The connotative meaning of 'fuming', that is, irritated with anger, and its stylistic placing, that is, as an end-weight to the utterance, have experiential and textual functions respectively. Conversationally, this is a violation of the maxim of manner.

e) Modality/ adverbs: expressing doubts, probability and opinion. Their ironic meaning is inferred from the context.
• Adverbs:

I/1 ... an almost fail-safe way;

The irony is in the contradiction between the propositional meaning, ‘it has a good chance of’ working, and the intentional sarcastic meaning in the form of an advice to the victim, ‘usually’ it works ‘with them’. The inference stems from the context: politicians having trouble. This false proposal marks an infringement to the maxim of quality.

I/2 the only, never, may;

Three adverbs used in one sequence to hammer indirectly the victim of irony with good advice as to the course of action they should take to avoid political problems. Again, there is a violation of the maxim of quality given the pretended advice to the victim.

IX/24 partly, mostly, next;

The writer here is analysing the position of the Party’s backbench. ‘Partly’ as expressed, is about the less important issue for Party colleagues, while ‘mostly’ was used to describe the real issue for them, ‘seeing themselves before a Royal Commission’. On the other hand, ‘next’ is a brief opinion marker, the inference is ‘when their turn inevitably comes in the future. This oblique way of expressing views is considered an infringement to the maxim of manner.

XVI/38 If the Liberals really want to kick Collins out;

The writer is casting doubt about the real intention of the Liberal Party in NSW. Politics and complex numbers calculation to change a Deputy leader and not honest and earnest politicians, are the important issues. This indirectness of expressing opinion infers a violation of the maxim of manner.

XIX/44 for now.

A concise aphorism concluding the argument by an opinion marker. An ellipsis is
made use of here based on the whole through argument in the text. The inference is: Politically, Collins is staying until a ‘mine explodes’. The lack of information of this device is a violation of the maxim of quantity.

• Modals:
IV/8 can’t have been so rosy;
'Can’t' here expresses, explicitly, astonishment. However, the inference, as explained in the figurative language in IV/8 above, is, how ‘extremely’ unfortunate.

VI/15 no-one ‘could’ ever accuse Fahey of ...;
An indirect conviction the writer has about Fahey, ‘Fahey is, ‘undoubtedly’, ...’. The irony is in communicating the intention in the form of inappropriate praise. This is a violation of the maxim of quality.

VIII/18 these challenges ‘should’ raise Fahey’s profile;
A false statement that contradicts the writer’s argument. The writer undermines his opinion so far expressed by his fallacious reasoning: being a dishonest politician pays off. Conversationally, this is a violation of the maxim of quality.

XVI/38 it ‘couldn’t’ go past Virginia Chadwick.
The irony here is in the insinuation that despite Collins’s bad history and Chadwick’s popularity, the Liberals have no intention to change the Deputy leader (see discussion on ‘really’ in XVI/38 above). The inference is deduced from the violation of the maxim of manner, for on the one hand, the writer is advocating Chadwick as the Liberals’ chance; whilst on the other hand, he is arguing that it is a difficult time for a change (Utterances 39-44).

f) Compound words:
Compounds serve as premodifiers, that is, as adjectives, when they come before a noun.
I/1 fail-safe way of defusing an issue;
A brief statement of opinion, 'a safe solution to overcome political corruption'. The writer pretends to give advice to the victim which infringes the maxim of quality.

III/6 dry-cleaned;
See discussion in figurative language above.

VI/15 Metherell-like tactics.
Experientially, the writer calls on the readers' knowledge of Dr. Terry Metherill, the former Minister for Education, who was before the ICAC (at the time of publication) for his explicit mishandling of political problems. The irony is in the insinuation of the device, which breaks the maxim of manner.

XVI/38 post-ICAC image.
A political reference to the recent scandalous history of the Liberals. This insinuated style violates the maxim of manner, hence the ironic inference.

g) Chain of collocational cohesion:

VIII/19, 20, 21 A Newspoll opinion poll ... Saulwick poll ... 5% prefer ... rated 13 per cent etc.
Interpersonally, the writer reflects his intended opinion in the contrast he made, using opinion poll figures, between clearing the political mess and popularity: ‘Collins is more popular than Fahey because he is more experienced in handling problematic situations. The ambiguity of intention here stems from the plausibility of the statistical figures and the reason behind these figures. This constitutes an infringement of the maxim of manner.
Grammatical devices

a) Cleft sentences / Inversions:
These two devices have an interpersonal function indicated by the stylistic structure of sentences. Following James (1980, p.111), this strategy is described as rhematic dynamisation. The abundance of inversion and cleft sentences gives pace to the texture of the argument and reinforces the new-ness of the theme.

• Cleft-sentences:
X/26 all it needs is...and Collins will be history;
A statement of opinion which has an interpersonal function (see discussion on the end-weight, 'history' in figurative expressions above).

XIII/32 The last thing ... bench fuming.
The ironic inference is conveyed lexically through the use of two metaphors, 'recovering' and 'fuming'. In politics, 'fuming' has always a negative connotation; 'fuming' means in this context 'irritated' or 'angry' and may cause instability to the Government.
The interpersonal function of the device also displays ironic intention. The writer emphasises that Premier Greiner must keep Collins in his post or he will be in trouble, but at the same time he loathes the Deputy leader and depicts him as a devil that should be 'kicked out' (XVI/38) but not 'for now' (XIX/44). These explicit contradictions violate the maxim of manner.

XIII/32, 33 The second last thing he needs is having stories about Fahey ready to take over...;
Another undesirable and unfavourable situation to Greiner in the addition to the above statement.
• Inversion:

The heading: Unpopular, but Collins is staying.

Interpersonally, a typical racy statement used in commentary headings. In this instance, it displays contradictory statements and summarises the writer’s opinion about his topic: Collins.

This contradiction, marked by the conjunction ‘but’ and the modal verb ‘is’, violates the maxim of manner.

I/1 WHEN you are in trouble, ‘one of the golden rules in politics is to call for a report’.

Use is made of a hypothetical condition (see discussion in indirect conditions in rhetorical device above). An adverbial clause is fronted, ‘when you are in trouble’, and the focus is placed on the hypothetical, and absurd, answer/advice to the victim. This conveys a violation of the maxim of quality.

V/13 To implement such a report, ‘enter the quiet and cautious John Fahey’;

A subject - verb inversion, ‘enter - Fahey’ preceded by an adverbial clause of purpose ‘to implement ...’. The irony here is in the focus on Fahey as the chosen hero to implement a report calling for a fight against the worker’s union. The end-focus on Fahey has a textual function in that it allows the writer to describe him in the following postmodifying sub-clause, ‘an unlikely Rambo if ever there was one’ and to elaborate on the subject given that it was shifted to the rheme position.

In addition, the inversion construction pace the action as a stage direction: report implementation > enter > a cautious ... > called Fahey.

b) Embedding:

In general, this device has an interpersonal function in the form of a statement of opinion.
II/4 (an old chestnut):

Experientially, a colloquial expression reminding the reader of the legal mishandling of the rape issues. It reflects the writer’s opinion, hence its interpersonal function. This stylistic placing, that is, using a word which has a connotation, infringes the maxim of manner, hence the ironic inference.

c) Illative conjunction:

V/13 an unlikely Rambo if ever there was one.

The use of an illative conjunction ‘if’ has interpersonal function in that it leads the reader to draw an inference. In this instance the writer is, categorically, affirming that Fahey is ‘an unlikely Rambo’. The device’s ironic meaning stems from the preceding co-ordinate clause. The use of an adverb of time ‘ever’ also stresses this inference. Here, a violation to the maxim of quantity is inferred.

d) Reference:

A few ironic references are detected in the text:

• Exophoric:
I/1 in trouble;

Experientially, this expression is intertextual. Its use is common in political news and commentaries referring to political scandals, blunders, strife etc.

The writer tries here to insinuate his views regarding the huge problems faced by the Liberals using a less affective word. This violation of the maxim of quality, that is, not saying what he believes to be true, and the word’s contribution to the intended rhetorical meaning of the utterance, that is, the pretended advice to the victim, imparts the ironic inference.

III/6 Mud;

Refer to rhetorical questions above.
V/13 Rambo;
A reference to a Western fictional hero (see figurative language above).

- Anaphoric:
II/4 an old chestnut;
Refer to embedding above.

e) Conjunction of supposition:
Using the conjunction ‘if’ in a hypothetical condition form is a scene setter for the through argument of the text marking a textual feature.

VII/16; If that wasn’t enough to keep Fahey busy, ...
Interpersonally, the writer substantiates the argument in this instance. The implied meaning is simply, ‘in addition to that’. This beating around the bush style infringes the maxim of manner, hence the ironic inference.

XVI/38; If the Liberals really wanted to kick Collins out, ...
The use of the conjunction ‘if’ in this instance contributes to the implicit meaning of the utterance: ‘you are advised to do that, but the fact is you won’t’ (see discussion on this utterance in modality/adverbs above).

f) Condition + contrast

VIII/18 if nothing else;
This device displays the idea of condition ‘if’ and implied contrast ‘even’. The meaning of ‘even if’ is conveyed by if ... ‘at least’
In addition, the formulaic habitual nature of the utterances has an experiential function. Interpersonally, there is an embedded opinion given its textual function as a cohesive device with an exophoric reference. The implied ‘even’ if nothing else ... ‘at
least', gives the utterance its inference, Fahey is assigned the job of cleaning the mess, 'he'll benefit from it in the opinion polls'.

The ambiguity of the expression violates the maxim of manner.

*Graphological devices*

**a) Italics:**

*I/2 when you are in deep, deep, *deep* trouble, ...

This device has a textual function. It signals the ironic meaning stylistically; the writer stresses his message: ‘unmanageable deep-rooted trouble’, through the repetition and the italics. This visual emphatic opinion marker infers an infringement of the maxim of manner.
Communicative Function of the Structure

Text-type focus: Through argument

Direct/indirect speech acts:

Sequence I

• Propositional meaning: Politicians resort to reports to defuse their minor troubles. They avoid calling for reports when in real trouble.

• Conversational strategy (using Grice’s maxims): Infringing the maxim of quality by the use of antithesis.

• Illocutionary force: Pretended advice to the victim. There are degrees of problematic issues for politicians in power, reports could be a scapegoat for the minor ones while they could disclose the truth in serious matters.

• Sign: Thesis to be substantiated.

S. II

• Propositional meaning: The naming of three reports called by the NSW Attorney-General.

• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner by using the embedded colloquial expression, ‘chestnut’, and the maxim of quality by using the contrastive effect of ‘enjoyed/court’.

• Illocutionary force: Here are three examples of minor troubles.

• Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. III

• Propositional meaning: The experience of Collins in avoiding trouble: He had lunch with Marsden after playing the trick.

• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality and quantity by the use of overstatement ‘the champion’, and the rhetorical question ‘Mud?’ respectively.
• Illocutionary force: He is so expert in concealing his trouble, he had lunch with the head of the Law Society.
• Sign: Thesis substantiated

S. IV
• Propositional meaning: Fahey is given one of Collins’ assignments.
• Conversational strategy: Violating the maxim of quantity through the use of under-statement ‘can’t have been so rosy’.
• Illocutionary force: pretended agreement with the victim, Fahey’s unfortunate luck.
• Sign: Argument.

S. V
• Propositional meaning: The release of the inflammatory report of the Gyles’s Royal Commission. Fahey to implement it.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner by the use of two under-statements/figurative expressions: ‘can’t have been so rosy’ and ‘an unlikely Rambo...’.
• Illocutionary force: Fahey would be a tool in Collins’ hands.
• Sign: Argument substantiated.

S. VI
• Propositional meaning: An example of Fahey’s tactic to diffuse an issue, that is, ‘the industrial relations legislation’.
• Conversational strategy: violation of the maxims of manner by the use of compound-word and understatement, and quantity through the repetition.
• Illocutionary force: pretended praise of the victim, ‘Fahey is a smart politician’.
• Sign: Argument substantiated.
S. VII
- Propositional meaning: Fahey is also busy solving another government problem.
- Conversational strategy: Violating the maxim of manner by the lexical choice: a ‘tribute’ to the political stupidity...’
- Illocutionary force: Pretended defence of the victim, Fahey has too many blunders on his plate to solve.
- Sign: Argument substantiated.

S. VIII
- Propositional meaning: Succeeding in political manoeuvres will raise one’s popularity
- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality by the lexical choice: the people’s ‘choice’.
- Illocutionary force: Pretended encouragement to the victim, people are still unaware of the facts about Collins.
- Sign: Argument substantiated.

S. IX
- Propositional meaning: Collins’s popularity is not reflected in the Liberal Party, because of his disloyalty to his colleagues in their ICAC inquiries.
- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner through the use of the adverbs, ‘partly’ and ‘mostly’.
- Illocutionary force: Pretended defence of the victim (the backbenchers). The parliamentary party is corrupt.
- Sign: Argument substantiated.

S. X
- Propositional meaning: The vulnerability of Collins’ position.
- Conversational strategy: Violating the maxim of quantity through the use of a figurative expression: ‘fuming’; and the use of an inversion.
• Illocutionary force: Pretended defence of the victim, Collins' fake honesty was not rewarded by his backbenchers.
• Sign: Summary/conclusion of the preceding argument.

S. XI
• Propositional meaning: Collins will hang on.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality using a co-ordinating clause: despite, 'or perhaps because of', his lack of support.
• Illocutionary force: Pretended encouragement to the victim, parliamentary support is not the only thing required to keep politicians in power.
• Sign: Thesis to be substantiated.

S XIV
• Propositional meaning: The convention of becoming an Attorney-General.
• Illocutionary force: Collins owes his position to the political convention.
• Sign: Argument.

S. XIII
• Propositional meaning: Collins’ demotion would be unbearable for the Premier Greiner who despises Fahey’s ambitions
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner using cleft sentences ‘The last thing...the second last thing.’.
• Illocutionary force: The security of Collins’ job may rest in Greiner's political situation.
• Sign: Argument substantiated.

S. XIV
• Propositional meaning: The roles of two other leadership contenders in the situation.
• Illocutionary force: The power struggle and the political rivalry plays a role in keeping Collins in his position.
• Sign: Argument substantiated.
S. XV
• Propositional meaning: Baird’s chance of becoming a Premier is slim.
• Illocutionary force: Fahey would be the next premier if Collins is ousted.
• Sign: Argument substantiated.

S. XVI
• Propositional meaning: Virginia Chadwick is the solution.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality using pretended advice to the victim.
• Illocutionary force: A hypothetical solution for the Liberals who are not really interested.
• Sign: Thesis.

S. XVII
• Propositional meaning: The ability of the Lower House to create an awkward situation by making Chadwick a Deputy leader and Pickering an Upper House leader.
• Illocutionary force: Pickering’s diminished influence in the Deputy leadership lessen Chadwick’s chance to get the job.
• Sign: Counterargument.

S. XVIII
• Propositional meaning: Pickering position in the Upper House lessens Chadwick’s chance of becoming Deputy leader.
• Illocutionary force: Because of the Liberals’ rules, Pickering’s effect in a Lower House ballot to kick out Collins is minor.
• Sign: Counterargument substantiated.

S. XIX
• Propositional meaning: Collins may keep his job now because of the controversial situation of the government.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of manner using the aphorism ‘for now’, and quantity through a compound-word ‘In a post-ICAC’.

• Illocutionary force: There is no way out for the Greiner government after the ICAC inquiries.

• Sign: Conclusion.
The Text’s Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

The attitude of the writer in this text is bitterly ironic. His view of the situation is that despite the ‘mud’ that the Premier, his deputy, and other prominent figures in the government are in; the political scene is at a stalemate.

Province

This background feature is written in the Sydney Morning Herald, a leading newspaper in Australia. This particular column appears daily written by different writers according to the day of the week and to the seniority of the writer. They all, however, share the vivid style of writing, characterised by irony and informality. Although they reflect the paper’s view regarding current events, background features represent to a large extent the writers’ opinion, as could be concluded from the attitude in the present text.

The ironic tone in the text at hand highlights some of the features of the province. Structurally, it has an argumentative, analytic and persuasive structure, that is, scene setting followed by substantiation, argument then conclusion. The informal style of the text did not affect its visual organisation.

Participation

The targeted readership is educated, has a general awareness of political and current affairs, which is reflected in the use of complex medium, that is, the connotation, the embedded meaning and the exophoric references. The writer is a learned observer who is analysing ‘for’ the readership a general issue about the government
by tackling Collins' current position. The writer/readership relationship is symmetric. This being marked by the informality of the medium and the use of overt irony in the text.
The Sydney Morning Herald, January 16, 1993, p. 26

Title: An election in search of a date

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Euphemisms:

II/2 ... a stream of unflattering economic news ... two sets of unemployment figures ...
Use is made of a negated present participle used as an adjective, 'unflattering'. The choice of the verb 'to flatter' has experiential function since it refers to the one thing politicians in power have fear, 'bad economic news'.

b) Analogy:

II/5 In fact, there is as much alchemy as anything else.
Alchemy is a cultural metaphor related to medieval scientific experiments in chemistry aimed at changing metals into gold. In this context, the writer compares 'smart political planning' to alchemy.

c) Formulae:

II/7 Of course:
Textually, a thematic and cohesive device referring cataphorically to the argument ahead. The irony rests in its contextual meaning, for example, Keating 'of course' can't afford calling an election before the West Australians 'vent their anger' etc.
Experientially, this is a typical gambit in commentary writing to dynamise the opinion and the conclusion of the argument in advance by assuming the readers’ knowledge of the situation [in West Australia].

d) Parallel structure:

• Paragraph level:
The first paragraph: The advantage ... State election.
An antithesis is made use of where two contradictory analytical theses are presented through the use of a noun and its opposite using a parasynthesis.
Inversion is also used, ‘The advantage ... is that ... The disadvantage ... is that’ to enhance the argumentative structure in a concise text.
Abundant use of nominal sentences is detected.

• Sentence level:
II/5 ... that there is a certain science ... In fact, there is as much alchemy as ...;
Paraphrase is used. The irony is implied in the violation of the maxim of relation using science and alchemy to compare Keating’s attempt to choose a politically suitable date for him to be re-elected.

• Word level:
V/20-22 expects ... also expects.

The writer defends the victim’s (Keating) view in the first instance, using reported speech and justification, only to undermine it in the following instance, expressing the opinion of, as well as agreement and solidarity with, the readers using the inclusive ‘it’: the Australian public. The ironic inference is marked by the use of the conjunction ‘but’ with the adverb of opinion ‘also’. This insinuated style infers a violation of the maxim of manner.
e) **Stylistic placing** (see Muecke 1969, p. 77):

The writer employs different stylistic strategies to imply irony based on the violation of the maxim of manner. He resorts to words which are slightly out of place but which he can rely upon to have certain connotations for the reader, for example, in I/2 two ‘sets’ of unemployment; he repeats words and phrases until they become suspect and therefore ironical, such as, ‘the advantage/the disadvantage’ in paragraph I; and he adopts the style of his victim, e.g. V/22 But ‘the Australian public’ also ‘expects its government’ ...

f) **Internal contradiction:**

The last paragraph, sequence V. Agreeing with Keating’s version of the people’s expectations using free indirect speech, then opposing it by another example of free indirect speech, this time anticipated by assumed citizens, which communicates a shared suffering and opinion between the commentator and the readers. As discussed above, there is a violation of the maxim of manner.

g) **Semotatic anomalies / contrasts:** juxtaposition of incompatibles:

I/3 lingering suspicions;

The adjective ‘lingering’ has an experiential function, given that it is an intertextual word that has its specific connotation in politics. The irony is in the use of a deliberate ‘marked collocation’ (Baker, 1992, p. 51) which violates the maxim of quality.

II/5 election date...alchemy;

Although the use of alchemy as a cultural reference has an experiential function, it marks a challenge to the expectations of the readers. This, again, is an infringement of the maxim of quality.
II/8 ... had the chance to vent their anger ...

The writer chooses the use of an idiomatic expression ‘vent their anger’ in reference to ‘express their opinion about something they loathe’ or, in this context, ‘vote against the victim because of ...’. The superficial ambiguity in the use of ‘chance’ to ‘vent anger’ triggers the implied irony by violating the maxim of manner.

*Lexical devices*

*a) Figurative language:*

The headline: An election in search of a date.

The irony in this headline has two functions: experiential by using a personification of abstract, that is, an election in search of, and textual using play on words; reflecting ambiguity which is considered infringement of the maxim of manner.

I/1 to find holes.

Experientially, use is made of a colloquial word ‘holes’ to evoke a bad connotation in reference to political deviousness. The informality of the word has an interpersonal function also since it establishes solidarity with the readership, i.e. the ‘us’ against ‘him > them > politicians’ strategy. There is a violation of the maxim of manner.

I/2 to weather a stream of unflattering economic news.

Experientially, use is made of a metaphor, ‘weather’ and a euphemism, ‘unflattering’. This combination of figures of speech constitutes a pretended agreement with the victim. This agreement is undermined, both anaphorically and cataphorically, in the text by exposing Keating’s motives behind leaving the election date in the air, first, to gain time to discredit the Liberals’ GST, and second, to let the West Australian voters vent their anger over WA Inc. The contradiction or rather the obscurity of expression infers flouting of the maxim of manner.
II/6 Peddling the old, inflexible... and V/23 value for money in the political context. Two metaphoric cultural references of a commercial nature are used, ‘peddling’ and ‘value for money’. In addition to the experiential function, these two references, infer, interpersonally, a strong opinion about the topic at hand. In the first instance, the writer expresses his opposing view about the ill-fated GST, while in the latter utterance, he assesses the situation and gives advice to the victim. The indirect expression infers a violation of the maxim of manner.

II/8 to vent their anger; III/13 Economic reform will stay on the back burner. Experientially, two idiomatic expressions are used: ‘vent anger’ and ‘back burner’. Interpersonally, both communicate the writer’s opposing view regarding the topics of the election and the economy, respectively. This insinuation infers a violation of the maxim of manner, hence irony.

b) Modality/adverbs: giving hypothetical meaning to the article;

II/5 may suggest ... a certain science;

Textually, this is a thematic device. The writer suggests a hypothetical opinion and soon after confirms it emphatically in the next sentence. In fact, there is as much alchemy as anything else. This lack of information, or rather indecisiveness of opinion, imparts a violation of the maxim of quantity.

c) Lexical choice:

I/1 taunt.

This word ‘taunt’ implies irony in its denotative meaning, that is, ‘insulting reproach’ used as an explanation to the ‘wearing away of Hewson’s image’ through the graphological dash, and the referential meaning: Keating’s famous ‘do you slowly’ expression.
III/12 glorified.

This adjective has an interpersonal function. It qualifies an exophoric reference: an unsuccessful previous Australian political event (Premier’s conference). Contextually, the denotative meaning of ‘glorified’ does not stand in the light of the previous sentence, i.e. the conference put important initiatives on hold. This praise in order to blame strategy infers infringement of the maxim of quality.

d) Repetition:

First paragraph, THE advantage... The disadvantage...

The repetition here has a textual function. It introduces the argument and sets the theme of the article, ‘an election date depends on tactical gains politicians in power can benefit from and not on the need for political reforms and the welfare of Australians. The irony is implied in the repetition of opposing justification which also infers the irony of the political situation in question. This comes under a pretended defence of the victim, hence an infringement of the maxim of quality.

Grammatical devices

a) Theme fronting/ inversion:

I/1; I/2; I/3; I/4;
The advantage ... The disadvantage ... The advantage ... The disadvantage ...:

Textually, the four utterances cite the thesis of the argument, while interpersonally, they mark the writer’s opinion by stressing on, or fronting the advantages and disadvantages. The ironic inference is conveyed, structurally, by the pretended objective reading of the situation while an attack on Keating’s strategy is systematically communicated in the texture of the utterances in question. Hence, the violation to the maxim of manner.
Given the precarious state of the economy, right now value for money in the political context means an election that is held sooner rather than later.

A reasoning past participle ‘Given’, a metaphoric word ‘precarious’ and a fixed expression ‘value for money’ are used. ‘Given’ has interpersonal and textual functions communicating the opinion of the writer and launches a text development sequence. Similarly, ‘precarious’ imparts the writer’s view about the economy ‘uncertain, perilous, pathetic’ are some of the connotative meanings this adjective would evoke. The fixed expression has an experiential function. It also reflects interpersonal function given its adverbial sense ‘insistently’. This euphemistic ambiguity in expressing the opinion is a violation of the maxim of manner.

b) Embedding: using a single dash as an emphatic explanatory reference;

I/1 - the “do you slowly”...

An experiential exophoric reference is used (see discussion on ‘taunt’ in lexical choice above). This reference also has an interpersonal function in that it calls the learned readership to recall a political event.

The device acquires its inference from the violation of the maxim of manner given the ‘relative’ obscurity of expression.

c) Use of double dashes:

Interpersonally, this device marks an emphatic parenthetic statement enclosing the writer’s personal interpretation:

II/6, II/9;

Textually, both devices enhance ironic intention by attempting to shed doubt on an earlier conclusion or statement. This infringes the maxim of manner by the confusion created by the use of two contradictory or near contradictory statements.
d) The use of Participles:

II/6 Having rejected ...;
Use is made of a ‘conjunctive’ conclusive function participle, ‘having’ (Quirk et al 1985, p. 660). The participle here triggers a stylistically signalled irony in the form of burlesque, that is, treating a serious situation with ridicule. This is considered a violation of the maxim of manner.

e) Free indirect speech:

V/20: Mr Keating has insisted that the Australian public expects its government ...
An intertextual reference to an earlier statement calling on the experience of the readership.
Textually, the author is ridiculing the PM’s statement by using the verb ‘insisted’ which, coupled with the parallel excursive statement in utterance 22 ‘but the Australian public also expects ...’, undermines the plausibility of the quote. This interpretation overlaps with the device’s interpersonal function given the apparent detachment of the statement while the reader is, in fact, shown the ugliness of the PM’s tactics. This marks a violation of the maxim of manner.
Communicative Function of the Structure

Text-type focus: Through-argument

Direct / indirect speech acts:

Sequence I
• Propositional meaning: Keating has two options: either call an early election or a late one, in both cases he is faced with advantages and disadvantages.
• Conversational strategy: violating the maxim of quality and manner using repetition and inversion, respectively, in I/1,2,3,4: the advantage...the disadvantage.
• Illocutionary force: Keating's choice of an election date is politically motivated.
• Sign: Thesis cited to be argued through.

S. II
• Propositional meaning: The dilemma of picking an election date: Keating should have called for an early election, but it is also better for him to wait for the WA election.
• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner using a pretended agreement with the victim in II/8: 'Mr Keating could not afford to go to the polls before West Australian voters had had their chance to vent their anger over WA Inc.'
• Illocutionary force: The government's chances of re-election are slim despite Keating's tactics.
• Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. III
• Propositional meaning: Regardless of the postponement of the election, the campaign is on for a while and it will continue so, the problem is that initiatives and reforms will have to wait for this to end.
• Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quality using a praise in order to blame in III/12: 'glorified' Premier's Conference.
• Illocutionary force: The need to stop this play in order to get the economy going.
• Sign: Argument

S. IV
• Propositional meaning: An end must be put to this uncertainty, a long campaign will not benefit the economy and unemployment.
• Illocutionary force: Party politics should not override the welfare of the country.
• Sign: Argument substantiated.

S V
• Propositional meaning: Keating’s pretence to stay in power is based on his version of the people’s expectations of their politicians. The public expectations are that politicians should meet their interests, thus, election date must be called now.
• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner by using free indirect speech acts in V/20 and 22.
• Illocutionary force: The public wants the PM to think of its interests and not of his, that means an election must be held now.
• Sign: Conclusion.
The Text’s Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

After exposing both political parties’ monopoly of the Australian people’s destiny through the ruling Party’s (Labor’s) tactics to set an election date, the writer urges the Government on behalf of the Australian public to put an end to these party-oriented policies.

Province

This is a typical so-called ‘neutral’ (see Quirk et al 1985, p. 27) but well structured editorial; it is found mainly in leading newspapers and reflects the editor’s, that is, the paper as an institution, views. It is characterised by the use of less ironic devices and is explicitly directive as well as analytical.

Participation

The writer is addressing a readership in an election campaign period which is marked by the use of the third person ‘he’ to address the victims: Mr Keating and Dr Hewson. He uses informal language to analyse the political situation answering questions about the tactics of the PM and the opposition leader, and suggesting the solution. To do that, the writer addresses the Australian voters at large using an analytical ironic tone, more explicitly in the introductory paragraph and the substantiating second paragraph as a means to touch rhetorically on the readers’ emotions. The attack is obviously against the PM, and the writer involves the readers by using a lot of shared exophoric reference, contractions and hypothetical modals.

There is an asymmetric role relationship between the writer and the reader, the writer
exerting his authority by showing his political insight and by his pretended advocacy of the public, e.g. in V/22 'the long-term interests of the nation...'.

It is worth noting that editorials do not lend themselves to the use of irony to the extent the present text has employed. This means of persuasion is rather left to the background features. It is possible, however, that the topic of the article, the election, imposed a certain shift from the norms.

Covert irony has been filtered mainly through the first part of the text, which indicates a learned but general readership; this has been achieved through the use of parallel structure, stylistic placing and lexical choice.
English Text 3 (ET 3)

BACKGROUND FEATURE ARTICLE

WRITER: BARRY COHEN
TITLE: LEADING QUESTIONS FOR A SHATTERED PARTY

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Understatement:

I/1 The Liberals can’t understand why they keep losing elections.
The irony in this utterance is inferred from a combination of linguistic usage: lexically, from the use of ‘understand’ to express the writer’s amazement of the ignorance of a defeated Party; and grammatically in the use of the negated modal auxiliary ‘can’t’ which marks the writer’s point of view, that is, ‘the Liberals haven’t learned a lesson yet’. Both devices impart interpersonal functions.
Textually, the ironic meaning is emphasised in contrast with the answer following ‘[because] they keep making stupid decisions.’
The understated pretended ignorance ‘can’t understand’ exhibits an infringement of the maxim of quality.

IX/38 Flexible is not a word that comes readily to mind when one thinks of Senator Bishop.
Again a number of devices are used for ironic purposes here. One is the textual grammatical inversion, that is, the maximal dynamisation of the rheme ‘flexible’ (see Hatim 1989, p. 141). Experientially, the use of ‘flexible’ is a reminder of Bishop’s known political inflexibility, hence, her unsuitability for the Prime Ministership job.
Grammatically, ‘is not a word’ negates, or rather plays down, the flexibility factor through the use of ‘a word’. The writer uses an idiomatic expression ‘comes readily to mind’ to further understate his real intention which is, ‘surely she’s not a flexible politician’.

On the grammatical level, use is also made of modality through the adverb ‘readily’ and an impersonal device ‘one’ which, interpersonally, signals the writer’s ironic point of view through a circular indirect style and calls for the agreement of the readership. This relatively ambiguous expression of opinion indicates a violation of the maxim of manner.

XII/45 Warwick Smith, a name I must confess is not yet in the household category...

As above, use is made of inversion. The lexical choice: ‘confess, household category’ have interpersonal and intertextual functions respectively. ‘Confess’ marks an ironic point of view given the infringement to the maxim of relevance, i.e. one confesses in church, court, to the police etc. but not in commentary text. While ‘household’ is used in political context when referring to popularity, however, its chosen collocate ‘category’ is slightly out of place, as if politicians are labelled in a supermarket.

Grammatically and interpersonally, the negation: ‘is not yet’ and the modality ‘must’ understates, as with Bishop’s above, the writer’s strong view about the slim chance that Smith has. Again, the ambiguity here infers an infringement of the maxim of manner, hence irony.

XIII/47 In a profession not normally noted for an over-abundance of the latter ...

The writer resorts in this understatement in the conclusive utterance of the article to a number of grammatical devices, namely: substitution, ‘profession’ for politics; reference, ‘latter’ refers to the ‘delightful human beings’ in the preceding utterance; and a negation ‘not normally noted’, which, in contrast with the lexical compound word ‘over-abundance’ simply means, the scarcity of ... . This twisted and subtle expression of opinion infers a violation of the maxim of manner.
b) Overstatement:

I/8 ... obvious to even the most thick-headed of them...

Lexically, use is made of an adjective and an adverb, ‘obvious’ marks a strong conviction, and ‘most’ the adverb of quantity an exaggerated statement. Both have interpersonal functions. The compound word ‘thick-headed’ is another lexical device in the form of a metonymy that could mean both ‘stubborn’ or ‘stupid’. In this context, (see utterance 2 ‘they keep making stupid decisions’), both meanings are plausible. The utterance features an experiential function in that the learned reader would understand the reference intended by the thick-headed Liberals in question.

The ambiguity here imparts the irony given the violation of the maxim of manner.

VII/26 ... the most experienced and effective performer ...

The adverb of quantity ‘most’ marks exaggeration considering the writer’s labelling of Howard [the potential leadership contender in question] among the thick-headed. This inference is experientially deduced based on Howard’s policies when he was Leader of the Opposition.

Despite this overstated praise of Howard as the most suitable person for the Liberal Party leadership, the writer is wary about him because of his political hard-right history. This untruthfulness of intention gives the inference of a violation to the maxim of quality.

c) Gradation / double shift effect:

II/9 Those who have doubts might try to imagine the devastation they would have suffered if the economy had been in good shape.

The irony here is situational given the striking contradiction or the parallelism drawn between the possibility of having a strong economy and the likely devastating outcome in the election for the Liberals.

The adverb ‘might’ and the call on the thick-headed Liberals has interpersonal function.
d) Misrepresentation:

Misrepresentation is a false statement which occurs '... when one asserts what is known to be false or denies what is known to be true and relies upon the reader's or listener's prior knowledge for the contradiction.' (Muecke, 1969, p. 73). Following Muecke's quote, the writer uses a theatrical mode - by parading Liberal politicians - of through argument in which he presents to the readers, in a contradictory manner, the Liberal Party's contenders for the leadership of the Opposition in the wake of the defeat.

To do that he uses ironic triggers in his exposition/rejection of every contender. These triggers are:

VII Howard: use is made of an adverb of quantity: the 'most' experienced ...

VIII Reith: use is made of a fixed expression and an exaggeration: shoot themselves in 'both' feet.

IX Bishop: cleft sentence and word choice: 'Flexible' is not a word etc.

XI Costello: analogy: he is ... a bit of a 'show pony' etc.

XII Smith: intertextuality and stylistic placing: a name ... in the household 'category'.

VII/26 [John Howard] is the obvious choice.

A statement that means, contextually, the opposite: John Howard would be a good choice if he was not identified etc. as explained in VII/28, i.e. Howard is the right person to replace Hewson except for one problem: he is 'almost' a copy of Hewson in regards to his policies. This internal contradiction imparts a violation of the maxim of manner.

The adjective 'obvious [choice]’ used for assertion gives ironic inference based on the contradiction it exhibits with the adverb ‘almost [identified]’.

e) Pretended advice to the victim:

XIII/47 ... that might be a good basis to rebuild a shattered political party.
An advice that contradicts the writer’s beliefs. The inference is deduced from the internal contradiction in XII/45 and XIII/46; first the writer ruled Smith out because the ‘hard/thick heads’ [Liberals] in Canberra believe he is the right man for the job, while in the latter utterance, he depicts Smith as the perfect person for the leadership for his ‘unpolitical’ character, i.e. intelligence, delightful human being etc.
This untruthfulness of opinion in the conclusion infers a violation of the maxim of quality.

f) Parallel structure:

• Paragraph level:
I/1,2 why they keep losing elections ... They keep making stupid decisions.
Grammatically, use is made of a question / answer construction which imparts interpersonal function. The irony lies in the logic of cause of the defeat: making stupid decisions, chosen by the writer to set the scene for the argument in the article.

• Textual level:
VIII/32, IX/34 At the other end of the risk spectrum is Peter Keastoon Reith...In the same high-risk category is Senator Bronwyn Bishop;
Two cleft sentences are used to enhance the writer’s categoric conviction of the unsuitability of both politicians, cf. ‘[at the other end of, i.e. the most ..] risk’ and ‘high-risk’.
Judging by the names and qualifications proposed as successors for Hewson, the inference is that the Liberal Party has not much choice given that the devil you know is better than the devil you don’t. However, despite this, both Reith and Bishop are, equally, not good for the job.

g) Formulae:

I/3 Now, ...
This adverb of time or sentence adverbial has textual and interpersonal functions. Following Leech and Svartvik (1994, p. 178), it "... signals a return to an earlier train of thought." Hence, it plays a cohesive role that substantiates the irony in the previous thesis, meaning 'and this is an example of their stupid decisions'.

I/5 Do me a favour!.
A sentence adverbial which has textual function in the form of a summative conjunct and exclamative conclusion. Interpersonally, this sentence is an idiom that denotes the writer's amazement: 'unbelievably ...!'.

VIII/32 At the other end of the risk spectrum...
This is an exaggerated ironic gambit marked by the metaphoric use of 'other end' and the word choice: the post modifying noun 'spectrum'. It expresses a personal view regarding the character in question. Simply put, the sentence means: 'the most risky among the problematic names ...'

The three formulas above infringe the maxim of manner, due to their inherent ambiguity.

h) Condensation:

The telegraphic style in the first paragraph signals ironic intention given the abundance of ellipsis: 1) ['Because'] They keep...; 2) ['Here is an example'] Now, ...; 3) Do me a favour! ['don't tell me' !...]. In all accounts, the reader is required to participate by inferring the writer's bitter irony or sarcasm of the Liberals' folly. This stylistically signalled irony or the little information given violates the maxim of quantity.
i) Rhetorical question:

II/10 Do they now seriously think voters will suddenly forget who designed those policies?
An unmarked question which, interpersonally, communicates a strong negative statement in the form of a positive question.
The ironic inference is in the use of an opinion marker, the adverb ‘seriously’, which in a rhetorical question context means the opposite, i.e. ‘they must be joking’, while ‘suddenly’ refers to the ‘unforgotten’ history of the Liberals.
The indirect sarcasm regarding the Liberals ‘inability to learn a lesson’ triggers a violation of the maxim of manner.

j) Stylistic placing:

XII/45 a name...in the household category.
‘Household’ has an experiential function given its culture-bound connotative meaning “due to its nature of source of derivation...”(Lotfipour-Saedi 1990, p. 391), (see discussion on ‘household category’ in understatement above).

II/11 should go and go quickly;
The second repeated ‘go’ coupled with the adverb of opinion ‘quickly’ signals irony given that the writer chooses a colourful emphasis rather than the direct ‘should go quickly’ or the cliché ‘should go sooner rather than later’.

VII/27 Hey Hey it’s Thursday and VII/30 the industrial relations baggage.
Pun is made use of in both instances, Thursday replacing Saturday in reference to a long-established TV program, and baggage being used instead of package. This play on words has an experiential function given that the examples are reminders of past or current Australian events. The writer’s deliberate ‘errors’ infringe the maxim of quality.
- Stylistically signalled irony:

Following Muecke (1969, p. 76), a stylistically signalled irony is any divergence from the stylistic level appropriate to the ironist's subject or his ostensible meaning. This applies to three devices in this text, these being:

VII/27 Who thought *Hey Hey*...was a better medium ...

The use of italics is, interpersonally, a reminder of the famous TV program, while the pretended impersonal view 'he thought that' ironically marks the writer's opinion of Hewson's lack of political fitness.

The irony is textually signalled through the semotactic anomalies or the contrast in: 'Hey Hey it's Thursday' [*Saturday]*, the light family entertainment program on which John Hewson elected to sell his 'complex policies'.

A violation of the maxim of relevance is detected in this instance.

VII/30 He may, however, be able to discard the dead weight... born-again moderate.

A number of strategies are used here to get the ironic intention across. Lexically and interpersonally, use is made of modality: 'he may' to express 'doubt' in the form of 'possibility'.

Metaphorically and experientially, an exophoric sarcastic reference to a past unpopular political stance is employed: 'dead weight'.

Finally, the utterance also includes a play on words which has an experiential function also in the form of a cultural reference: born-again 'moderate' [Christian].

This violation of the maxim of relevance has, for the learned reader, one inference only: irony.

XII/45 Warwick Smith, a name I must confess is not yet in the household category...

The irony is signalled here by the postmodifying sentence 'I must confess' where a modal, interpersonal, verb 'I must' and an exaggerated verb 'confess' are used to express explicitly a firm conviction about the following statement and again, implicitly, the uselessness of Warwick Smith as a potential successor to Hewson.

This innuendo imparts an infringement of the maxim of manner.
k) Semotactic anomalies/contrasts:

As the title suggests, the occurrences below feature incompatible usage which triggers ironic inference.

I/2 ‘easy’... ‘stupid’;

Experientially, the referential contrast between both adjectives communicates the intended irony.

V/19 Party members... ‘to cheer’ the Party leader;

The referential meaning of the verb imparts, experientially, an image of a third world country oppressive regime system espoused by the Liberals. This insinuated attack on the victim is considered a violation of the maxim of manner.

II/9 devastation ... economy in good shape;

Experientially, the contrasting connotation between the adjective ‘devastation’: catastrophe, and the collocation ‘good shape’: very good, gives the inference. (See gradation above).

VII/27 ‘Hey Hey’... a better medium to sell his complex policies;

Textually, the collocation ‘sell a policy’ and the pun ‘Hey Hey’ are not related. However, contextually and interpersonally, they communicate the writer’s views that Hewson has done the wrong thing, to say the least, in his election campaign.

As discussed in the previous device above, this contrast violates the maxim of relevance.

XIII/46 Warwick Smith ... is highly regarded by the media ... for his intelligence, hard work and because he is a ‘delightful human being’.

The anomaly here is triggered, experientially and textually, by the use of ‘delightful’ which contradict the argument in the article: the Liberals’ dilemma is choosing a successor to Hewson and the writer’s views about politicians in general: a profession not
noted for an over-abundance of ‘delightful human beings’ (XIII/47).
This obscurity of expression in the form of a blame for having desirable qualities, violates the maxim of manner.

1) **Cumulation:**
V/19 Party members are there to pre-select candidates, raise funds, man polling booths, and appear at mass rallies to cheer the Party leader.

The cumulation here imparts a strong criticism of the autocratic and bureaucratic system the Liberals have. Irony is enhanced by the description of the functions of the Party members as puppets in the service of the leaders. The ironic inference is further enhanced when the writer suggests that members appear at organised rallies to ‘display’ the popularity of the leader (in reference to Hewson’s American-like election campaign).

This detailed and exaggerated style marks an infringement of the maxim of quantity.

*Lexical devices*

a) **Lexical choice:**

Following are words that give an exaggerated tone or double meaning to emphasise the writer’s post-mortem view about the Liberals in the wake of the election.

They all share textual and interpersonal functions in the sense that their meaning is inferred in context, either indirectly through a contrast (see analysis above) with other words or collocates or inherently, i.e. experientially, through the manipulation of fixed expressions (the last two examples below). Both strategies imply irony, given the ambiguity which is a violation of the maxim of manner.

I/3 ‘Stupid’ decisions; I/8 policies they espoused are ‘anathema’; VII/30 the ‘dead
weight'; VIII/33 risk 'spectrum'; XII/45 name...in the 'household category'; XIII/46 a 'delightful human being'.

b) Idiomatic expressions:

I/3 continue in the 'same vein'; V/20 'holy writ'; VII/30 to discard the 'dead weight'; The three examples above have experiential and textual functions which stem from the use of idiomatic expressions.

'Same vein' means: in the same political direction; holy writ: untouchable law; and dead weight: the stumbling block.

The three instances feature a violation of the maxim of manner based on the innuendo used.

VI/25 'silly enough to stick with' Hewson;

Interpersonally, this idiomatic expression signals an opinion marker and communicates scathing advice to the victim, i.e. 'you are silly ...'.

VIII/33 if the Liberals want 'to shoot themselves in both feet'.

Interpersonally, a warning pretending advice to the victim, knowing that the writer already has an established opinion about the folly of the Liberals. Using the word 'both' infringes the expression 'shoot oneself in the foot', hence the ironic inference.

c) Modality / adverbs:

Modal: II/9 'might' try; XII/45 I 'must' confess.

See discussions on these two modals above in gradation and stylistic placing, respectively.

Adverbs: II/10 do they now 'seriously' believe that voters will 'suddenly' forget;

The two adverbs above (in inverted commas) signal indirect questioning to the victim and an embedded opinion. (See rhetorical question above).
II/11 go ‘quickly’; IX/38 comes ‘readily’; XII/45 exactly;
If we look at the referential meaning of these adverbs, we would have, quickly: sooner rather than later; readily: hard to think of; exactly: no better alternative exist.
In addition to their interpersonal function, that is the command and opinion marked by the three adverbs, ‘readily’ exhibits an understatement and ‘exactly’ a false statement. Both violate the maxim of quality. ‘Quickly’, as explained in stylistic placing above, has its embedded ironic inference.

XIII/47 not ‘normally’ noted for.
Interpersonally, this adverb is an understated opinion marker (see discussion on the device in understatement above)

d) Chain of collocational cohesion (see Halliday and Hasan 1976, p. 289):

- Paragraph level: I/1,2,3,4,5 Losing elections...stupid decisions...worst defeat...continue in the same vein...!
Textually, this device sets the scene of the argument on the introductory paragraph level.
Interpersonally, it has exhortative (House 1977) and vocative (Newmark 1988) functions. The victim, i.e. the Liberals, have themselves to blame for their defeat. ‘Losing’ collocates with the emphatic ‘worst defeat’ and ‘stupid decision’ with ‘continue in the same vein’.
The second result /cause: ‘worst defeat, continue ...’, indicates a violation of the maxim of manner based on the implied innuendo.

- Textual level: VII/26 effective performer; XI/42 an effective speaker in the House and on television; XIII/46 highly regarded ... for his intelligence ....
As explained above, these three devices have interpersonal function, they assert the writer’s opposite opinion of what he said. This inference is drawn from the contextual meaning of the utterances, hence the violation of the maxim of quality.
e) Compound words:

I/8 thick-headed;
This is a political reference with an experiential function. It signals an opinion marker, hence its interpersonal function. The ironic inference stems from its connotative meaning: stupid and slow to understand.

VII/30 born-again moderate;
This is a cultural reference that has an experiential function. The play on words, using ‘moderate’ for ‘Christian’, triggers the irony.

IX/34 high-risk category;
Textually, this device is a reiteration of ‘on the other end of the risk spectrum’ in the previous sequence. The point the writer is trying to make by describing their chances is that despite both politicians’ (Reith and Bishop) obvious lack of leadership quality, the Liberals bandied their names about.
There is a flouting of the maxim of manner, since the ostensible meaning: ‘the chances of a politician being Opposition Leader’, contradicts the implied meaning: ‘the problematic Bishop is still considered to be a Leader!’.

XIII/47 ... not normally known for an over-abundance of ....
Interpersonally, there is a confusion of an understatement ‘not normally known’ with an overstatement ‘over-abundance’. The implied irony lies in the ambiguous style chosen to express a simple idea. The overall, combined meaning of the sentence is: ‘not many ... exist.’ This is a violation of the maxim of manner.

f) Metaphor:

XII/45 hard heads in Canberra:
An idiomatic expression that has an experiential function. It describes the stubbornness and arrogance of the referents, i.e. the Liberals in the Parliament and the Senate in Canberra, hence its interpersonal function and ironic inference.
g) Repetition:

VII/27, XI/42 effective performer, effective speaker...on television; VIII/33, IX/34 risk spectrum, high-risk category.

The repetition of the first two instances casts doubts on the real intention of the writer. Although Howard is described as the most effective performer, he was later likened to Hewson in terms of his policies. The effectiveness of Costello in the second instance could not be taken seriously. He was effective on ‘television’ but is also known as hard-right as Howard given he is ‘an employer advocate against the trade unions’.

On the second two devices, risk spectrum and high-risk category, see compound words above.

The repetitions here have textual and interpersonal functions. They link the message the writer is trying to get across: there is no easy choice for the Liberals.

h) Naming of the participants: Indirect audience address:

VII/27 anyone who thinks...; IX/38 ...when one thinks of Senator Bishop.

The writer is calling for the agreement of the Australian voters [using ‘anyone’ and ‘one’] regarding his analysis of the situation and his opinion about the Liberals’ potential leadership contenders. The indirect audience address implies a defence of the victim. In the device in VII/27 the implication is: no, you are mistaken, he [Howard] IS the most effective etc., while in the second device, the ostensible meaning is: Bishop has a ‘bit’ of a flexibility problem, that’s worrying but not a big deal. On both accounts the writer infringes the maxim of quality.
Grammatical devices

a) **Adjunct adverbs** used as subordinators (see Quirk et al 1985, p. 442):

I/1 The Liberals can’t understand ‘why’ they keep ...;

In this instance, the writer is using a detached question in the form of indirect speech which enables him to present his opinion, even without the following answer ‘they keep making stupid decisions’. If we convert it to direct speech: We can’t understand ‘why’ we keep ..., the implication of the utterance becomes clear: the Liberals’ amazement about their defeats shows that they are arrogant and stubborn. This could, rhetorically, come under a pretended defence of the victim, hence, the violation of the maxim of quality and the ironic inference.

I/8 it must be obvious to ‘even’ the most thick-headed of them that ...;

Interpersonally, the writer’s opinion is marked by the adverb ‘even’ which begins a subordinating clause to stress the intended viewpoint. Again, the irony is in the inscription. The commentator is in fact shocked that the Liberals still can’t understand the reason behind their defeat although it is so obvious ...

A violation of the maxim of manner is employed here given the ambiguity in the intended meaning.

b) **Reference:** In this text use is made of deictics to refer to an ironic statement putting emphasis on the ironic referents.

- Anaphoric:

I/2 That’s easy;

This reference has a textual, cohesive function, and an interpersonal function given the writer’s statement that he has the answer. The irony is inferred by the implied meaning: you [Liberals] don’t know why ...! It doesn’t need deep thinking to find out!, and, consequently, by the violation of the maxim of manner.
II/9 Those who have doubts;
‘Those’, here, refers to the ‘thick-headed Liberals’ mentioned in the previous utterance. Hence, its ironic meaning stems, textually, from its contextual referent.

XIII/47 the latter.
A textual reference to an earlier ironic remark: delightful human being.

• Exophoric.
V/24 Ask Ian Macphee, Peter Baume, Chris Puplick and Fred Chaney.
An indirect advice to the Liberals, in the form of a direct address, calling them to learn a lesson from the past and be more democratic in dealing with Party matters. To emphasise his point the writer cites examples of those Liberals who were ‘shunted aside’ for being eccentrics.
The ambiguity here violates the maxim of manner.

VII/27 Hey Hey It’s Thursday Night.
A social reference. The play on words and the stylistic placing imply the ironic intention. This reference, as discussed above, includes a violation of the maxims of relevance and quality.

c) Inversion/cleft-sentences:

VII/29 Howard’s problem is that...; VIII/32 At the other end of the risk spectrum is Peter Reith; IX/34 In the same...is Senator Bronwyn Bishop; IX/38 Flexible is not a word that comes readily to mind...; XII Warwick Smith...is another...

The inversion construction is cleverly employed here to give the impression of objectivity, or even a defence of the victim. After, individually, parading the victim of irony’s [the Liberals] leadership contenders, or, in other terms, looking at these contenders’ merits or chances of winning an election, the writer utters his judgment.
Giving judgement implies an interpersonal function, while the contextual meaning, i.e. highlighting the victim’s problems, signals a textual function.
d) Post modification:

XI/41&42 with a reputation as a student activist...; An effective speaker ... on television. Interpersonally, the irony comes here in the form of a praise for having undesirable qualities, which imparts a violation of the maxim of quality.

e) Illative conjunction:

II/9 ‘if’ the economy had been in good shape.
Use is made of a hypothetical condition. The writer assumes the falsehood of his proposition but calling the Liberals to contrast the result ‘if’ the economy ... .The writer’s assumption here is ‘although the economy is bad, you lost the election!.
The hypothetical past tense signals the hypothetical meaning (see Leech and Svartvik 1994). This implies a violation of the maxim of quality.

f) Superlative:

I/8 the ‘most’ thick-headed.
Interpersonally, ‘most’ is an irony displayed that marks the writer’s view about the degree of arrogance and stupidity of the victim/s of irony.
This device signals a violation of the maxim of quality.

g) Conditional:

VIII/33 ‘If’ the Liberals want to shoot themselves in both feet ...
This conditional has an interpersonal function. It assumes the stupidity of the victim of irony knowing that the leadership contenders of the Liberals [the victims] after the election defeat are all problematic, as argued in this article. So the utterance is considered, rhetorically, a pretended piece of advice to the victim, hence it violates the maxim of quality.
h) Free indirect speech:

XII/45 ... who the hard heads in Canberra believe ‘is exactly what the Liberals need’. As discussed above, irony is embedded in the adverb ‘exactly’ which imparts a false statement.

Interpersonally also, the writer stated in a pretended detachment who the Liberal decision makers think is the best Opposition leader for them. However, describing the victims as hard heads undermines the credibility of their conviction and presents the writer’s real opinion, argued throughout the text, ‘even’ about the ‘delightful human being’: Warwick Smith, that the Liberals need. This inference is also signalled textually in the argument in sequence IV, where the writer states that ‘The liberals’ problem rests in their policies and structure’. Based on the insinuation, there is a violation of the maxim of quality.
Communicative Function of the Structure

Text-type focus: through argument

Direct/indirect speech acts:

Sequence I

- Propositional meaning: The reason behind the Liberals' defeat is their philosophy and policies. They are about to continue adopting the same ones!
- Conversational strategy: An infringement of the maxim of quality triggered by the understatement in I/1: and the superlative in I/8 the 'most' thick-headed of them.
- Illocutionary force: The stupid Liberals, who don't have any smart tactician, didn't learn the lesson!
- Sign: Thesis cited to be substantiated.

S. II

- Propositional meaning: The Liberals would have suffered a stronger defeat had the economy been better, voters would not forget the cause for the defeat: Hewson, who should go now.
- Conversational strategy: A violation of the maxim of quality triggered by the double shift effect of the hypothetical suggestion in II/9: 'Those who have doubts ... if the economy had been in good shape.'
- Illocutionary force: Hewson is the Liberals' problem.
- Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. III

- Propositional meaning: The Liberals have to review their philosophy and policies.
- Illocutionary force: A debate over the Liberals' future policies must take place before choosing a leader.
- Sign: Thesis substantiated.
S. IV

- Propositional meaning: The fundamental weaknesses of the Liberals is the power given to their leaders as opposed to their counterparts in the Labor Party. Labor has more control over the decision making of its leaders.

- Illocutionary force: The power of the leader of the Liberals should be decreased. The Liberals should learn from their opponent how to keep their leaders honest.

- Sign: Argument to be substantiated.

S. V

- Propositional meaning: The role of Party members in conservative politics is restricted, dissidents are not welcomed.

- Conversational strategy: An infringement of the maxims of quality and quantity triggered, respectively, by the metaphor: It's a holy writ... and the cumulation in V/19: ... pre-select ... cheer the Party leader.

- Illocutionary force: The Liberals must follow Labor's example. Party members should have a say without being treated as dissidents.

- Sign: Substantiation of the argument.

S. VI

- Propositional meaning: A new leader must be elected in order to have new policies.

- Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of manner by using an understatement in VI/25: unless they are silly enough to stick...

- Illocutionary force: With Hewson the Liberals have no hope in winning the next election.

- Sign: Argument.

S. VII

- Propositional meaning: Despite Howard's performance on television, he must put on a new face to be acceptable.
• Conversational strategy: A breach of the maxims of quality and manner through the use of: overstatement in VII/27: The most experienced performer ...; internal contradiction in VII/30: ‘able to discard the dead weight of the industrial relations baggage, Howard is a safe alternative’ and the play on words: ‘baggage’ for ‘package’.
• Illocutionary force: Howard’s political history prevents him from being a suitable alternative.
• Sign: Argument.

S. VIII
• Propositional meaning: Reith is the most risky choice.
• Conversational strategy: An infringement of the maxim of quality by the use of the hypothetical conditional sentence in VIII/33: If the Liberals want to shoot themselves in both feet ... then ... .
• Illocutionary force: Warning: Reith would kill your hopes.
• Sign: Argument.

S. IX
• Propositional meaning: Bishop is another high-risk choice, because of her hard-headed nature.
• Conversational strategy: A violation of the maxim of manner through the understatement in IX/38: Flexible is not a word that comes readily to mind when one thinks of Senator Bishop.
• Illocutionary force: Bishop will not do either because of her inflexibility.
• Sign: Argument.

S. X
• Propositional meaning: Because Peacock and McLachlan do not want to be in the race, the Liberals have to choose someone from the new generation.
• Illocutionary force: The Liberals have lost hope in bringing their old, efficient generation back to power.
• Sign: Argument.
S. XI

- Propositional meaning: Peter Costello might make it to the deputy leadership because he is another performer.

- Illocutionary force: He will not benefit the Liberals because he is from the same category as Howard, a hard-right politicians.

- Sign: Argument.

S. XII

- Propositional meaning: Smith is not a performer. The Liberals’ big guns are considering him.

- Conversational strategy: A violation of the maxim of quality by using an understatement in XII/45: not yet a household category, and a free indirect speech in XII/45: also: ... who the hard heads in Canberra believe ‘is exactly what the Liberals need’.

- Illocutionary force: He will not make it and if he did, he will not succeed based on his low profile and on his popularity among the Liberals in Canberra.

- Sign: Argument.

S. XIII

- Propositional meaning: Smith is respected for his manner, that might be what the Liberals need.

- Conversational strategy: A breach of the maxim of manner using understatement in XIII/47: a profession not normally known for an over-abundance ...

- Illocutionary force: Smith would ideally be the Liberals last resort if it wasn’t for the striking similarity in the character between him and Hewson, such as, honesty, intelligence and hard working.

- Sign: Conclusion.
The Text’s Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

The commentator expresses overtly his views towards Hewson’s policies and the Liberal party’s lack of political insight in the wake of the election defeat. He exposes the Liberals’ leadership hopefuls individually, stressing their contribution to the Party’s present unenviable state, with the following result: Doubts over all the contenders, even the writer’s favourite, Warwick Smith, whom he selected because he is a ‘delightful human being’. Irony is used explicitly throughout the article.

Province

This background feature is written in ‘The Australian’, a prominent newspaper in Australia. The article examines the election defeat of the Liberal Party in 1993, and it reflects the writers view, analysis and recommendations for the Liberals regarding their future contenders in federal politics.

Participation

The tenor used by the writer is perceived as ironic because of his pretended advice and search for a solution for the defeated Liberals as well as presenting his commiseration to them.

The readership addressed is: the Australian voters at large and the Liberals’ political minders. The involvement of the first is shown directly by the use of personal pronouns, and indirectly by the use of the markers of solidarity, such as, the majority of Australians, voters and one. The minders of the Liberal Party are addressed ironically through the exposition of the their existing hopefuls and potential successors to Hewson.
Although informal and intimate style was employed, social attitude is detected. The writer exerts his authority on the readership and the Liberals, thus, a sense of asymmetry is embedded. A clear indication of this is the use of pronouns where the writer assumes he is conversing with an audience to whom he expresses his knowledge about the political history of the Liberals, for example, 'anyone who thinks' in VII/27.

Overt Irony is used almost throughout the text, excluding paragraphs III and IV, which gives the readership a contrast, on the textual level, between the writer’s bitter ironic description of the Liberals and his objective and (intended) serious view of the outcome.
EDITORIAL

TITLE: BALL-AND-CHAIN RELATIONSHIP IS STRANGLING US

Texture

Rhetorical devices

a) Fallacious reasoning:

I/1 Keating must be blessed, such is his good luck.
The writer attributes Keating’s luck to a heavenly blessing. He uses a religious metaphor to evoke an experiential meaning which departs from the usual political analysis based on facts, figures, events etc. The irony can be read here is context also, for example, in utterance two the first problem ‘jobless figures’ facing PM Keating is highlighted. In other terms, the writer flouts the conversational maxim of quality for he is in fact ‘blaming’ the blessing for pushing Keating’s luck. Hence the irony.

b) Gradation/double shift effect:

II/2 When the worst jobless figures in 60 years ... marriage break-up of the Prince and Princess of Wales.

Textually, an ironic contrast is drawn through the lexical choice of unrelated topics ‘jobless figures’ and ‘Prince and Princess of Wales’.

Grammatically, an adjunct adverbs ‘When’ the worst ... is used to substantiate the reasoning in the introductory thesis, that is the sheer ‘temporal coincidence’ that saves Keating.

This violation of the maxim of relevance gives the ironic inference.
c) Praise in order to blame:

VI/9,10 And when a natural diversion doesn’t materialise for Mr Keating, he creates one. Like the Australian flag, or republicanism, or violence on television.

Grammatically, use is made of an adjunct adverb ‘when’ as a subordinator to the earlier point made on Keating’s tactics in II/2 mentioned above. The anaphoric reference to natural diversion ‘one’ reiterate the irony meant by the metaphoric meaning of the expression. An exophoric reference to the political situation is used also through the naming of the current (rather insignificant in terms of the real issue) topics put to debate by the PM.

Textually, these two utterances mark another attack on Keating’s political manipulations. The intended meaning is further signalled lexically through the use of the metaphor ‘natural diversion’ which meaning is uttered explicitly in the following set of examples ‘flag, republicanism etc.’, and the word ‘creates’ which referential meaning contradicts the inferential one, i.e. ‘find for personal benefit’. The simile ‘like’ is another lexical device that introduces explicitly the examples of the political manipulation.

All these linguistic features can be interpreted, if de-contextualised and de-situation-ised, i.e. not read in context and in situation, as praise of the victim. However, given the textual evidence of attack on the victim of irony and the political situation, coupled with the mutual expectation between commentary writers and readers, that is, where the commentary writer relies on his/her readers’s political awareness and the readers expect references to, and links between, events and characters, ellipsis, exhortative, insinuated and colourful style etc. (see overview of commentary texts in Chapter four), a violation of the maxim of quality in the form of a praise in order to blame is inferred.
d) Overstatement:

VIII/12 maestro of manipulation.

Lexically, a metaphor ‘maestro’ is made use of. The irony, however, stems from the incompatible collocation between the metaphor and the referential meaning of ‘manipulation’: deviousness, in both the political and social senses.

e) Pretended encouragement to the victim:

XII/18 there IS a chance you can do it.

A graphological device ‘capital letters’ is used in this instance. ‘IS’ signals a stylistic change in the reading process, hence sheds doubts about the ostensible meaning which creates a plausible elliptic exclamation mark at the end of the sentence.

The contradiction between the explicit encouragement ‘you can do it’ and the implicit one ‘ironically, you can still make it!’ evoke an infringement of the maxim of quality through a pretended encouragement to the victim.

f) Antithesis.

I/1 Paul Keating must be blessed ...

Textually, a thesis to be argued. It mixes politics and sanctity. The interpersonal function of the modal ‘must’, which expresses a strong conviction about an absurd proposal, infers the implausibility of the propositional meaning and the ironic inference.

XIV/21 Luck and sleight-of-hand will not solve this crisis ...

The irony stems here from the experiential function of the idiom used ‘sleight-of-hand’ which is antithetical to finding solutions to the [economic] crisis.
g) Condensation/Aphorisms: Telegraphic style.

I/1 Paul Keating must be blessed, such is his good luck. Textually, this utterance/sequence represents the theme or thesis to be argued in the text. Its ironic inference stems, lexically, from the use of the adverb ‘must’ which communicates the writer’s ‘strong’ opinion about a mysterious divine help (‘blessed’ see ‘a’ above) the PM is receiving which enables him to survive politically.

VI/8 All this is grist to Mr Keating’s mill. Textually, ‘this’ is a conclusive reference to the preceding examples which substantiated the first thesis: ‘Keating is blessed’.

Experientially, an idiomatic expression: ‘a grist to the mill’ is made use of.

There is a violation of the maxim of manner given the piquant and racy (Emery 1991) style of both utterances.

XIV/21 sleight-of-hand;

Experientially, an idiomatic expression referring to a magical act is used. The expression also has textual function given its contextual meaning and interpersonal function based on the opinion expressed about the victim: Keating is a deceiving politician. Refer to antithesis in rhetorical devices above.

h) Climax:

IX/13 & 14

Textually, a succession of metaphors is used: ideas ... ‘dried up’, economy’s ‘ills’, ‘glimmer of hope’ ... has amounted to nothing. This violation of the maxim of quantity (being more informative than it is required) and the experiential function of the connotations of the metaphors impart the ironic inference.
I) Stylistic placing:

IV/6 handful of ‘free kicks’ (idiomatic expression); VIII/12 maestro (metaphor). These words signal irony based, experientially, on their connotations and textually on their usage in context. ‘Free kicks’, i.e. ‘chance’ is incongruous with its referent ‘the changes to GST’. ‘Maestro’, as discussed above, was used with unusual collocates. Both instances give rise to a violation of the maxim of manner, hence to ironic inference.

J) Euphemisms:

III/4 receiving a hammering for his “big brother” tactic. Experientially, use is made of a metaphor ‘hammering’, meaning ‘he was in all sort of trouble’, and an exophoric reference to a ‘piece’ of political jargon “Big Brother” which also marks intertextuality given that this expression derives from George Orwell’s “1984”. A violation of the maxim of manner applies given the relative obscurity of expression.

k) Semotactic anomalies/contrasts:

II/2 When the ‘worst jobless figures in 60 years’ were released ... the nation’s attention was diverted ... by the ‘marriage break-up’ of the Prince and Princess of Wales. The link between totally contrasting facts attracts a violation of the maxim of relevance.

Lexical devices

a) Lexical choice:

I/1 blessed;
Textually, this is a thematic gambit around which the argument is built.
The expression has experiential function given its intertextual usage.

XII/18 to inspire us;
‘To inspire’ here has interpersonal function. It is election time and political parties use all possible tactics to attract voters. Here, the inference of ‘inspire’ is that ‘Keating needs a striking turn-around to be able to swing the tide currently against him’.
Moreover, the word reflects also the writer’s feeling that ‘it is almost impossible for Keating to make it’. The use of ‘us’ evokes solidarity between the writer and the readers and an antagonistic attitude to the Prime Minister.
The ambiguity signals a violation of the maxim of manner.

b) Modality/adverbs/Viewpoint subjunct, (see Quirk et al 1985, p. 568):
In this context, all the devices below express a different view to the ostensible meaning.

• Modals;
I/1 ‘must’ be blessed: Surely there is something wrong [that keeps things going for him]!.

VIII/12 He ‘may’ be: He is definitely a ...

• Adverbs:
II/3 magically: by a sheer coincidence

• Subjunct:
III/5 after all.
Interpersonally, this subjunct is considered an understatement given the great debate over, and the sensitivity of, the GST proposal during the election period.
Violation of the maxim of quantity.
c) Figurative language:

III/4 receiving a ‘hammering’ for;
This is an idiomatic expression with an experiential function (see euphemism above).

III/4 “big brother”;  
Experientially, use is made of intertextual expression (see euphemism above).

IV/6 a handful of ‘free kicks’;  
This is an idiom that has an experiential textual function (see stylistic placing above).  
It refers to ‘the changes to GST’.

VII/11 rely on the ‘wind of good fortune’;  
This is an idiomatic expression with an experiential function.

VIII/12 a maestro of manipulation;  
See overstatement above.

The title and XI/16 The ‘ball-and-chain’ relationship [between the Federal Labor Government and the ACTU];  
Experientially, this is a cultural idiomatic expression is used. It has also an interpersonal function given that it communicates an opinion about the reason for our dilemma under the current government, i.e. ‘the old and restricting [relationship with the ACTU]’. The insinuation here evokes an infringement of the maxim of manner.

XIV/21 sleight-of-hand;  
This is an idiomatic expression that, referentially, means a deception using the hands.  
Here it refers to the manipulation of the political situation. A violation of the maxim of manner is marked due to the innuendo.
d) Inconsistency in the use of honorifics:

III/5 and V/7 Mr Hewson, IV/6 Dr Hewson;
The inconsistency or occasional stripping of title from the victim has an interpersonal function. It signals an unfavourable opinion regarding the Opposition Leader’s mishandling of his responsibility.
By saying something that he knows is false, the writer flouts the maxim of quality.

e) Chain of collocational cohesion:
The two victims of irony are concurrently referred to through a chain of expressions that are linked, and, at some instances, simply refer to each other.

III/4 flexibility, III/4 Hewson abruptly opted for flexibility, III/5 changes to the GST, IV/6 free kicks, V/7 alterations.
This set is directed to Dr Hewson’s softness and unstableness in regards to his major policy.

I/1 blessed, good luck, II/2 the nation’s attention was ‘diverted’, II/3 spotlight has been magically redirected, VII/11 the winds of good fortune, XIV/21 Luck.
The above collocates aim at one message: Keating did and would survive because he is a good political tactician and because Hewson is too weak to face the challenge.

f) Compound-words:
The title and XI/16 ball-and-chain; XIV/21 sleight-of-hand; (see ‘c’ above).

g) Collocations:
After Hatim and Mason (1991, p. 204), “collocation is not purely mechanical, but provides powerful evidence of intentionality and text-type focus.” Following are two examples used in this text.
By giving ‘10 days’ notice’, Experientially, the ‘time/notice’ collocation is a legal jargon. Borrowing the expression here infers ‘a stupid tactical move by Dr Hewson’

IV/6 given ... ‘free kicks’.
This is a reference to football (soccer) [Dr. Hewson’s favourite sport] that metaphorically and textually refers to 10 days’ notice above. Thus, communicatively, it covers the experiential, textual and interpersonal functions.

h) Personification:

XIV/21 Luck and sleight-of-hand ... will not ‘deliver’ you.
This is a conclusive metaphoric remark reflecting an exhortative statement. The ironic inference here stems from its contextual meaning, ‘Dr Hewson [and your (Keating’s) tactics] will not deliver you the next election ...’. The embedded criticism here is considered an infringement of the maxim of manner.

Grammatical devices

a) Focusing subjuncts.

IV/6 before they are ‘even’ disclosed.
Interpersonally, this is an opinion marker that points to the degree of the political blunder that Dr Hewson has made. This inference is based on the contextual meaning. A violation of the maxim of manner given the relative ambiguity in the criticism.

b) Inversion/cleft sentence:

Inversion
Following Halliday (1970), transposing an adverb to sentence-initial position is considered an inversion. Leech and Svartvik (1994, p. 201) called this contrastive
topic and viewed that it is typical of rhetorical speech ‘... where the fronting helps to point dramatically to a contrast between two things mentioned in neighbouring sentences or clauses, which often have parallel structure...’. The three utterances below are examples.

II/2 When the ‘worst jobless figures in 60 year’s were released ... the nation’s attention was diverted ... by the ‘marriage break-up’ of the Prince and Princess of Wales. The focus here is on the marriage break-up which stand in striking contrast with the economic news. This stylistic placing and fallacious reasoning, i.e. the violation of the maxim of relevance, evoke the ironic inference.

IV/6 By giving 10 days’ notice of his announcement [changes to GST], Dr Hewson has given Mr Keating a handful of free kicks ...;
Interpersonally, an opinion marker using the participle ‘giving’ is employed.
In addition, borrowing the legal jargon reflects, as discussed, an experiential function.
Textually, the irony, in both idiomatic expressions, is further enhanced by ascribing the new information to the theme ‘Dr Hewson ... handful of free kicks’.

VI/9 And when a natural diversion doesn’t materialise for Mr Keating, he creates one.
Experientially, use is made of two metaphors, ‘natural diversion’ and ‘creates’. The former is a reference, hence, its textual function.

Cleft sentence:
V/7 What Mr Hewson’s strategy was is anybody’s guess;
In this wh-type cleft sentence the focus is on the complement ‘anybody’ which is an integral part of an idiomatic expression ‘anybody’s guess’: uncertain. Hence, the ironic inference is signalled both grammatically and lexically.
Interpersonally, the writer expresses amazement and poses a rhetorical question.
c) Concessive conjunct:

III/5 Mr Hewson decided that he would, ‘after all’, be making changes to the GST; Interpersonally, ‘after all’ assesses Dr Hewson’s move, meaning, ‘not standing up to his principle’.
(See viewpoint subjunct in lexical devices ‘b’ above).

VI/8 ‘All this’ is grist to Mr Keating’s mill.
‘All this’ is an assessment of the situation. The irony is signalled textually, given that this conjunct is a reference to Keating’s double luck: natural diversions and Dr Hewson’s political moves/mistakes.

d) The use of Participles:

IV/6 By giving.
A ‘prepositional’ function participle is made use of, ‘giving’ has an interpersonal function through the use of a statement.

e) Reference:

• Cataphoric: anticipatory reference.
III/4 “big brother” tactics;
Experientially, an idiomatic expression is used. The irony is situational: “while Keating was in trouble for ‘behaving like a dictator’, he received a boost from Dr hewson!”

• Anaphoric:
VI/9 natural diversion;
A metaphor is used. In addition to its experiential function, it refers, textually, to ear-
lier ironic coincidence that saved Keating from a political troublesome situation, i.e. the marriage break-up of the Prince and Princess of Wales.

VII/11 the winds of good fortune;
This is an idiomatic expression in reference to all the luck Keating has had, coupled with Dr Hewson's blunders.

VIII/12 maestro of manipulation;
Reference is made here to the PM's ability to exploit cleverly the situation. See overstatement in rhetorical devices ‘d’ above.

XIV/21 sleight-of-hand.
Refer to antithesis and condensation/aphorism in rhetorical devices ‘f’ and ‘g’ above.

• Exophoric:
II/2 The marriage break-up of the Prince and Princess of Wales;
Experientially, a cultural reference is made use of. The break-up, which becomes a soap opera, infers irony in that the Australian public were more interested in the Royal story than their economy and politics. This fallacious reasoning is considered a violation of the maxim of quality.

The title and XI/16 The ball-and-chain relationship;
See figurative expressions in lexical device ‘c’ above.

f) Free indirect speech:

III/5 Mr Hewson decided that he ‘would’, after all, ‘be making changes to the GST’.
This clause is perceived as ironic based on its contextual meaning, that is the
contrast between the use of ‘Mr Hewson’ who ‘decided to...’ and the viewpoint subjunct ‘after all’.

See discussion on ‘Mr’ and ‘after all’ in ‘inconsistency of the use of ‘modality’ and ‘honorifics’ devices in lexical devices ‘b’ and ‘d’ above.

g) Adjunct adverbs:

II/2 ‘When’ the worst ...

Interpersonally, this is a statement in the form of a wh-type cleft sentence where the focus is placed on the complement: the marriage break-up, which is in turn, the focus of the irony in the utterance as discussed in ‘inversion’ device above.

VI/9 And ‘when’ a natural diversion doesn’t materialise for Mr Keating, he creates one; This cleft sentence has interpersonal function given the hypothetical statement proposed. The focus here is on ‘creates [one: a natural diversion]’ (see inversion in ‘b’ above).

h) Embedding:

XII/18 Use of double dashes: - and there IS a chance you can do it -

Interpersonally, this device stresses the writer’s personal opinion. The deliberate and informal disruption to the reading flow and the use of capital letters signals irony by way of stylistic placing.

Graphological devices

a) Quotation marks:

III/4. “big brother”
Interpersonally, the idiom is highlighted for emphasis (see euphemism in rhetorical devices ‘j’ above).

b) Use of capitalised word:

IS in XII/18
An emphatic personal view is communicated (see pretended encouragement to the victim in rhetorical devices ‘e’ and embedding in lexical devices ‘h’ above).
Communicative Function of the Structure

_text-type focus: through argument_

_Direct / indirect speech acts:

Sequence I

• Propositional meaning: Keating is lucky.
• Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of quality by the lexical choice of blessed in I/1.
• Illocutionary force: So far, Keating’s luck is unbelievable.
• Sign: Thesis cited to be substantiated.

S. II

• Propositional meaning: Once again, people’s focus has been redirected from Keating’s problems.
• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of relevance triggered by the use of contrast, Jobless figures ... marriage break-up of Prince...
• Illocutionary force: Irrelevant event has saved the PM’s.
• Sign: Argument

S. III

• Propositional meaning: Before that, Hewson redirected the spotlight from Keating’s interference with state politics to the alteration he made to the GST package.
• Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner using the metaphor ‘hammering’.
• Illocutionary force: Even Hewson, the leader of the Opposition, saved Keating from his political dilemma!
• Sign: Argument.
S. IV

- Propositional meaning: In addition to that, Hewson gave Keating time to attack his future change to GST.
- Conversational strategy: Breaching the maxim of manner using a stylistic placing: ‘handful of free kicks’.
- Illocutionary force: Hewson is a political disaster in terms of tactics.
- Sign: Argument

S V

- Propositional meaning: Hewson’s strategy was unclear, his Party members were not consulted.
- Illocutionary force: Hewson’s decision and move were individual, poorly planned and inappropriate.
- Sign: Argument

S. VI

- Propositional meaning: The above events are in Keating’s favour; he also uses other tactics when necessary.
- Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxims of manner and quality by the use of an idiom and praising in order to blame in VI/8: grist in Keating’s mill; VI/9,10: ... when a natural diversion ... creates one. Like the Australian flag, etc.
- Illocutionary force: Keating is smart. He plays on the emotion of the Australians when he is in a dire strait situation.
- Sign: Conclusion preparing the ground for rebuttal.

S. VII

- Propositional meaning: luck and tactics are not enough to win the next election.
- Illocutionary force: The Prime Minister needs more than luck this time.
- Sign: Thesis cited to be substantiated, rebuttal.
S. VIII

- Propositional meaning: he [Keating] is a good politician but Australians need different policies.

- Illocutionary force: the Australians will not be fooled by Keating's manoeuvres.

- Sign: Thesis substantiated.

S. IX

- Propositional meaning: The Labor Government has no new ideas to offer the ailing economy, and Keating didn't deliver.

- Conversational strategy: Violation of the maxim of quantity using climax in IX/13 & 14: ideas ... 'dried up', economy's 'ills', 'glimmer of hope' ... has amounted to nothing.

- Illocutionary force: The Labor Government is responsible for our economic situation.

- Sign: Argument.

S. X

- Propositional meaning: The Government has a chance to be re-elected provided it gives more power to small businesses.

- Illocutionary force: Employers in small businesses need more power, they are the key for this government to win the next election.

- Sign: Argument.

S. XI

- Propositional meaning: The Government and the ACTU must work separately and businesses should be given more freedom.

- Illocutionary force: Stop being a pawn in the hands of the ACTU and stop playing the role of advocate for the employees.

- Sign: Argument.
S. XII
• Propositional meaning: Politics is not enough, there is a need for a new industrial reform like the one the Opposition devised.
• Conversational strategy: Infringing the maxim of quality using a pretended encouragement to the victim in XII/18 that there IS a chance that you can do it.
• Illocutionary force: With Hewson at the helm as Opposition leader, you can still make it a fifth term for the Labor! But, ironically, you need an industrial reform package, like Hewson’s!
• Sign: Argument.

S. XIII
• Propositional meaning: In order to reduce unemployment, Australian businesses need to be helped.
• Illocutionary force: Provide help for businesses if you are serious about fighting the recession.
• Sign: Argument.

S XIV
• Propositional meaning: What you need is industrial reform to back you up in the next election not luck and politics.
• Conversational strategy: Violating the maxim of manner using a personification in XIV/21 Luck and sleight-of-hand...will not ‘deliver’ you.
• Illocutionary force: You will not be re-elected unless you were genuine in your approach to the industrial reform; a reform that might, ironically, be the reason to sink a genuine reformer, Hewson himself!
• Sign: Conclusion.
The Text’s Rhetorical Meaning

Attitude

The writer is of the view that Keating’s fortune in hanging on to government is due to two factors: his skills and the Opposition leader’s mishandling of the politics of the Liberals. However, he argues his proposition by expressing his conviction that the Prime Minister needs more than luck to win the upcoming election: he needs to have a genuine industrial reform.

Province

This editorial shows a host of ironic markers which are not found at this level in editorials in other broadsheet newspapers (cf. the Sydney Morning Herald editorial above). The text’s structure shares similarities with the background feature articles, mainly, the length of the sequences and the set of rhetorical devices.

Participation

The informal and emotional tone as well as the ironic tenor in this article imply the nature of the readership, i.e. weekend readers who expect to be entertained even by reading an editorial which takes, usually, in the weekdays, a rather more formal shape. This perhaps has its cultural root and the English saying ‘the Englishman slips into his paper like a warm bath’ supports this view.

The writer/readers social relationship was achieved through an indirect address to the readers. Markers of solidarity were featured in: (1) juxtaposition of pronouns, e.g. XII/18 ... chance that you can do it ... is to inspire ‘us’; XIII/20 Mr Keating, ‘our’ jobless rate. (2) The use of personal pronouns: addressing the readership in the introduction and the body of the text, that is in the hypothesis and throughout the argument
of the article, through the use of the third person singular after naming the characters addressed in the article, for example, I/1 Paul Keating, I/2 the nation's attention; II/3 public spotlight; VII/11 his political skills; XIII/19 if Australian businesses.

Overt irony is used almost in the first half of the article and diminished as the writer tries to put his message across, as if he is appealing to the readers' support before launching his hortatory and warning lesson to the PM. This was achieved through: Direct appeal to the victim using performative verbs, XII/17 Forget the politics, Mr Keating ...; XIII/20 Remember, Mr Keating... Also, and through the use of the first person singular, XII/18 Your chance [Keating] of winning ... ; XIV/21 will not ... deliver you.
الموضوع:
المبكي!

بقلم:
راشد السويش

إذا كانت سنوات الطفولة بالنسبة للمحلق العربي تعتبر
 أهم مراحل التكيف للعلم والمعرفة، فهي أيضاً بدور هام
 تعتبر باباً الدعوة والاستفادة، اللغة والاستغلال من
 معرفة الحياة، أو مثاب سلالات كا تجد صعوبة قصيرة في
 جمعها ومعرفتها، أي فهي بكل معنى الكلمة
 ومن الكلمات والأفكار التي سيتلقى لنا بعضها من
 الإشارات اللغوية مثلها: "فر الأسر، يدفهك" أو
 "الفاحشة المبكي".

فبأي يوم، ماذا أو متعداً، نجد أن رئيس حكومة نيب
 ساوث يعيش السيد جون ثيبي بحول أما أن يجيب لنا
 علىلح الغرائب أو أن يطبعها، دون ملاحظة أو أغتنام لردات
 اللغات التي قد تترندها.

في الأسبوع قبل الماضي، بعد فضائح أزمة "برنامج
 التمويل MAV"، المرتبط بـ "هوية فلبينية"، استقالاً يكريمًا، بخصوص
 "هوية فلبينية"، على حد تحديداً، في أظهر وجه
 البراءة، ومكانة التصرف نفسه، ومند لكل زور في حكومته،
 وعد بتقديم لجنة برلمانية معادية من الغرباء، مزودة
 بها صلاحيات جمة، لكي تستطيع من خلالها الوصول إلى أمثال
 دعوات القلق.

وتكتمل ل الواقع ومعنى الغرائب長いلا، إذا أنه حتى
 لحظات اتحاد قرار تشكيل اللجنة كل شيء، في فصول
 اللذين يظهر إلى الأطراء والبياء، كفر السيد، فاخر
 ينادي، المسؤول عن اللواء، وتبيه السياسي، الذي لا يعلو
 فيه. من وجه الأثر المحتمل أو عن ضعف البايك، وذلك
 حين أعلن في الأسبوع الماضي عن تكليف أحد قادة المحكمة
 العليا للتحقيق لمراقبة هذه اللجنة.

كما يقول قائد فريق للجثة إلى مرتكز عن وجه المحكمة
 والاستغلال في هذا التصرف الطبيعي المثير للجدل، مرتاح عليه
 في كل شهر البلاد أو الحياة، "قنيل أن حركة البايك لا
 تستعمل أمنية وأبناها أن تكونها عندما لم تسمع بأن
 اجت أو رأى، هذا التفاصيل سيكون 3000 دولار في اليوم
 الواحد.

نعم ... لا تفكروا "مهينوكا" ولا تعسروا زجاحة

(caught ...)
«الدعاية» لا تظهر أن هناك خطا مطبعيا أو أن كتاب الكناية جاء كهذا صرفانيا ولا يعني ماذا ينقل الكلام من اتهامات معينة ولا لأنماط التعبير كما كتبنا

أمامكم. مكتب القاضي يحتوي بثلاثة آلاف دولار بورنيا.

وفي كونه كمكنا مكمت كم كن ممكنا وثيقا

تحكمة ودالة وفيه الرئيس فاشي وعديه الكمال في

15 صداري إسرائيل فوردار لنا كم من هذه الولاية يجب على

أن أهلكم أن السيد جون نالام "الكبرى القلب" الهندي.

ولعند قبئا القاضي أن يملأ أكثر من ثلاثة أيام في الأسبوع.

بمعنى آخر القاضي لن يقضى أكثر من 9000 دولار

أسيوي.

14

لكنكم ربما ورحا أو جرحا أكثر من الفصل فان الله

إن انتقد للسيد فافن يواسم السرار الامام من سكان الولاية

بان تعداد الأيام اليوم الموجبية فيها، ليس

مرأة أو أصحاب أفق أو محاولة تقييم عند محاكمة فافن،

15 التي قد تغلب على الكثير مما. وإن كل ذلك لم

نقولنا هذه ليس مشارعا على قصص وصلات جون فأمي,

فلما لا غير المعلنة على انتكشرون القضاة أو الرواة.

16 تصل إلى القاضي لن تكن في نهاية الطريق وأين يتم

بها أحد أسماء القاضي نفسه، وجِن فاثي والفاتة التي

تشرق أو تشرق بعدما يسأل الناس ويلون أو يعرفت من

ضحك البكار.

تحن لا علاقة لنا بالقاضي ولا ينفرده القانونية أو

العثمانية بل هنالك أنه ينوي على أي

مغلق ينير لكان أناشيم في سبيل الحدث عليها.

17 كنك علاطنا وانت هنا مع الحكومة رفع رئيسها

وسيئات البري والجبن فاكه الذي ل يظهر حتى الآن أنه

يتصرف كما مبكرة ووعي ما تكون خي وصفلات الروايين.

18 كان دفعنا القاضي "فأفا" كلف الولاية على

19 أن بعض الفصول العائلة "فأفا" كلف الولاية حتى

19 الانتظار لمحاكمات القضايا. والسؤول هنا: قد من

الولايات القضائية الأخرى يجب أن تقرأ ويتم املا في

تنظيم وجهة حكومة من فراه وعلي خلال وضوذي.

بانيا 2

20 واستمراراً ورداً للسيد فافن النافذ لاذنا لم يكن

18 معايدة لهذا الانتظار الذي تقرر ممها، وهو أعلم الناس أن

درك الأموات في أيدي "السيزيبيو" أي أصحاب رواسب

النواحي الحكومية سيحسن لنا أنها تقرر بعدما تمكن

كلب هذا التغير قد تفاوت قوة سرادة الولاية ورغبته في

مصرف الزهور "نافذ" الأساسي.

21 أما تقولنا القصاص بجه فاتي وحركنا في الحكم فهو

22 أنه أمراً وص Ка، لإصرار الفار في الحدث فهو

ورى من عمال ووظيفي القطاع العام سيطرن، وكم

23 وكذب في لغات سيديم وفسيم، وكم وكم من إرشاء

المصالح والانتقادات الناس سيطرن. من أجل أقدام

عبرتهم أو نفسياتهم هذه.

23 - 9000 دولار في الأسبوع فقط كراتب ثلاثة أيام... هل

لكي جون فاكه كم جناح يخم المبلغ... وجعل كلف

خاطر معركة كم فخعة عمل يرفع هذا البلوغ... وأنا خت

حسب عدد ملياري لملايين العامل الذي تنتظره حكومته

من إدارة الناس الكاهنات لكن لا كما في ده واحد... هو

بعضها مثلما.
العالم العربي

المؤرخ ايرينغ وست قسط فيريرا

بقلم عمارة عمار الدعوة الاردنية

1. لقد أصح الحرب اذانيا ودوجنا من كثير حديثه عن الديمقراطية، وحرية الرأي والمعتقد. وتشاور الغرب ويتشارف على الناس وخصوصا على دول العالم الثالث، بمؤسسه الديمقراطية من قضاء وأعلام وانتخابات.

2. وخصوصا بتقديسه لحرية الفكر والصحراء، والرأي.

3. ولم الحق بالتعبير عن نفسه دون خوف أو قمع، صحيح أن هذا الرأي أم غير صحيح، نعم كان أم شرا، غالبا أم وقنا، جميعا كان أم تعبيرا للحرية هي عالة بعد ذاتها.

4. وآخر معارك الحرب بالدفاع عن الحريات، كان تثبيث لقضية سلمان رشدي، مؤلف كتاب إيات شبهة الشباب، الذي طالب الأمام الشهيني، الذي أibilitه.

5. وقالت السيدة مارغريفت، رئيسة وزراء بريطانيا وقتها: أن سلمان رشدي هو واحد من رعايا الدولة البريطانية، هذه الدولة التي تأسست وبنيت على الديمقراطية وحرية التعبير.

6. ونحن، والكلام لا يزال لمس تأمل، غير مستعدين ابدا للتنازل عن هذا الحق، pals alhamari الكبير ابدا.

7. واقام الحرب الدينية ولم يقطعها.

8. وقام بكل ما أوتي من قوة، وصحب بإذاعة، سفراته وزوارته، يكتب، يدافع، يحوار، ويتبادل دفاعا عن سلمان رشدي السكين الذي يتهدده المسلمين البربر والمغول، لا شيء إلا لا أنه كتب كتاب يعبر فيه عن رأيه!

9. وخصوصا لرشدي حرسا، ومغابرات، وكلايا وشبطة وخصوصا له ميزانية تكلف لتنظيم شعبية الصومال وتانزانيا وموزمبيق.

10. إذا هذا الدفاع المستمر من سلمان رشدي

11. أهلا دفاع عن الديمقراطية وحرية الرأي؟

12. ام دفاع عن كتاب تهجم على الإسلام، وشتم (cont'd ...)
رسول المسلمين

13 ما لا يزال العذر في الجاهلية، والقصة لا تنتهي.

14 فمثنا أدبنا أيام رفض وزير الهمزة الاستروية

15 السيد حبشي هادب السماح للمؤرخ إبراهيم

16 بدرج استراليا. فإذا يا ترى؟

17 لا يهم، أيا السادة، يقول في كتاباته التاريخية

18 إن زعيم الدنيا، رأي إله برو، من مذبحة

19 اليهود ولا يعرف عنها شيئا. وإن المذبحة لم

20 تحسن وإن كل شيء. حول هذا الموضوع، ما يلغي

21 فيه، وهو من تخطيط اليهود لاستبداد مطلق

22 العالم، وابتزازه إلى يوم القيام.

23 حلب، وما الفرصة في الأمر؟ وما الذي

24 يستوجب محاربة فكر إبراهيم وتمعنه من دخول

25 دولة غريبة تقدم حرية الرأي كاستراليا؟

26 ليس إبراهيم مهاجعا غربا، يعبر عن حرية

27 رأي في بلاد غريب تؤمن بالحرية؟

28 ليس من حق إبراهيم أن يتمتع بحماية حقوقه

29 كما تتبع بها سلمان رشدي؟

30 مع الفارق أن أخزغ إبراهيم كتب يستعمل

31 المثل في سبيل على استراليا الفوضى والفتنة.

32 وإن كان لا أحد يدمن. أما لأنه فضح كذبة من الأكاذيب اليهود الكبيرة

33 واسع مغرة مذبحة اليهود؟

34 اللنبي اليهودي قوي جدا في استراليا كما

35 يعرف الإعلام الاسترالي نفسه، ثم.. اللنبي

36 اليهودي موجود.. وهو احتياط له الف رأس

37 و مليون نذاع.

38 لا تخذينا يا إبراهيم، قناع الحرية المحققين

39 يقفون إلى جانبنا وهم لك داعمون.
العمران واصحاب المناجم

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>عدد</th>
<th>محتوى</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>يتمتع الصناعيون ومتسكعون بالماء بتحفظ عن حقوق الإنسان.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>في مدينة مورغان، يمثل رجال الأعمال الاستراتيجيون مصالح المناجم.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ومجلس المرأة العربية يُخرج من مناقشات العقارات والتعليم في التاريخ يُبَرِّر كينغ بأوانغ جزء موسكو، وإن كينغ إذا ما استمر يحملliğin قضية مabo فإن الحكومات ستتجه كما هاجر سكان موسكو من مدينتهم.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ويبدو أن معلومات السيد مورغان التايلاندية في مستوى مناوجة أي تحت الأرض، وغاز قبالة من إن آف النافذ الروسي زحف إلى بلد ليست بلاداً قاطعاً مشقة آلاف الكيلومترات، ففي حين أن كينغ يعيد الاعتبار إلى قوم سكبا هذه الدخان عشرات آلاف المستوطنين.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>يجت في النظر عن موقف من كينغ وقضية مabo، فالمؤمنون في الموضوع أن السيد مورغان أطلق العنان بسماحة قانونية حتى ضل في الحضارة الإمبراطورية أو كانت قوية، لم تدور مسألة إمام حضارة الإكليزيز وجذور الاستعمار والمستوطنات الأوروبية، وكان حضارات العالم يجب أن تكون متوازنة، إلا أن تلك الكثرة منها الصغيرة، ووسط من بحث السيد مورغان أن استراتيجيا تصر على الاستعمار في المجتمع لم تعد الحضارات وكنتسب من هذا النوع، ميزة فردية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ورغم أن السيد مورغان يعني ما يقول لقاء قبالة التاريخ، وفقراً من أن استعمال الإمبراطوريين والانتماءات إعدادهم، ولم أن يؤدؤ عشراً على النقاشات في أوروبا واليمن وثبات للشرق، واليوم أنتهى عند الرومان، وتقولون اليونان، بينما يجت.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>أبيات بحيث هذه يعني أن حضاراتها كانت ضعيفة؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>وأنا كان الأرض ما يراه السيد مورغان، لماذا شرع الحكومة إدخال لجنة اقتصادية في منهج المرحلة الثانية، بدأ من سنة 1961، وإذا لم تكن للعلاقة اللائقة في مدارسها ومعاهدها</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>إذا كان وكالة بايبيتوم، سنة 550 وما زالت آنات تئج من تصريحها، وتحت العنصرية، وتحت بنين، بل بعوثاً، تحت جزءة للدوران تتأرجح من التي محذت منذ ثلاث سنوات، ونحن في التنوع الاختلاف، خلف الأصابع.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>لا يوجد بعض يوم في هذه البلاد إلا ونرى فيه فصولاً عشريناً يختلفagi بأختلاف الطيف، وليس من المشروط الطويل لأوروبا، وليست الشروط بأن ثلاثة طابياً، ينبض هاجموا أربعلاً، بسوبك في محطة ناورامورا، سنة 1911 وتم اعتقال الإسبان، أما البضائع، فتقلصت أربعاً.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>فهل باللون ولهجية الإنسان، وعلل نسبة الجيوب تغطي سعة المعرفة؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>والأتراك، في حملة أصحم الناجم؟</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
وطنيّة مزدوجة

استراليا السائرة نحو الجمهورية، عليها ان تتضمن رمزية مبادرات استقلالية صورية لا يمكن تحقيقها إلا بأساس قطاعات حاسمة آباؤها العظمى ومنصوص دستور جديد يولد من مستمرة مبادرات خاضعة للعشر الاستثنائي إلى دولة ذات سيادة واستقلال غير متقاسم.

استراليا كان عليها يوم الاثنين الماضي الغاء العطلة الرسمية بمناسبة عيد ميلاد الملكة اليزابيث. وذلك لاعتبارات مهمة أبرزها أن البريطانيَّة ذاتها ليس لها عطلة رسمية في هذه المناسبة، وقبل يمكننا أن تكون، كما يقول المثل الفرنسي، ملكلين أكثر من الملك نفسه.

والأعتبار الثاني هو أن بلدنا يتعرض حاليا لازمة اقتصادية وراء تراجعها عن تكمل هذا اليوم لتكن انتجا ما بقيت من ملابس الدولارات في زمن نحن بحاجة إلى التخفيف من الإحماء لإيقان وضعتنا الفيالق والانتاج.

نحن اليوم نرى السيادة الكاملة هب أن يقوم على أسس وطنية سليمة لا ازدرائية فيها فاما أن نتأجلAo الأخذية والمصالح وانا نبقى بجميع للعشر البريطاني.

وائل حزب الملك في ولاية نيوساوث ويلز، اخذ الخيار الصادق مع تطلعاته وطريقاته هذا الأسبوع عندما أعلن في مؤتمره العام أنه قرر اقتصاد شعار العلم البريطاني من رمز كخطوة عملية ترجم مطالبه بإنهاء العهد الملك.

الاستقلالية لا تكون بالشعارات بل بالمارسات، ومن هنا علينا أن نأخذ القرارات الصعبة لتحقيق الاستقلال حتى ولو كان على حساب رخائها وملاته الرسمية.

الملحق
MARK COULTAN

Unpopular, but Collins is staying

1. WHEN you are in trouble, one of the golden rules of politics is to call for a report. It is an almost fail-safe way of defusing an issue. The only exception to this rule is when you are in deep, deep trouble, in which case never call for a report because it may reveal the truth.

2. By 10 am yesterday Peter Collins, the NSW Attorney-General, had called for three of them within 24 hours. One was into an amazing bureaucratic and callous response to a rape victim's application for compensation, the second was into judges' treatment of rape victims (an old chestnut) and the third was into why a policeman charged with drink-driving had enjoyed the privacy of a closed court.

3. Collins is an expert, in fact the champion, of avoiding trouble in the Greiner Government. Mud? He doesn't even know what it is, and if he did, he's had it dry-cleaned before anybody else saw it. Having defused a few nasty landmines, Collins went to lunch yesterday with the president of the Law Society, John Marsden.

4. The end of John Fahey's week can't have been so rosy. A former partner of Marsden's, Fahey is about to wade into a mudfield full of unexploded mines.

5. This week the Government released the Gyles Royal Commission into the building industry. Gyles's answer to the problems of the industry is to try to destroy the power of the BWIU. The whole report drips with exhortations to battle against the union.

6. To implement such a report, enter the quiet and cautious John Fahey, an unlikely Rambo if ever there was one.

7. Fahey took three years to get his industrial relations legislation. Green paper, white paper, lots of paper. No one could ever accuse Fahey of adopting Metherell-like tactics.

8. If that wasn't enough to keep Fahey busy, he now has the housing portfolio, due to the heart surgery of the minister, Joe Schipp. Fahey has to clear up the mess of the Homefund scheme, a running sore which is a tribute to the political stupidity of this Government.

9. Still, if nothing else, these extra challenges should raise Fahey's profile. A Newspoll opinion poll, which followed a similar Herald-Saulwick poll, showed that just 5 per cent of people would prefer Fahey as Premier. The reason is that most people don't know him.

10. Collins, by comparison, rated 13 per
cent, a long way behind the people's choice, Virginia Chadwick (29 per cent) but the best of the serious contenders.

Not that that matters in the party room. Collins's stocks have never been so low inside the parliamentary party, due mainly to his refusal to fund Brad Hazzard, Terry Metherell and Peter Blackmore's legal costs at their various ICAC inquiries. The backbench is incensed, partly out of sympathy for their colleagues, but mostly because they can see themselves up before the ICAC next.

Collins's position as Deputy Leader of the Liberals is extremely vulnerable. All it needs is a backbencher to move for a spill of the deputy leadership and Collins will be history.

Fahey would start favourite for the position, but there are a number of reasons why Collins may hang on despite, or perhaps because of, his lack of support.

The one privilege of being deputy is getting to pick your own portfolio, which is why Collins and not Fahey is Attorney-General now. If Fahey became deputy, then he would probably want the Attorney-General's ring, and that means a ministerial reshuffle.

That would in turn mean finding something else for Collins. A demotion to an unglamorous portfolio would risk Collins spitting the dummy. The last thing Nick Greiner, recovering from an ICAC inquiry, needs is his second most popular minister, and a potential leader, sitting on the back bench fuming.

The second last thing he needs is having stories about Fahey ready to take over as an ambitious and upwardly mobile deputy.

The last thing Bruce Baird, another possible leadership contender, wants is to give his chief rival (Fahey) the status of deputy leader. Whoever wins a ballot for deputy would be seen as the obvious choice as a successor to Greiner.

The same probably goes for John Hannaford, who has ambitions but is stuck in the Upper House for the foreseeable future.

Baird would not stand in a ballot for deputy (he's not a lawyer, so he doesn't want to be Attorney-General), so it would not be a real test of who might be the next premier.

If the Liberals really wanted to kick Collins out, and give itself a new, post-ICAC image, it couldn't go past Virginia Chadwick as a deputy.

Under Liberal rules, only Lower House members vote for the deputy leader, but that doesn't mean they couldn't vote for someone in the Upper House. That would create the awkward situation of Ted Pickering being the Government Leader in the Upper House, but Chadwick being the Deputy Party Leader.

As leader of The Group, Pickering is the closest thing the Liberal Party has to a numbers man. But he isn't Graham Richardson. He has proved pretty good at organising Upper House preselections, but probably couldn't deliver more than half a dozen votes in a leadership ballot.

In a deputy leadership ballot, with the Upper House members excluded, his influence would be much less.

In a post-ICAC period, a change of deputy leader may be just too difficult, which is why Peter Collins may keep his job. For now.
An election in search of a date

THE advantage to Mr Keating in calling a late election (that is, in May) is the extra time it would give him to find holes in the revised Fightback package and to wear away at Dr Hewson's image and credibility — the "do you slowly" taunt Mr Keating threw at Dr Hewson last September. The disadvantage is that the Government would have to weather a stream of unflattering economic news between now and May; two sets of unemployment figures, foreign debt figures and December quarter national accounts. The advantage to Mr Keating of calling an early election (in February) is that he can exploit lingering suspicions about the GST and claim the credit for the expected good news on inflation later this month. The disadvantage of an early election is that the campaign would begin with Dr Hewson gaining ground in opinion polls and without the knowledge of voting trends in the West Australian State election.

These considerations may suggest that there is a certain science involved in picking the right election date. In fact, there is as much alchemy as anything else. Having rejected the option of a December poll — which would have caught Dr Hewson peddling the old, inflexible Fightback package or else making changes on the run during the campaign — Mr Keating left himself with a set of problematic election dates. Of course, there was the obvious problem of the West Australian election. Mr Keating could not afford to go to the polls before West Australian voters had had their chance to vent their anger over WA Inc. But once they have done that on February 6, it is anybody's guess what date will best serve — or do the least harm to — the Government's re-election chances.

Postponing the election, however, does not mean putting it out of mind. Mr Keating and Dr Hewson have been engaged in a phoney Federal election campaign for the past several months. No matter when the election is called, they're not about to ease off from that contest now. That means important initiatives put on hold at last month's glorified Premiers' Conference (the Council of Australian Governments) in Perth will stay on hold. Economic reform will stay on the back burner. Investors will remain noncommittal rather than take a gamble on who will win the next election.

In short, the real needs of the country will not be served. Uncertainty about who will be governing the country for the next three years benefits no one. Simply putting an end to that uncertainty will provide a much needed boost to the economy. That may seem to make light of the policy differences — the very important policy differences — between Labor and the Coalition. But the point is simply that the longer Mr Keating and Dr Hewson are distracted with party political campaigning, the longer it will be before anyone gets back to concentrating on the main game of economic restructuring and cutting the unemployment queues.

Many times Mr Keating has insisted that the Australian public expects its Government to serve its full term. That is expedient for Mr Keating and it is also no doubt true. But the Australian public also expects its Government to put the long-term interests of the nation above the short-term interests of the ruling party. Given the precarious state of the economy, right now value for money in the political context means an election that is held sooner rather than later.
Leading questions for a shattered party

BARRY COHEN

appears at massed rallies to cheer the party leader. It is holy writ in conservative politics that the "rank and file" do not proffer advice to their elected representatives. When they do they are ignored or told politely it is not a matter for their concern. In the Parliament, where the leader determines career prospects for MPs and senators, dissent is rare.

Dissidents, provided they stay within factional boundaries, are often rewarded in the Labor Party. In the Liberal Party they are regarded as eccentrics and shunted aside. Ask Ian MacPhee, Peter Baume, Chris Puplick and Fred Chaney.

The problem for the Liberals at this very moment is that unless they are silly enough to stick with Hewson, the leadership decision they make now will determine the philosophy and policies for the next election.

John Howard, the most experienced and effective performer in the Coalition, is the obvious choice. Anyone who thinks otherwise should have witnessed his handling of Paul Lynham in the penultimate 7.30 Report prior to the election when he filled in for Dr Hewson who thought "Hey Hey It's Thursday Night" was a better medium to sell his complex policies. It was the only time Lynham was on the back foot during the campaign. Howard's problem is that he is almost as closely identified with the hard-right policies of...
John Hewson as Hewson himself.

He may, however, be able to discard the dead weight of the industrial relations baggage he put together and present himself as a born-again moderate, in tune with middle Australia. Howard is the safe alternative.

At the other end of the risk spectrum is Peter Reith, member for Flinders (Vic) and shadow Treasurer. If the Liberals want to shock themselves in both feet then Reith is their man.

In the same high-risk category is Senator Bronwyn Bishop. Without a seat in the House of Representatives—and that appears possible only if John Hewson resigns his seat of Wentworth—her challenge cannot be taken seriously. Even if she successfully made the transition she is unlikely to be a leader who would unite the Coalition. Flexible is not a word that comes readily to mind when one thinks of Senator Bishop.

With Andrew Peacock and Ian McLachlan having ruled themselves out, the possibility emerges that the Liberals will bite the bullet and really go for a generational change.

Peter Costello, the 35-year-old barrister, arrived in Canberra with a reputation as a student activist and employer advocate against the trade unions. An effective speaker in the House and on television, he is regarded as a bit of a show pony, not prepared to do the hard yards up the middle. Nevertheless, his name has been bandied about where it counts. He could well replace Reith as deputy.

Warwick Smith, a name I must confess is not yet in the household category and who, if the numbers in his Tasmanian seat of Bass do not improve in the next few days may not even be in the race, is another who the hard heads in Canberra believe is exactly what the Liberals need.

Despite his relatively low profile, Warwick Smith, as opposition spokesman on communications, is highly regarded by the media and by both sides of politics for his intelligence, hard work and because he is a delightful human being.

In a profession not normally noted for an over-abundance of the latter, that might be a good basis to rebuild a shattered political party.
Ball-and-chain relationship is strangling us

PAUL. Keating must be blessed, such is his good luck.

2 When the worst jobless figures in 60 years were released on Thursday, the nation's attention was diverted from the problem by the marriage break-up of the Prince and Princess of Wales.

3 It's not the first time the public spotlight has been magically redirected from the Prime Minister's problems.

4 He was receiving a hammering for his "big brother" tactics in trying to override Jeff Kennett's industrial reforms in Victoria, when Opposition Leader John Hewson abruptly opted for flexibility over intransigence.

5 Mr Hewson decided that he would, after all, be making changes to the GST.

6 By giving 10 days' notice of his announcement, Dr Hewson has given Mr Keating a handful of free kicks, during which time he may be able to spoil the changes before they are even disclosed.

7 What Mr Hewson's strategy was is anybody's guess, although the comments from members of his front bench, who say they knew nothing of any proposed alterations to Fightback, would indicate he was not widely advised.

8 All this is grist to Mr Keating's mill.

9 And when a natural diversion doesn't materialise for Mr Keating, he creates one. Like the Australian flag, or republicanism, or violence on television.

10 But the Prime Minister won't be able to rely on the winds of good fortune, or his political skills, to win the next election.

11 He may be a maestro at manipulation, but the prevailing community view is that Australia desperately needs a change.

12 This Labor government has been in power for nine years. Its ideas have dried up, the economy's ills have worsened, and the glimmers of hope that Mr Keating's leadership offered for economic improvement has amounted to nothing.

13 The chance of his government securing a fifth term now rests solely on his ability to develop a policy agenda that will remove the shackles from the sector that is the backbone of this country - small business.

14 The ball-and-chain relationship between the Federal Labor Government and the ACTU must be severed to allow genuine labour-market reform; to allow employers and employees to work together, for their mutual benefit, unhindered.

15 Forget the politics, Mr Keating, and the opinion polls.

16 Your only chance of winning the upcoming election - and there is a chance that you can do it - is to inspire us with an industrial reform package as revolutionary as, or better than, that of the Opposition.

17 If Australian businesses are offered some meaningful help to shake off the effects of the recession, then Australia's dole queues will inevitably become shorter.

18 Remember, Mr Keating, our jobless rate is now running at 11.4 per cent.

19 Luck and sleight-of-hand will not solve this crisis, or deliver you the next election.

20 Only genuine industrial reform will give you any chance of pulling that off.

Responsibility for editorial comment is taken by the Editor, Roy Miller, 2 Holt St, Surry Hills 2010
الشعبية والسياسة

من القواعد الذهبية في التكتيك السياسي الدعم إلى رفع التقارير لدى وجود فشيمة ما، فهناك رأي يصعّب الموضوع وتحتيم حتى إذاعة آخر، تستجيب من تلك طلباً للقضايا الركز، عملاً بالقول المأثور: "إذا było بالماسي فاستنبت". حيث أنّ رفع تقارير بها في هذه الحالة يؤدي إلى كشف معماّرها.

تمبييقاً لهذا القول، طلب الجانب العام للولاية نيويورك رأي وليم كولينز في اليومين الأخيرين ثلاث تقارير خلال بعثة وشوهدت ساحة الأضواء حول التفاعلات بينه وبين رؤساء القضاة، والتي استمرت لأكثر من ساعة. مع ظلّ تدفق تقدم بامتداد ضحايا الاغتصاب والاجتماع القاضية عليه. والأخير حول معاملة القضايا لضحايا الاغتصاب ( فهي متشابهة قديمة، أما التقارير ذاتية فإن بخصوص أحد رجال الشرطة المتهمنين بالقيادة تحت تأثير الكحول والذي حالي بمحاكمة داخل محكمة مغلقة.

وكيل التعليم، من الخبراء، أو بالأحرى أبطال التغيير، من القضاة في حكومة ناشفيل، فهو يخرج من الطابع كالشاعر من المعين قبل أن يلمل بهما أحد، ونادي ألا ما أن نُنْدَم عدداً من القضاة الحزام الذين ذهبوا أماً لتلتقي الفداء مع رئيس جمعية القانون جون مارسنا.

وهو هو جون في الشيء القيّم، القدر الإنسان اللذي أيقى الخبر، ينظر بالعمر كأي مديون، في الغالب القضاة لتعمل إحدامه بعد إصدار المحكمة لهذا الأسبوع لتلتقي جمهورًا، يحكي الكجاء في حسابه، وهي كانت أي جاوز أن تلتقي القضاة، أن كل مشاركة هذه الصناعة هو في تدمر سلطة حكامة عمال صناعة البديل.

بискليش هذا التقرير الذي يشتم بالدعوة لمساعدة الاغتصاب تم استعداد جون فاي البادي بوزن الذي لا يمت لحافلة الصغير بصلة، إلا من قريب ولا من بعيد، إذ استمرته ثلاث سنوات فقط لوضع تقرير تشير إلى العلاقات المصالحة، أبارى من مشابك الآل، والاحجام والأعداد تلبثها إعداد هذا التقرير، وهو بذلك بعد كل عبد على أسلوب "الطّب النذر" تيري ميدلب.

وليس هذا حسب بل إنه مكّف حالياً بحقيبة إسكتان بسبب جراحة القلب التي أجريت للوزير جي شيب، ونذكده عليه التحقق مع نفيسينة من قدرة هذه المستمرة، والتي تغير أيضاً أحد إنجازات الحالة السياسية لهذه الحكمة.

والآتي من ذلك، أند كل "التحديثات" الجديدة التي سيتحملها ساعد ستيرلي لرفع شعبة: إنه أظهر استطلاع للرأي أثبت استثماراً آخر للمرد سالوكي، أن 65 من الناس فقط يفضلون ساعد كرئيس حكومة، والسبب أنا معظم الناس لا يعيرونها! أما كولينز فمازال على 137 غيّر أنه لا يزال بعيداً عن قرينياها تشادور الخبيبة الشعب.

وافضل المرشحين التي حاولت على 29.

المفاجأة أن هذه الاستطلاعات، رغم وقوعها، ليست مهمة لدى حزب الأحرار، إذ أن شعبية كولينز هي في أدنى مستوى، بما أخذ بعضه الحزب البريطاني، وبذلك يعود بشكل كبير إلى وفده رصص المال للمصارف القانوني لتجري مسؤولية دير بيبير بالكابر خلال محاكماتهم أمام الهيئة المستقلة لكافحة الفساد والرشوة (ICAC).

(Cont’d ...)
نتائج لذاك باتت القوانين الأخيرة في حالة غيابية تعاونا مع زعمائهم، إضافة إلى أنهم يتخيلون أنفسهم جاسوسين على كرسي الاعتراف نفسه يواجهون الانتقادات في المستقبل.
كل هذا يجعل وضع كويلينز الحالي كقائد رئيس للإجراءات هما الغالبة، فكلما تقدمه الأمر متطلبة أحد تواب القوانين بإفتراض أنه يصح في خبر كان، وهذا بالنطاق يدخل على الخط الأخر الأول حاول تلبية المنصب.
لكن رقم ذلك لا تزال هناك أسباب محددة تمنع استبدال كويلينز رغم الدعم الذي يحظى به بنقله.

من هذه الأسباب من خطوة منصب نائب الرئيس تمكّنة من اختيار الوزارة التي يريدها، وهذا ما يبرز وجود كويلينز وليس فايل على رأس النتائج العامة الآن. إذا أصبح فايل نائبًا للرئيس فسوف يمتد على الأغلب في النتائج العامة، وهذا يعني إعادة توزيع الممتلكات الإدارية، مما سيستعمل إيجاد منصب آخر لكي يتمكن، ويرفعه إلى أسوار المتصرف، مما يجعله يتبع الفايل، الذي لا يزال في محطات التفاعلات بعد الحلقة، ولا شك أن آخر ما يريده في كويلينز، الذي لا يزال في مرحلة التشكيل بعد الفايل.

تحقيق ICAC هو وجود وزير الثاني من حيث "السياحة" جاسا في المقاعد التجارية، يمتلكه أن صدر ضمن فايل يفضل عدم سماع أخبار تتحرين فايل.

المشتركون من النصب نائب الرئيس يحسم بأعجوبة إلى السنة الرئاسية.

من ناحية أخرى فإن آخر ما يريده بريس بيرد، الربيع الآخر للرئيس، هو تجديد الولاء رأي التأكد أن أن سيزعج، هذا المنصب سيساهم الألغام حاول لخلاقة فايل، ولائحة نعمة فايل تفوّل، مثل جون هافرفورد، الطموح والبالغ بمجلس الشيوخ الإفتكا، في المسباب المثير على الآن، ويريد من ناحية أن يتمكن من ترشيح نفسه للمصطلح فهو ليس محام، وبالتالي أن يرغب بشغل النتائج العامة - إذا فإنه ليس من الصعب التكنولوجيا حول من سيكون الرئيس القلق للحكومة.

يبيّق القول أنه إذا أراد الأحرار فعلاً التشكيل من كويلينز ورغم صورة جديدة لهم بعد تحققات ICAC، فإن جميعهم سيستعمل في اختيار فيسليشن ك amore نائب رئيس.

فبالمثل من أن يكون في كل الأحوال لا يحقق سعي لإجهاد مجلس القوانين بالتصويت لنائب الرئيس فإن ذلك لا يمنعه من اجتماع الشيوخ من مجلس الشيوخ، غير أن هذا سيحل وضعًا شاذًا يجعل تأكيد كويلينز قدًا للأعمال في مجلس الشيوخ، فيجب أن يتمكّن من التأثير على انتخابات نائبين الرئاسة رغم عدم تمكّن أعضاء مجلس الشيوخ من الاجتماع.

إذن استبدال كويلينز على ضوء تناول تحققات ICAC أمير بيدو ليس بالسلاسة المتلقية.

وهو يفسر الفرق بين الشعبية والسياسة وبالتالي خط بيتر كويلينز بالبلجيك في الوقت.

الرائد على الاقل.
بحثاً عن موعد للانتخابات

أمام رئيس الحكومة السيد كيتينغ خيارين، إذام انتخابات مبكرة في شباط/فبراير أو تأجيلها إلى أيار/مايو، واتخاذ القرار في كلا الحالتين ليس أمراً سهلاً، فرغم أن الخيار الثاني يمنح الوقت الكافي لإيجاد الثغرات في وثيقة التفاح الجديدة وتشويه صورة الدكتور هيوسون ومصادقاته تنظيفًا لعملية الساخرة الشهيرة "ساشوريك على نار خفيفة" التي وجهها له في أيار/مايو الماضي، فإن لهذا الخيار مسؤولية إذ سيترجم على الحكومة أن تواجه أعباء اقتصادية بسفيفة من الآن وحتى أيار/مايو تنتمي في مجموعتي أرقام الأول تتعلق بنسبة العاطلين عن العمل، والثانية حول الدين الخارجي ومعدل الحسابات الوطني للربع الأخير من السنة.

والخيار الأول، أي الدعوة لانتخابات مبكرة في شباط/فبراير، حسناته إذ يمنح السيد كيتينغ الوقت لاستغلال الشكوك التي تراود الناس حول ضرورة السلم والخدمات والإيداع، أنه هو السبب وراء الأخبار الطبية المتوقعة حول التضخم مع نهاية هذا الشهر. لكن لهذا الخيار مسؤولية أيضاً، إذ أن الحملة ستبدأ في وقت تكون فيه شعبية الدكتور هيوسون في ازدياد، هذا بالإضافة إلى أن ما يضمره الناخبون في الانتخابات ولاية غرب أستراليا سيكون في علم الغيب.

يبدو أن جميع هذه الاعتبارات تفترض حسابات عملية دقيقة لاختيار موعد مناسب للانتخابات، فيرفض السيد كيتينغ الدعوة إلى الانتخابات عامة في كانون الأول/ديسمبر – التي كان يمكن أن تتفاجئ الدكتور جون هيوسون وهو لا يزال يحاول تسويق وثيقة الكفاح القديمة والتحضرة أو إجراء تعدديات "على الماشي" عليها خلال الحملة – لم يبق أمام السيد كيتينغ سوى الصوم والصلاة. أما تاريخ لا تخلو جميعها من المتأخر، ولكن بالطبع لم يكن بالإمكان أفضل مما كان، فهناك مزرق انتخابات غرب أستراليا، إذ لم يكن بمقدور كيتينغ التزاحم في انتخابات عامة قبل أن ينس ناخب غرب أستراليا عن ضعيمهم من نفسية WA INC، الذين ما أن يفعلوا ذلك في شباط/فبراير حتى يكون بين الغيب حتى سيكون الموعد الأفضل – أو على الأقل الأخف ضررًا – لإعادة انتخاب الحكومة.

(Cont'd ...)
لكن تأجيل الانتخابات لا يعني عدم التحضير لها. فالسيد كيتينغ والدكتور هيوسن يتناشطان في حملة انتخابات فيدرالية مزيفة منذ أشهر عديدة، وهمما يكن موعد الانتخابات القبلة فانمركة لن تبدأ الآن، مما يعني أن البابات المهمة التي تم تاجيلها في المؤتمر "الميمون" لرؤساء الولايات التي انعقد في بيرث الأسبوع الماضي ستبقى مؤجلة إلى أجل غير مسمى وأن الإصلاح الاقتصادي سيبقى على نار خفيف. أضاف إلى ذلك فإن المستثمرين سيبقون على عدم التزامهم عفواً عن المغامرة بالتكهن ببعض سيئون بالانتخابات القبلة.

بعبارة أخرى، فإن هذا ليس في مصلحة البلد، فالغضب حول هوية التي سيحكم في السنوات الثلاث القبلة لا يفيد أحداً، وبساطة فإن وضع هذه الفوضى سيعبث بخصماً للاقتصاد ينتظر الجميع.

إن هذا الكلام قد يبدو وكأنه يقلل من أهمية الفروقات السياسية بين حزب العمال والمحافظين - هذه الفروقات التي لا تفوقها أية قضايا حياتية أخرى! لكن السؤال بكل بساطة هو: أين كلما طال المتهدوء السيد كيتينغ والدكتور هيوسن بالحملة الانتخابية، طال المدة التي يعود فيها أي منهما إلى التركيز على اللغة الأساسية في بناء الاقتصاد وتحقيق عدد العاطلين عن العمل.

لقد ألقع السيد كيتينغ في مناسبات عديدة على القول أن الشعب الأسترالي ينتظر من حكومته عدم التحني قبل انتهاء كامل فترة حكمها. إن هذا ضروري للسيد كيتينغ وهو صحيح دون شك، لكن الشعب الأسترالي ينتظر أيضاً من حكومته أن تضع مصالح البلد الطويلة الأجل قبل مصالح الحزب الحاكم القصيرة الأجل.

بالمختصر المفيد، إن الحالة الاقتصادية المذنبة تستدعي بالحاج انتخابات تعقد اليوم قبل غد.
أهمية طفيفة لحزب مشرد

الاحرار محترمون في سبب استمرار هزائمهم في الانتخابات: الجواب بسيط:
لأنهم يستمرون بالاختراق قرارات حقهم.
فألآن وبعد أسوار هزيمة لهم في تاريخهم، يبدو أنهم لا يزالون مصممين على
المضي قدماً في نفس الطريق السدري، فهم بصدد اختيار جون هيوسون مجددًا
للبقاء في زعامة المعارضة! للدوك!

لقد كتب خلال السنوات القليلة التي تسبق فيها عودة العمال إلى الحكم لفترة
الخاصة ما يفكي من التحليلاً حول سبب خسارة الأحزاب، وأصبحت المسألة
واضحة مثل عن الشطب حتى لا أكثراً "غبا" أن نقوله بالسياسية، وإنما أن لدينا البعض
شكونو حول ذلك فيمكنهم أن يتصوروا الهزيمة الكروية التي كانت تبنيها بها أو
كان الاقتصاد الأسترالي في حالة جيدة. غرب أمرهم فلا زالوا يعتنون بجد
أن التناخين سوف ينسو في جهاز ميدان تلك السياسات. جون هيوسون يجب أن
يرحل الآن وبسرعة ما يمكن.

لكن ما هو مصدر الأحزاب الآخرين؟

لقد بدأوا بعد خمسة مهارات متتالية واستلام قانونية اليمنية فئة الحزب بالحاجة إلى
فترة نعل ومثابرة داخلية لتحديد السياسات والفلسفية التي ينظمها الشعب
الأسترالي حتى نهاية هذا القرن. ولكن لماكسي، فإنه اختيار التصرف للزعم
الجديد سيسبق عمليًّا هذه المناصرة المحلية. وهذا يستدعي الضوء على نقاط القوة
الأساسية في هيكلية حزب الأحرار المتقلبة في حجم السلطة التي في يد رئيس
الحزب، فهو الأمر النامي في تعيين الوزراء وزراء النقل وما يمنحه سيطرة أكبر
عن نظرته في حزب العمال.

والغريب أنه لم يجرد حزب هيكلياً حزب الأحرار منذ تأسيسه على يد يدريس عام
1944 بالدرجة نفسها التي تم فيها نقد حزب العمال الذي، على عكس الأحرار،
كان استبدًا دائماً يدافع عن أنتشاره وفقاً لعملية اتخاذ القرارات.
وزائدة الحزب كانت تحكمها الشروع والأجنحة والتكتيكات المتقدمة إلى الحزب.
لكننا نسبي الفعل لم نرى أي من هذه الاتهامات تمثل ضد الأحرار، فالأعضاء
موجودين للاختلاط المشجيع ومع التعرية والعمل في صفقة الاختراق
والسيد في التطورات تبادلاً لزعم الحزب. ومن قدس الأقداس في سياسة
المضمنين إن يسمي الأعضاء العاديين بالتصويت إلى معتديهم المتقلبين، وإذا
فعلوا، يجري تجاهلهم أو القبول لهم بإبقاء أن الأمر لا يفعيلهم. أما على سبيل
المر، حيث يمنع الزعماء وظائف التمثيل والبيرو ظاهراً مشابهين في حزب
العمال، وإذا حدث ورددوا فإنه فائقون، بينما نرى أنه في حزب الأحرار ينظر
البيرو على أنهم غرباء الأطراف وتقيموا جانباً، والأخلاقي على ذلك لا يحتمي: إيان
ماكسي، بيتر بي. كريس يوهل وفريد تشامبي...

إن مسألة الأحرار في هذه اللحظة بالذات هي أن قرار الإمامة الذي سيغذلوه
سيحدد فلسفةهم وسياساتهم في الانتخابات المقبلة، إن إذا كانوا من السذاجة
بمكن يمسكون معها جون هيوسن.

(Cont'd ...)
وعلى سبيل استعراض المنشدين لثورة الأحمر هناك جون هوارد، أكثر المثيرين خبرة وفعالية في التأليف وهو يعتبر الخبير الأول في ذلك. من يعتقد
البعض كان عليه أن يرى حنكة في القائمة التقتزجية مع المعلق السياسي
السابق بول لينهام في برنامج الأحداث السياسية المعروف تقرير الساعة
7:30 قبل الانتخابات حيث تابع الدكتور هيوس الذي رأى أن التطور
على برنامج التحليل والمرح ماي إيرث تيسميدا تنايت هو وسيلة أفضل
لتسوية سياسة المعددة. وهذا كانت الفرصة الوحيدة التي شعر فيها لإينام
بالibrateك خلال الحملة. مشكلة هوارد الوحيدة أنه محصور على سياسات
هيوس البنمية المتحجرة مثل هيوس تماماً، لكنه مع ذلك قادر على التخلص
من الوثيقة العطلة للعلاقة الصناعية التي وضعها وأن يقدم نفسه ك班长 جديد
من طرفه تمشياً مع إرادة أغلبية الشعب الاستراتيجي. باختصار، إن هوارد
هو أحسن دليل.
وعلى النحو الآخر من لائحة النشر هناك بيتر كيسون ريد، نائب للنتر في
فكتوريا وزير القلق للخريطة الذي إذا أراد الأحمر الانتحار فعلاً فإنه عليهم
ليس تصيبهم زعماً عليهم.
وفي نفس درجة الحيوانات تأتي السائقية برونو بيشويس التي ليس لها مقعد
في مجلس النواب - وهذا يبدو مكياً إذا أرادت هيوس من مقعده في
المجلس - لكننا لا يمكن أن نؤخذ على معمل الجد حتى لو نجح في
الانتقال إلى المجلس؛ وحلها بالرئاسة وتوضيح الانفصال شبه معصوم، فالبيغونيا
ليست من الصفات التي تتحلى بها برونو بيشويس.
ومع إعلان أنرود تيموك وإيفان ماكلانا الاعتراف عن ترشيح نفسه إما
فانفجح أن الأحمر سوف يرمضهن للأمر الواقع ويتجهون صوب الأجيال
الجديدة.
من هذه الأجيال بيتر كيسون الملحمي الشاب البالغ 25 عاماً والذي وصل إلى
كابرسو بسمعته كطالب ناشط طفلاً عن أرباب العمل وصالحاً لهم ضد
العائلة العملانية، فهو خطيب لفتاة في المجلس وعلى التقتزجية ولكنه كعضو
السيك غبر مستعد للقيام بالأعمال الصعبة في حلبة السباق. ورغم ذلك فإن
ايشة طرح في مجالات الأحمر، لكنه من المستبعد أن يستبدل ريث كابرسو
رئيس للحزب.
ولأخيرًا وليس آخرًا هناك واريك سميث، الاسم الذي يصرح له لتصبح
نثوب الناس بعد، والذي إذا لم نتحسس نسبة الأصوات في مقعد باس في
نظامنا نحن ألمائمين فأنه قد لا يكون ضمن قائمة المرشحين حتى.
ويستمد هو شخصية أخرى برى "أغنياء" كنانا أنه يمثل بالضغط ما يحتاجه
الأحمر اليوم.
لكن رغم شهرة واريك سميث المتواصلة كناظر للمعارضة عن شؤون
الاقتصاد فإن نه اعتماداً على الصحافة ورؤي حرفيي الأحمر والعمال لنتمكن
وصوله النذور والأهم من ذلك لأنه يسعى آدم خلق.
في مهنة غير مشهورة عادة بوزيرة وجد المياه، أما آدم خلقين، قد يكون اختيار
واريك سميث أساساً جيداً لبناء حزب سياسي مشرد.
علاقة السفارة تختنقان

حظيل كيتنغ من السماء - فمع صدور أساو أرقام بطاقة منذ 60 عاماً نهار الخميس الفاتح، تحوّلت آنظار الناس عن هذا المزق الشاتك إلى أخبار العلاقة الزوجية "الملكية" بين ولي عهد بريطانيا الأمير تشارلز والأميرة ديانا.

وهذه ليست المرة الأولى التي تتحول فيها آنظار الرأي العام عن المشاكل التي يرتج تحتها رئيس وزرائها. فقد كان يتلقى الضربات لمنع وسيرة من جراء محاولاته لعب دور "الحاكم بأمره" لإلغاء إصلاحات جيف كينيت للعلاقات الصناعية في فكتوريا، حين انتفض جون هيوسون وبقيرة قادر مختاراً الليبية وفقًا أياها عن التمسك بموقفها نعم أيها السادة! لقد قرر الدكتور هيوسون بعد كل هذا إجراء تعديل على وثيقة ضريبة السلع والخدمات: وأكثر من ذلك، فقد أعطى خصمه فرصة لم يكن يحلم بها لإنشال التعديلات حتى قبل الإعلان عنها وذلك قبل عشرة أيام من موعد صدورها!! ما هو هدف الدكتور هيوسون من وراء ذلك؟ الله وحده يعلم! والدليل أن وزراء الظل أكروا عدم علمهم بوجود تعديلات مما يعني أن هيوسون لم يستشر أبداً بشأنها.

بالطبع كل هذا يصب في مصلحة السيد كيتنغ الذي، إذا لم تبَذ في الأفق أية موافقة طبيعية تلفت آنظار الناس عن مشاكله، يعد إلى حل واحد، كعالم الاسترالي أو مسألة الجمهورية أو العنف على شاشة التلفزيون...

ولكن إلى متي سيكون باستطاعة رئيس وزرائه الاعتماد على دولاب الحظ أو على مهارته السياسية لكسب المعركة الانتخابية المقبلة؟

قد يكون السيد كيتنغ أشهر من لعبة "الكساتبين"، ولكن الرأي العام السائد هو أن أستراليا بحاجة إلى تغييرات

(Cont'd ...)
مهما كلف الأمر، فبعد تسع سنوات على تسلّم العمال سدة الحكم نضبت أفكارهم وتفاقمت حدة التدهور الاقتصادي ولم يسفر بصيص الأمّل الذي وعدته به زعامة كينتغ لتحسين الاقتصاد عن شيء.

إنه حكم حكومة كينتغ بالفوز مرة خامسة تمكن فقط في مقتدرته على وضع برنامج عمل سياسي يزل القيود عن قطاع المصايف التجارية الصغيرة الذي يعتبر العمود الفقري لهذه البلد.

لقد أصبح واضحًا أن علاقة السخرة التي تربط الحكومة العمليّة باتحاد نقابات العمال يجب أن تُسحق للسماح بإصلاح جاد لسوق العمل، والسماح لأرباب العمل والعمال بعمل سويّة مصلحهما المشترك دون معايق.

وعلى كينتغ أن ينسى السياسة واستطلاعات الرأي وأن يدرك أن حظه الوحيد بالفوز بالانتخابات المقبلة - وهناك على ما يبدو أمل في ذلك! - هو إغراقًا بوتيرة إصلاح جديدة في العلاقات الصناعية تبدل المعادلات السائدة على غرار وثيقة المضاربة إذا لم يكن أفضل منها. ومتى اقتنعت السيد كينتغ أنه إذا أعطى أصحاب الأعمال في أستراليا بعض المساعدة الفعالة للتغلب على نتائج الركود الاقتصادي فإنه سيساهم في التخفيف من نسبة العاطلين عن العمل في أستراليا التي وصلت إلى ما يزيد عن 11 بالمائة.

إن الحظ وله "الثلاث ورقات" لن يحلّ هذه الأزمة ولن يكسبا كينتغ الانتخابات المقبلة. وهذه الإصلاح الاقتصادي الحقيقي كفيل بمنحه فرصة اقتصاد هذه الانتخابات من جديد.