

Features of Impoliteness in Journalese

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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá hledáním lingvistických prvků, kvůli kterým může být jazyk užitý v tisku vnímán jako nevhodný, urážející nebo také vulgární. Bakalářská práce je rozdělena na dvě části. V teoretické části jsou definovány základní pojmy. V jejích jednotlivých kapitolách je výčet důležitých lingvistických jevů, které jsou pro tuto analýzu nezbytné. Praktická část se zabývá rozбором vybraných prvků, které souvisejí s lingvistickými projevy nezdvořilosti v tisku. Analýza je založena na rozboru 10 interview, z nichž je patrná jak četnost, tak i způsob, jakým se dané prvky nezdvořilosti v jazyce projevují.

Klíčová slova: nezdvořilost, neformálnost, tisk, lingvistické prvky, slang

ABSTRACT

This thesis concentrates on linguistic features causing language to be seen as inappropriate or insulting in the journalese. This thesis is divided into two parts. In the theoretical part, elemental terms such as impoliteness are described. In the subchapters, there is a list of significant linguistic features, which are considered essential for the purpose of the analysis. The practical part offers an analysis of chosen features related to impoliteness in journalese. The corpus material consisted of ten interviews, each featuring frequency and mean of production.

Keywords: impoliteness, informality, journalese, linguistic features, slang

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INTRODUCTION

When faced with impoliteness, people may come up with various associations. No matter which perspective is taken, impoliteness will be always associated with human behavior, behavior in human interaction.

Human progress in technical, medical and other sciences has enabled mankind to live long and prosper. Progress in the political field enabled at last majority of people, to live in peace and freedom. We are free to vote, free to live where we want to, do what we want to and even say what we want to. We know and have our freedoms. The freedom is a human right inherent to everybody says democracy. However a question comes to mind: Is the human kind ready to possess such a right? Freedom brings a significant amount of responsibility.

Notwithstanding, people aware of this social threat that can lead to misunderstanding, insults or even physical damage formulated many systems, rules and recommendations. One them is the theory of im/politeness. This theory touches on both, written and spoken, forms of language. But for the purposes of this bachelor thesis, I will focus on its written form.

This work deals with interviews, as a typical example of journalese, in which features of impoliteness appears and thus can be analyzed. These interviews have been conducted, printed and posted by Rolling stone magazine in the recent years. Although it was printed by the Rolling Stone magazine the source was mainly the Internet for its obvious availability and accessibility.

The theoretical part presents the reader with a description of significant and relevant terms, such as politeness, informal language, swearing and etc. The first chapter focuses on politeness and provides a brief outline of the definitions of politeness. Im/politeness is a term applied to a boarder theory which states that one defines the other. Simply put, what is not polite, is impolite. The notion of face, face-threatening acts and facework as a necessary means of producing or achieving im/politeness are discussed within the framework of the thesis as well. The subsequent chapters of theoretical part provides an outline of impolite linguistic structures and their theoretical description.

The practical part introduces a research corpus and followed by an analysis of the corpus. As the most appropriate way of analyzing the corpus textual analysis was chosen. In the analysis, it is not possible to take all of the features of impoliteness into consideration, nevertheless, the most frequent features are described and paid attention to.

These features are swearing, fillers, hedging and other slang expressions. The aim of this part is to analyze how a particular feature is used in the corpus and what intention the interactants might have for uttering it. I also argue that selected features of impoliteness are socially approved by the target audience of the magazine, i.e. impoliteness is a part of journalese under certain circumstances.

I. THEORY

1 POLITENESS

Politeness is, as suggested by Watts (2003, 19), „an observable interaction that is not automatically assumed as a positive behavior”. In order to understand politeness it is important to set an aim and purpose of the concept. “What a theory of politeness should be able to do is to locate possible realizations of polite or impolite behavior and offer a way of assessing how the members themselves may have evaluated that behavior” (Watts, 2003,19-20).

Politeness theory is a border-crossing subject and it is difficult to locate the theory of im/politeness in a naturally occurring discourse (Watts 2003). Because of that we should become acquainted with a features of (im)politeness as follows:

- It is impossible to evaluate (im)polite behaviour out of the context of a real, ongoing verbal interaction. Often the amount of contextual information needed can be considerable;
- A theory of (im)polite behaviour needs to take the perspectives of the speakers and the hearers, and vice versa. What may have been originally interpreted as (im)polite behaviour is always open to evaluative remodification the interaction progresses;
- As a direct corollary of the previous two points, it will never be possible to develop a predicative model of linguistic (im)politeness;
- Consequently, there can be no idealised, universal scientific concept of (im)politeness which can be applied to instances of social interaction across cultures, subcultures and languages (Watts 2003, 23).

Im/politeness, as mentioned above, cannot be idealised, a universal scientific concept cannot be applied and it is always open to discussion and remodificaton, resulting in the fact that linguists define politeness differently (Watts 2003). There is a brief range of definitions given in the literature.

1. Lakoff (1975) claims that politeness is developed by societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction;
2. Leech (1980) states that politeness is as strategic conflict avoidance, which can be measured in terms of the degree of effort put into the avoidance of a conflict situation and the establishment and maintenance of comity;
3. Brown and Levinson (1978) define politeness as a complex system for softening face-threatening acts;

4. Kasper (1990) images politeness this way: Communication is seen as a fundamentally dangerous and antagonistic endeavor. Politeness is, then, a term used for the strategies available to interactants to defuse the danger and to minimalise the antagonism;
5. Arndt and Janney (1985) refer politeness to interpersonal supportiveness;
6. Hill (1986) mediates politeness as one of the constraints on human interaction, whose purpose is to consider other's feelings, establish level of mutual comfort, and promote rapport;
7. Ide (1989) defines politeness as language usage associated with smooth communication;
8. Saifianou (1992) evaluates politeness as the set of social values which instructs interactants to consider each other by satisfying shared expectations (Watts 2003, 50-53).

Discussing politeness in pragmatic context, politeness theory does not imply on social rules and codes of behavior such as shaking hands when meeting someone, letting people, especially woman, go first through a door or a man entering restaurant before a woman because of possible fight and harm. Politeness theory “refers to the choices that are made in language, the linguistic expressions that give people space and show a friendly attitude to them, [...] if one wants to save face and be appreciated in return”(Cutting 2002, 46).

1.1 Notion of face

“Brown and Levinson (1987) analyzed politeness, and said that in order to enter social relationship, we have to acknowledge and show an awareness of the face, the public self-image, the sense of self, of the people that we address” (Cutting, 2002, 45). The concept of face was discussed even before Brown and Levinson in papers of Goffman. Goffman researched different roles of conversation participants and defined the conception or notion of face as follows: “The term face may be defined as the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes – albeit an image that others may share as when a person makes a good showing for his profession or religion by making a good showing for himself” (Locher, 2004, 52). Face, in this context, can be compared to a mask or image that particular element of social event puts on

during a particular interaction. Every interaction of social basis has different circumstances therefore a face would correspondingly differ according to it (Locher, 2004).

The concept of face is from this perspective important and essential. Every human being encounters social interactions daily, and harm done due to unfamiliarity of the issue could be enormous.

1.2 Face threatening acts

“Empirical research has provided strong evidence for the powerful influence of face on communication behaviors, namely, politeness (e.g. Brown and Levinson, 1987), compliance gaining (e.g. Baxter, 1984; Tracy, Craig, Smith and Spisak, 1984), emotional disclosure (e.g. Shimanoff, 1985, 1987) and conflict styles (e.g. Oetzel et al., 2001)” (Xiaowen, 2008, 8).

Brown and Levinson characterize face as “the public self image that every member of a society wants to claim for himself/herself” (Brown and Levinson, 1987, 61). They distinguish two elemental kinds of face: positive and negative face.

Positive face can be defined as “the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others” (Locher, 2004, 53) and negative face can be defined as “the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others” (Locher, 2004, 53).

It is considered polite when social participant’s positive and negative face is pleased in interactions (Xiaowen, 2008). Social interactions in daily life do not necessarily satisfy face needs mentioned above, therefore, can be viewed as impolite. “Brown and Levinson called verbal or nonverbal acts that run contrary to the actor’s desired face needs face threatening acts” (Xiaowen, 2008, 9).

Negative face is threatened through imposition on other person’s autonomy of action. It is realized by requests, suggestions, threats, warnings and reminders. Positive face can be threatened through pressure on the other person’s want to be approved of or appreciated. Such an attack can be undertaken by disapproval, disagreement, complaints or insults. Social acts can result in threatening both, positive as well as negative face, at the same time too (Xiaowen, 2008).

To become more acknowledged with the issue, there is a list of examples of positive and negative face threats given by Xiaowen (2008, 106):

- Positive face threat:
 - Her comment made me look bad;

- Her comment embarrassed me;
- What she said made me feel awkward/ashamed about myself/self-conscious;
- Negative face threat:
 - Her comment made me not know what to say;
 - Her comment made me speechless;
 - What she said was intrusive;
 - Her comment disturbed me;
 - Her comment made me frustrated/uncomfortable.

1.3 Facework

Brown and Levinson highlight a need, that is universal across cultures, to respect each other's expectations, taking into account one's self-image, their feelings, and apply face threatening acts avoidance. However, this need is not complied with at times and people's created masks are threatened, attacked or lost. People, then, are motivated to restore their original image and to repair the damages that were done. A tool, strategy engaged in such cases is named facework (Xiaowen, 2008).

Facework is described as "a variety of communicative devices available to interactants for preventing face loss (both their own and the others'), restoring face if lost, and facilitating the maintenance of poise in the advent of disrupted interactions" (Metts, 1997, 374).

In other words, facework is a set of communicative strategies including management of one's own face and the face of other participants involved in social interaction. "Studying facework strategies can help communicators take each other's face needs into consideration" (Xiaowen, 2008, 11). A great knowledge of facework communicative behavior can contribute to personal level of communication competence, personal growth and to create friendly threat-free interpersonal relationships.

Goffman (1967) distinguishes two basic types of facework: preventive and corrective (Xiaowen, 2008). Preventive facework include "actions and behavior that aims at avoiding situations that would lead to face threats" (Xiaowen, 2008, 11). Corrective facework "is used when face threatening acts have taken place, and it includes strategies that correct the wrongdoing in the incident as a means to address and restore the damaged face" (Xiaowen, 2008, 11).

2 FORMAL ENGLISH

"On some occasion, it is important to adhere to the conventions that characterize serious public discourse and to avoid expressions that we might use in more casual situations" (Anderson et al., 1996, 15). The use of formal style in English depends on the given social interaction and the current social situation. Life, generally, offers hundreds of such situations per a week. Here is a list of a few examples of a typical formal English situation: job application, email correspondence with superior manager or bachelor thesis supervisor, academic writing and broadsheet newspapers. Spoken version of formal English is not as frequent as the written form. It is generally used when one tries to keep distance from another, to respect the social boundaries. Formal language, in its very nature, is impersonal. It appears mainly in boss-employee, top-down, conversation, political or statesman debates or public speeches. Nevertheless, public speeches sometimes include informal language, when a politician evokes feeling of mutual closeness and understanding in the audience (Anderson et al., 1996).

"Formal writing and speaking are characterized by the tendency to give full treatment to all the elements that are required for grammatical sentences" (Anderson et al., 1996, 11). There are a lot of words and expressions that does not fulfill the condition in English. Meaning of some words depends on context or they are composed of many parts. There are polysemy words, characterized by containing two or more meaning or words that carries sign, symptom of emotional tightness that are not allowed in formal English. Moreover, English as every single language evolves and current trends aim to suppress formal style for its conservatism and closeness. Formal language does not comply requirements of universality, simplicity and easy and quick usage (Anderson et al., 1996).

Formal English is characterized by particular choices at all levels of language. Heavy assimilation and strong vowel reduction is not acceptable formal English pronunciation. Sentence structure is usually more complex and complicated and a passive voice rather than active is preferred (Loreto, Hancock, 1986). Choice of words is also one of key factors concerning formality of language. It is inappropriate to use *say sorry* instead of *apologize*, *get* instead of *obtain*, *let* instead of *permit* or *nice* instead of *enjoyable* in formal English. Words of English formal dictionary are usually long and created from words that have Latin or French origin. Formal English uses more sophisticated transitions. One should avoid using *plus/also* instead of *moreover/furthermore*, *anyway* instead of *notwithstanding*, *but* instead of *however* or *so* instead of *therefore*. Then, slang expressions

and abbreviations are not markers of formal text and are considered informal. Formal language is, as was said above, definitively most frequent in written text, especially in letters or email correspondence (Loreto, Hancock, 1986).

Formal language uses precise formulas (Loreto, Hancock, 1986). It is not right to use *Hi* as salutation in formal letter or use it as a greeting in formal introduction with unknown persona. Formal *Dear Sir/Madam* is in the situation requisite.

3 INFORMAL STYLE

"Formal English is no way superior to informal English. Each is appropriate to a particular context and the use of formal English in a context where it is not required is as inappropriate as the wearing of a heavy coat on a hot day" (Loreto, Hancock, 1986, 238). Informal English is applied to situations in which it is not essential to use the conventions of formal discourse. It is used in a context where members of conversation or correspondence, i.e. participants, considers themselves close human beings, friends usually or are of the same age or status (e.g students) (Anderson et al., 1996). "Informal English tends to assume that the audience shares basic assumptions and background knowledge with the writer or speaker, who therefore alludes to or even omits reference to this information, rather than carefully explaining it as formal discourse requires" (Anderson et al., 1996, xii). Most common informal situation would comprise a casual conversation with classmates, a letter to a close friend, conversation in an Internet chat room or a newspaper or "magazine article whose readership shares certain interests of the writer" (Anderson et al., 1996, xii). Spoken informality occurs in speeches of various occasions whereas improvised delivery without further preparation is essential (Anderson et al., 1996, xii).

Informal language encompasses many of the familiar features of spoken English. Sentences when in compared to the formal style shorter are and less complex. Speaker or a writer uses delaying expressions in sentences to give themselves time to premeditate an answer (Anderson et al., 1996). These delaying expressions are also named fillers or discourse markers and are represented in the text by words *well, you know, or mean. Well, I think..., I was in a gym, you know, working out and....*. Informal English includes a lot of abbreviations (*pc* instead of *computer*, *asap* that means *as soon as possible*, slang and taboo words) or uses contractions (Anderson et al., 1996). Another typical feature of informality of the text is a presence of:

- everyday phrases as *Here you are!, By the way...;*
- ritualized expressions such as *please, thanks, excuse me;*
- formulaic clause structures like *The thing is..., What was I going to say was...;*
- hedges, that avoids to give precise propositional content and leaves an option open to the addressee to impose her/his own content, e.g. *kind of, sort of, more or less, somehow;*
- hesitators, which are pauses fulfilled with non-lexical phonetic material, e.g. *er, uhh, ahh, hmm;*

- shortened expressions like *Wassup?*, *lemme go!*, *I am gonna*, *I wanna...*;
- exclamations like *oh, my gosh!*, *No way!*;
- phrasal verbs like *find out*, *get in touch*, *make up*, *stand for* (Watts, 2003, 183).

Another aspect of informal language is a use of pronouns. Many languages apply particular pronouns in social relationship. People use different pronouns for intimate and formal situation (Goodman, Graddol, 1997). In Czech for example, a second person singular form *ty* is used to address friends and relatives and *vy*, a second person plural form is used, denoting one single person, to address elders, superiors, unknown people or those you want to keep at a social distance. “Speakers of these languages are actually aware of the significance of using one pronoun rather than another, and will often ask permission (when unsure) before using the more familiar form” (Goodman, Graddol, 1997, 147). This phenomenon has not survived in English during its language development and it is not present in current English at all. Informality in addressing people is demonstrated through addressing them by their first name. Addressing people formally is conveyed using second name with proper title as *Ms/Mrs/Mr. Smith*.

3.1 Informalization

Linguists argue whether English is becoming more or less informal. “The argument put forward by Fairclough (1993) is that boundaries between language forms traditionally reserved for intimate relationship and those reserved for more formal situations are becoming blurred” (Goodman, Graddol, 1997, 145). Professional encounters, institutions such as state, media and commerce, that are in Western culture usually associated with using proper language in proper situations, are increasingly likely to contain less formal forms of English (Goodman, Graddol, 1997). In other words, conversational style becomes preferred nowadays. “In many contexts, then, the public and professional sphere is said to be becoming infused with “private” discourse” (Goodman, Graddol, 1997, 145). The phenomenon is very complex and a term describing a process discussed above is defined as Informalization (Goodman, Graddol, 1997).

It is also very important to highlight that informalization of English language is described as a linguistic theory, however, a very progressive theory.

3.2 Fillers

Fillers are viewed from many perspectives and originally fillers were described as “lexically empty items with uncertain discourse function, except to fill a conversational gap” (Stenström, 1994, 223).

Linguists are disunited about the feature. Filler can be then described as “a word or phrase that has no referential meaning, makes no semantic contribution to the content of the message transmitted, and is syntactically detachable from the sentence in which it occurs” (Fratila, 2010). It means that filler is also “a word or phrase whose absence would leave the propositional content of the verbal exchange intact” (Fratila, 2010, 46-47).

Fillers do not have to be produced as words but may also take the form of a sound as well. Leonard Bloomfield (1933) compares fillers to hesitation forms: fillers are, according to him, sounds of stammering (*uh*), stuttering (*um, um*), throat-cleaning (*ahem*), stalling (*well, um, that is*) (Safire, 1997).

Asher in his paper states that fillers are clear indication of speaker halting and uncertain presentation of himself. An uncertain performer usually starts to overuse fillers like *uh, you know, I mean, actually* and makes his or her speech interrupted. An overuse of fillers also indicates unfamiliarity, inadequate vocabulary and after all a low intelligence (Asher, 2005).

A filler word can be situated in any part of utterance (Riekinnen, 2009). The practical part provides an examples of fillers used in the beginning, in the middle and in the end of a sentence.

3.3 Informality as a way of expressing impoliteness

Chapters 2 and 3, and the theory discussed above serve as an instrument towards an important understanding of a practical, analytical part of the thesis. The features of informality, that are considered as features of impoliteness such as exclamations, slang, taboo words, shortened expressions and hesitators will be further analyzed and subjected to discussion in the analytic part. Introducing a formal versus informal English style helps us understand elemental features of a language usage.

4 SLANG

Slang is a term that is generally hard to define. Linguists use various typologies to define it as slang is impossible to characterize by one definition, “[...] slang is the area of speech in which biological, social, and aesthetic elements of human experience meet. It is liminal language, a transition between or among broader linguistic interests and motives, and it is often impossible to tell, even in context, which interest and motives it serves, though “all of them at once” is not a bad conclusion to draw. Slang is not on one or the other side of a line between human motives manifested in speech. Slang is on the edge” (Adams, 2009, xiii).

Although slang is not easy to describe, a few definitions from prominent dictionaries are available in Adams (2009):

- Encarta world English Dictionary states that slang is very casual speech or writing. Slang words, expressions, and usages are casual, vivid, racy, or playful replacements for standard ones. Slang words are often short-lived and are usually considered unsuitable for formal context. According to the dictionary language of an exclusive group, a form of language used by a particular group of people, often deliberately created and used to exclude people outside the group (Adams, 2009, 7).
- American Heritage College Dictionary, 4th edition present slang as a kind of language especially occurring in casual and playful speech, usually consisted of short-lived coinages and figures of speech deliberately used in place of standard terms for effects such as raciness, humor, or irreverence. The dictionary compares the slang to argot or jargon and set that slang is a language peculiar to a group (Adams, 2009, 8).
- Merriam Webster Collegiate Dictionary, 11th edition, quote that slang is a language peculiar to a particular group as a argot or jargon. Slang is also an informal nonstandard vocabulary composed typically of coinages, arbitrarily changed words, and extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech (Adams, 2009, 8).
- New Oxford American Dictionary (NOAD), 2nd edition, defines a slang as a type of language that consists of words and phrases that are regarded as very informal, are more common in speech than writing, and are typically restricted to a particular context or group of people (Adams, 2009, 8).

All these definitions carries notion of similarity, expressing core idea suggesting slang as in-group language. It is considered as one of the markers showing belonging or standing

outside a social group. Slang, according to Encantra world Dictionary (1999), often embodies attitudes and values of group members (Adams, 2009).

4.1 Spreading of slang

Encantra world English Dictionary definition includes two main notion that are key figures for spreading of a slang expression. Every single word, either slang or not, must be at its very beginning encoded to a language of a small group, usually local subculture. “If the subculture is felt to be interesting, fashionable or newsworthy, especially if it is linked to perceived trendsetters, such as pop singers or sports stars, the “with it” expressions are picked up by others and spread outside the group. At first, the new usage is considered casual and non-standard. Then one or two things happens. Either the novel usage fades, like a raindrop that sunk into the soil and disappeared. Or it gradually gets taken up by a wider set of users, and becomes an established part of a language” (Aitchison, 2006, 19).

Slang has no social boundaries or limitations, therefore one single slang word is possible to spread through varieties, dialects of particular language (Adams, 2009). Moreover it may transfer from one language to another. Finally, that one word may become a slang word understood in all countries and cultures all around the world.

4.2 Slang variations

Slang expressions are distinguished by the kind of social interaction during which the group members encounter them. Slang expressions are, according to their relevance, divided into two main branches: slang expressions connected to business or profession, also referred to as jargon, and slang expressions associated with leisure time activities (Svobodová, 2006).

4.2.1 Swearing

Swearing “can be best described as a form of a linguistic activity utilizing taboo words to convey the expression of strong emotion” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 287). “Humans have been using curse and swearwords since the emergence of language. Some scientists even propose that all modern languages have developed from primitive linguistic utterances that were comparable with swearing” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 288). According to Andersson and Trudgill (2007) swearing is defined as language use in which the expression:

- refers to something taboo or stigmatized in the swearer’s culture;

- is not intended to be interpreted literally;
- can be used to express strong emotions or attitudes (Trudgill, Andersson, 1990, 53).

The combination of these aspects results in an expression with a greater expressive power. For this reason, swearing can be more functional in particular circumstances (Vingerhoets et al., 2013).

“Over history, there has always been some resistance to the usage of swearing” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 288). In the 15th century, the sentence for swearing was imprisonment, excising of the tongue, or even the death penalty. Various cultures and countries deal with the issue differently. Special commissions are founded to regulate radio and television broadcast that may be considered offensive. Additionally, use of a swearword is prohibited by a law in some countries (Vingerhoets et al., 2013). However the swearword punishment is not severe as punishment for kidnapping or slaughter etc. “According to recent literature uttering a swear word from time to time has been happening more and more regularly in our conversations with other people since the 1960’s and has therefore almost become a new norm in our contemporary language use. At the same time, swearing seems to have lost some of its power over time and has become more diluted with the increased frequency of its use” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 288).

“The best suited context to swear seems to be an informal setting with familiar people of the same status and gender, such as in a sport club’s locker room or in a pub with friends” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 292).

“One of the most notable characteristics of swearing is its involvement in the expression of strong emotions, either positive or negative, such as anger, frustration or joy” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 300). Moreover, swearing occurs when swearer desires to accomplish certain goals through swearing, see below.

4.2.1.1 Intra-individual and inter-individual functions of swearing

There are two main functions of swearing. First is intra-individual, what effect using a swearword has on feelings of the person who used it (Vingerhoets et al., 2013). The second is inter-individual function that reflects how the swearword used effects the group of people accompanying a swearer (Vingerhoets et al., 2013).

The notion of swearing as a way to express intense emotions, it may result in either decreased emotion level or in elevation of the primal emotion. Swearing, then, leads either

to a stress relief as well as to annoyance and frustration. The functionality of inter-personal swearing strongly depends on contextual factors. Swearing can evoke fear and hostility in others, it can result in loss of social status of the swearer or boost a social connectedness among members of group where the swearword is used, e.g. group of adolescents. “In this way, swearing can be used in a positive way to express a personal or group identity, whereby people can convey that they have a certain identity and are part of a certain group by swearing or not swearing. Another example of this is the way in which editors of a men’s magazine, for example, can emphasize its masculine identity by using swearwords in the text, since swearing is perceived as a symbol of masculinity” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 295-296).

Table 1 summarizes possible effects of swearing:

Effects of swearing	Positive	Negative
Intra-individual	Stress relief Pain reduction Inhibition of aggression confidence	Negative affect
Inter-individual	Stops unwanted behavior Signaling function Credibility Persuasiveness Group binding Identity marker Humor elicitation	Fear Hostility Decreased social support Loss of statut Insult

Table 1 Possible effects of swearing

(Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 296)

Jay and Janschewitz (1993) examine the phenomenon from a very different perspective. They differentiate among swearwords on automatic, unconscious, reflexive, and those forms of swearwords that are consciously under control (Vingerhoets et al., 2013). “It has been argued that swearing can be characterized on a continuum from unconscious/automatic to fully conscious/controlled. Certain neurological disorders are associated with uncontrollable swearing in more extreme forms” (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 289), e.g. screaming swear words during a sleep or Tourette syndrome (Vingerhoets et al., 2013).

Swearing attributes certain pragmatic/grammatical functions. According to Sternström et al. (2002) there is distinguished 3 of them.

- Intensifiers – *It's bloody difficult innit ?*
- Abusives – *And listen to this you fucking bastard!*
- Expletives – *Oh, bloody hell, this is giving me a headache* (Sternström et al., 2002, 80).

Steven Pinker (2008) determines at last five various ways how to use swearing:

- descriptively (*Let's fuck*);
- idiomatically (*It's fucked up.*);
- abusively (*Fuck you, motherfucker!!*);
- emphatically (*This is fucking amazing!*);
- cathartically (*Fuck!!!*) (Vingerhoets et al., 2013, 289)

In this chapter we acknowledged swearing as a present linguistic phenomenon and introduced the term in language and usage. We also explored a term in a closer look and from different perspectives such as neurological, grammatical and morphological or how the swearing can effect on onelves and the others. Swear words can be expressed intentionally or subconsciously.

4.2.2 Taboo words

Denotative definition of the noun taboo is “a social or religious custom prohibiting or forbidding discussion of a particular practice or forbidding association with a particular person, place, or thing” (Oxford Online Dictionary). Taboo word is, then, an agent enabling such a custom, practice or association to be discussed. Use of such words is basically avoided, considered inappropriate and loaded with affective meaning (De Klerk, 1992).

“Taboo is unspeakable, the silence” (Sadiqi, 2003, 78). “A behavior (linguistic or otherwise) is considered taboo when social opinion either inhibits or prohibits it in a rational or irrational manner. Linguistic taboo is characterized by the irrational rejection of a specific set of words. Although taboo words are appropriate in specific context, they are socially forbidden in some communicative contexts. These words are not banned on the basis of their meanings, but on the basis of their forms, as meaning can be rendered by other lexical expressions. In studies in the psychology of language, taboos are defined by

the reactions and affective responses that words trigger, and not their denotative meaning” (Sadiqi, 2003, 78).

Linguistic taboos are present in majority of cultures. Tabooed words are usually culturally specific, therefore particular taboo prohibited in one culture, could be assumed as faultless in another (De Klerk, 1992).

Taboo words are undoubtedly parts of our everyday life and refer most often to:

- bodies and their effluvia (sweat, snot, faeces, menstrual fluid, etc.);
- the organs and acts of sex, micturition and defecation;
- diseases, death and killing (including hunting and fishing);
- naming, addressing, touching and viewing persons and sacred beings, objects and places;
- food gathering, preparation and consumption (Allan. Burrige, 2006, 1).

Taboo words carries many features that are similar to slang and swearing and a border line between those categories is then unclear (Allan. Burrige, 2006). Taboo words perform as slang when “they are substitutes for an accepted (non-emotional) synonym in the standard language and mirror the speaker’s state of mind” (Moore, 2012).

The unclear border-line between those categories is evidenced in dictionaries of taboo, slang and swearwords. Some taboo words as *fuck*, *shit*, *dick* can be found in NTC’s Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions.

4.2.3 Leisure time activities slang

Slang expressions associated with leisure time activities are lexical and phrasal means distinctive for communities of sport fans, gardeners, actors, fishermen and for communities formed contemporary for education purposes as schoolmates, soldiers or special course attendances. Expressions of the branch are typical for its expressiveness, intentional deformation of lexical means (intentional usage of inappropriate suffixes), imaginativeness, frequent use of metaphor in order to create new word, variability and big amount of synonyms (Svobodová, 2006, 46).

4.2.4 Jargon

Jargon, professional slang, displays willingness to economy and brevity of means of expressions and lack off emotional passion and expressivity. Expressions are considered traditional, furthermore often indicate informal designation of technical term. Jargon is, then, most often associated with medical, sport, music, architectural, building, industry

environment. Although, jargon and slang are typical for communities of leisure time activities (LTA) and they include distinguishing elements, border between them is in certain circumstances blurred, e.g. sport environment. Informal expressions of sport fans are considered slang of LTA community but language of people daily doing a sport actively or language of people employed in the sport environment as moderators, broadcasters, annotator or sport managers is reflected as jargon (Svobodová, 2006, 46).

5 VAGUENESS

Vagueness is associated with an apparent lack of sharp boundaries and we, as language users, do not realize how often vague language is used in natural language (Hyde, 2008).

5.1 Degree and combinatory vague expressions

People tend to reconsider and rebuild vague expressions (nice, tall, rich) by their own attitude. These words have abstract meaning and moreover evoke subjective evaluation and attitudes.

Alston calls this property a degree of vagueness and distincts them from a combinatory vagueness (Hyde, 2008). Combinatory vague expressions are more complex. “Source of indeterminacy of application is to be found in the way in which a word may have a number of logically independent conditions of application. A significant example is the word *religion*” (Hyde, 2008, 16). This example word includes many subcategories and each of them may have exhibited certain striking features that would separate them (Hyde, 2008). Judaism and Buddhism e.g. are such subordinates to religion, but, its internal and external beliefs and order are exhibited and performed another way. Therefore if one says *I have to do it because of my religion*, the term *religion* is, then, vague.

5.2 Vagueness and phrases

English morphology and syntax cut English sentences into small parts, so called phrases. A whole phrase according to linguists is considered vague when even one vague element of such a phrase appears. “If all but one of the constituent sub-phrases of a complex phrase are precise, then, if the complex phrase is vague, so is that one remaining constituent sub-phrase” (Hyde 2008, 23-24).

5.3 Hedging

However, we have already mentioned hedges before as a device which informal language uses in a written form, we are to introduce the phenomenon in more detailed way in this chapter. We have already stated that Watts (2003) encodes hedges as a “avoidance of giving a precise propositional content and leaving an option open to the addressee to impose her/his own intent, e.g. *kind of, sort of, somehow, more or less*” (Watts 2003, 183).

Although the term hedging is rather young than old in linguistics “it is generally understood as a discourse strategy that reduces the force or truth of an utterance and thus

reduces the risk a speaker runs when uttering a strong or firm assertion or other speech act” (Kaltenböck Mihatsch and Schneider 2010, 1).

With the deeper acknowledgement of the concept, the scope of it becomes wider across many linguistic disciplines, “especially pragmatics and applied linguistics, which approached the notion of hedging from different (but overlapping) perspectives, such as speech act- and politeness-theory (e.g. Brown and Levinson, 1978; Wierzbicka, 1991), genre-specific investigations (e.g. Hyland, 1998), international pragmatics (e.g. Jucker et. al., 2003) or studies of vague language (e.g. Channell, 1994; Cutting, 2007), which investigate a variety of linguistic means reducing precision, such as hedges, but also placeholders and indefinite quantifiers” (Kaltenböck, Mihatsch, and Schneider, 2010, 1).

The phrases mentioned above as *kind of*, *sort of*, are seen as an archetype examples referring to a presence of hedges and are called approximators. But the range of linguistic devices that falls within the scope of hedging is more extensive. The concept includes so called shields as *I think* or *I guess*, and hedged performatives such as *I would suggest* but also other linguistic expressions that are not precise in the meaning and make things and conversation blurred (Kaltenböck, Mihatsch, and Schneider, 2010).

II. ANALYSIS

6 INTRODUCING THE CORPUS – ROLLING STONE MAGAZINE

„Rolling Stone goes beyond just taking the pulse of youth culture. Rolling Stone is the pulse of youth culture.“¹

Rolling Stone is an American magazine published every two weeks. It has been devoted to music, politics, and popular culture for four decades since its founding in San Francisco in 1967. It has been founded by Jann Wenner, a dropped out student of University California, Berkeley, who has remained in the position of an editor and publisher up to the present day, and a music critic Ralph J. Gleason (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014).

The first issue of the magazine with John Lennon on the cover went out on 9th November 1967. Even this very first edition distances from low and underground magazines of the era and Wenner himself stated that Rolling Stone magazine is not just about the music, but about the things and attitudes that music embraces (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014). The creators wanted RS to become a yardstick to gauge artistic tastes and political sensibilities of the emerging young generation (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014).

Rolling stones was and always will be associated with a rock and roll way of life, but it is not the only element that made this magazine reputable. It has been regarded with respect and is well known world-wide. For sure, rock and roll is considered as a trademark of a magazine but Rolling Stone is mainly a magazine about culture and as culture developed over the years, Rolling stone grew and developed side by side with it. Nowadays, Rolling Stone well engrained in pop culture is highly appreciated for its diversity of content and bringing always fresh news from many subcultures and cultural underground as well as a political field (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014).

While the magazine, named after Muddy Watters song “Rolling stone”, progressively set the pace of significant trends and discerning tastes of rock and pop culture, cover appearances of up-and-coming musicians went hand to hand with their crucial success. The magazine promoted carriers of artists like The Beatles, Bob Dylan, Madonna and many others. Rolling Stone is therefore considered by many sources as one of the most

¹ “Rolling Stone Home.” srds.com <http://www.srds.com/mediakits/rollingstone/index.html> (accessed March 24, 2014)

² “Rolling Stone Digital.” srds.com <http://www.srds.com/mediakits/rollingstone/RSdigital.html> (accessed

influential magazines around, always delivering the greatest of whatever is out there in music, film, television, and more (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014).

RS magazine has always brought together young, ambitious and knowledgeable people. Many famous persons like a writer and journalist Hunter S. Thompson, a director Cameron Crowe, a journalist Lester Bangs, a politician Joe Klein or Annie Leibovitz, one of the most famous photographers, started their careers with RS (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014).

Today, Rolling stone magazine aims to keep the readers up the topic they care about most. The leadership of the magazine still enhances their content and nowadays readers can keep track of following:

- Music: the authority on music news, reviews and in-depth artist information;
- Politics: commentary and reviews on today's big issues;
- Movies: reviews and interviews and commentary;
- Reviews: albums, songs, movie;
- Artists: profiles and photos;
- Blogs: music, politics, technology, fashion.²

Furthermore, Rolling stone website provides extra materials from the latest issues and more such as videos and RS Archive including all issues and materials produced by RS ever.

Visual appearance of the magazine has evolved along with technical progress. At the very beginning, the printed format of the magazine carried typical attributes of tabloid newspapers. These were no unique first page, so called cover, typical tabloid folded format, newsprint paper size, any staples to bind centerfold together, black ink text, article headlines bolded and upper sized only. During 1980's newsprint paper size was changed to 10x12 inches, stapled sheets and colored ink and images appeared, and dominating cover replaced front page picture surrounded by text of an article (Encyclopaedia Britannica online, 2014).

There is always only one image of a celebrity on the cover nowadays, who is discussed through in the particular issue. Then, the graphic is usually brought forward in front of the masthead. The main article of the magazine is usually double page spread, with

² "Rolling Stone Digital." srds.com <http://www.srds.com/mediakits/rollingstone/RSdigital.html> (accessed March 24, 2014)

big picture of the person covering one whole page. There is often a quote of the celebrity taken from the article that defines it on the other page. The statement is highlighted and colored in the way to sustain the style, mood and theme of the artist. Then, there are small columns presenting minor news unrelated to the main article. These are visually separated by different box color. All these special graphic layouts are instruments to attract reader's attention and convince a reader to go through the whole article.

The magazine influences its audience and vice-versa. It is clear that magazine for gardeners have different visual structure, language, or length of particular article e.g. Therefore, the demographics of the reader, the reader profile, helps to understand the magazine better. Gfk MRI, subsidiary of the Gfk Group, the fourth market research company in the world, released a research in spring 2013. The questioned persons were 18+ and the research revealed the following:

MRI Spring 2013	Audience (000)	% Comp
Adults	12,411	
Men	7,365	59.3%
Women	5,046	40.7%
Age 18 to 24	3,422	27.6%
Age 25 to 34	3,037	24.5%
Age 35 to 44	2,105	17%
Age 45 to 54	2,365	19.1%
Age 55+	1,483	11.9%
Employed	9,107	73.4%
Any College	7,679	61.9%
Grad College+	3,338	26.9%
Attending College	1,748	14.1%
Single	6,201	50%
Married	4,406	35.5%
Any Children in Household	5,812	46.8%
Own Home	7,041	56.7%
White	9,177	73.9%
Black	1,745	14.1%
Spanish	2,057	16.6%
Circulation (000)	1,447	

Reader-Per-Copy	8.51	
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Table 2 Rolling Stone reader demography³

Table two gives very precise and valuable information. The amount of readers is very large so the numbers can be evaluated as very solid. To understand a demography of a casual reader of every magazine is essential for a writer in his attempt to make the reader to buy the magazine even next time or even to subscribe for it. The writers, knowing the age, gender, social status or a skin color of the reader majority will, for sure, use language that is appropriate to such a group.

The table shows that majority of people buying the magazine are men, with almost 60%. According to a preconceived concept, men are as more serious and ego oriented society, are considered carriers of a bad language usage. But recent studies, e.g. Aitchison (2006), reveal data confirming tendency of women to swear almost equally or more in comparison to men.

The data of table 2 also show that a majority of readers are 18 to 34 years old, i.e. young adults. People in this age group are usually open to everything new, and in the sense of language, they are usually open to changes and do not cling on to language tradition and outdated forms. For this reason the language of the magazine interviews is rather informal and includes a high amount of informal features.

The language used in various social groups tends to differ too. According to the MRI research, almost 74% of Rolling Stone magazine readers caucasian, 16% are of Spanish origin, and only 14,1% of the readers are of African American Origin. Language of these social groups differs significantly, and it can be assumed if the was different, the language would be different as well.

From the language perspective, the quotation found on websites of Rolling stone, placed in the very beginning of the chapter is interesting. It explicitly says that Rolling Stone magazine put himself to the role of entity setting current culture trends, language included.

³ "Rolling Stone Demographics." srds.com <http://www.srds.com/mediakits/rollingstone/demographics.html> (accessed March 24, 2014)

6.1 Introducing analyzed corpus – Q&A Interviews

The analyzed type of text is an interview. The section is called Q&A. The extent is usually one page. The interview contains at least of 8 questions and answers, while the questions are prepared, the interviewer does not necessarily have to follow them at all costs. This feature makes the interviews more conversational and enables both of the interview participants to use informal language. The interviewed personalities were for our purposes more or less well-known show business celebrities such as Kelly Clarkson, Flea, Billie Joe Armstrong or BenBot 5000 and John Mayer. The final number of interviews analyzed was 10 and it comprised of 7953 words. In this respect, articles, prepositions or hesitators such as uuhm e.g. are considered as words.

The visual aspect of the page copies the style of the magazine cover. There is a big photo of the interviewed person and it is surrounded by the text itself. There is no flushed column, just a text srrounding the image. Such layout support the typical features of an informal style.

7 TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

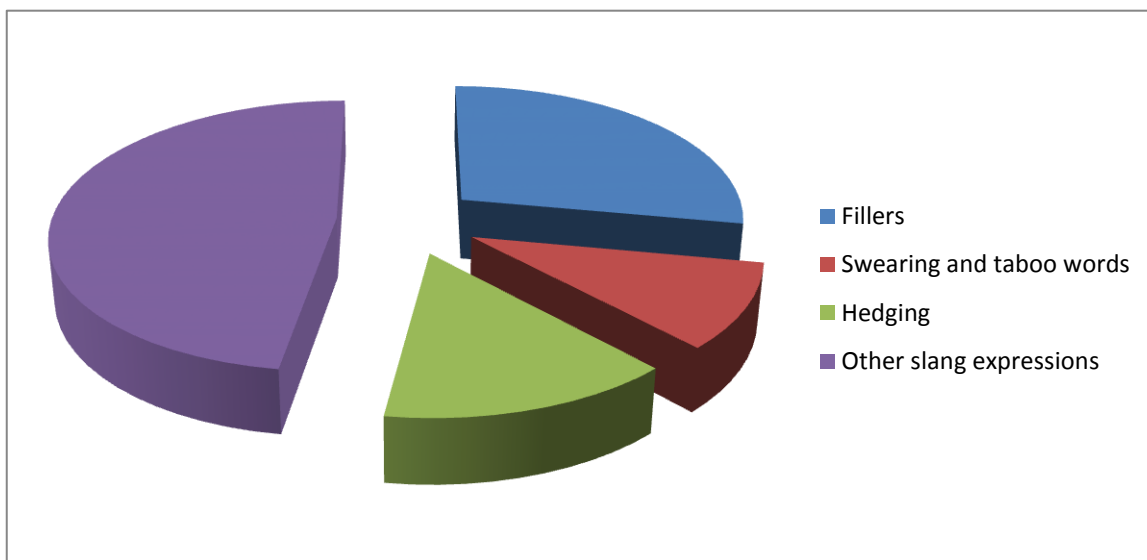
Textual analysis of the whole corpus material had been carried out. All the selected features of impoliteness were taken into consideration. They had been previously described and paid attention to. The searched and examined features were fillers, slang and taboo words, hedging and a set of features named other slang expressions.

The following table and graph summarizes the total number of appearance and percentage of the examined features.

Features	Number of appearance	Percentage
Fillers	72	27,9%
Swearing and taboo words	26	10%
Hedging	37	14,4%
Other slang expressions	123	47,7%

Table 3 Number of appearance and percentage of features of impoliteness

Based on the number of appearance of the selected features, the most frequent ones were other slang expressions, fillers, then hedging and the least frequent features were swearing and taboo words which seems natural given the fact that they are most objectionable.



Graph 1 Number of appearance of selected features

7.1 Swearing and taboos in Rolling stone Q&A interviews

There have been 26 swear words found in corpus. Considering whole corpus consisted of 7953 words, it shows that a swear word appears once in every 306 words and only two swear words were used per interview on average. Whether swear words were used intentionally or not, there were three interviews where no swear or taboo word appeared, suggesting the interviewee either avoided them or does not use them. The interviews without such a feature were Billie Joe Armstrong's, Paul Kelly's, Sheryl Crowe's. On the other hand, the maximum number of swearing words was 6, found in David Grohl's interview.

None of the swearwords used were substituted with any special signs, such as f***, or omitted, which means no mitigating devices were applied which suggests that the target reader group is not to be offended by profanity.

7.1.1 Examples of swearing

The most common expression found in the corpus was *fuck* in various forms and meanings. The next ones were *hell*, *bitch*, *butt*, *shut up*, *shit* or *shitty*, *gosh*, *piss of* and a phrase *are you freaking kidding me?* The table below summarizes the number of appearances.

Swearing expression	Number of appearance	Swearing expression	Number of appearance
fuck	10	Butt	1
hell	2	Gosh	1
shut up	2	piss off	1
shit	2	are you frickin' kidding me	1
shitty	2	frickin'	1
bitch	1	she is freakin' hot	1

Table 4 Number of swear words appearance in the corpus

These swear and taboo words are well known in English speaking countries but for precise understanding I provide definitions of them found in NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions (1989).

- *butt* is used there as a term for cigarette of a any kind;
- *gosh* euphemisms for God;

- *coke* means drugs, more specifically cocaine;
- *frickin´* is there used in a sense of an adjective, meaning unbelievable;
- *piss off* to make someone angry about something;
- *shut up* represents an expression synonymous to *be quiet*
- *bitch* is understood as derogatory term for a woman;

In next few subchapters I am going to take a closer look at swear words found in the corpus more frequently.

7.1.2 Analysis of the word fuck

The word fuck can be used as almost any part of speech or a sentence constituent. It can be a noun, adjective, verb, adverb, subject, predicate and so on. It is independently used by men, women and even children in everyday spoken English. (Aitchison, 2006) The following table consists of f-word expressions found in our corpus presenting properties of f-word described above. The celebrity using the word quoted is named as well for purposes of gender affiliation:

F- word	Part of speech	Sentence constituent	Celebrity
<i>we´re fucking on fire.</i>	Adverb	Adverbial	Flea
<i>Who the fuck is..</i>	Adverb	Part of Wh-clause	Suk-Yu Goodman
<i>I´m gonna fuck up</i>	Verb	Predicate	Kelly Clarkson
<i>What the fuck ?</i>	Verb	Part of Wh-clause	Miley Cyrus
<i>Magic of the crazy fucked-up people</i>	Adjective	Part of NP	Suk-Yu Goodman
<i>That guy fucking rocks!</i>	Adverb	Part of NP	Dave Grohl

Table 5 F-word in context as a part of speech and sentence constituent

Here are other remaining swear expressions found in corpus:

- *It's fucking crazy*
- *fucking beautiful.*
- *Soundgarden can still fucking slay*
- *for the last fucking time*

According to Pinker (2008), the taxonomy of swearing production, all of the remaining swearing expressions were created emphatically.

Considering Sternström's pragmatic/grammatical functions of swearing, f-word has been found in function of intensifier (*for the last fucking time, fucking beautiful, that guy fucking rocks or it's fucking crazy*), and f-word was uttered as an expletive (Who the fuck is). F-word was not found in the function of abusive in the corpus.

There is a special case of an f-word in interview with BenBot 5000. It is not uttered by BenBot himself, but surprisingly by the employee of the magazine, the interviewer, a writer Suk-Yu Goodman. He actually utters word *fuck* twice in the article and one of them was *who the fuck is*. The f-word phrase *who the fuck is...* has become extraordinary famous after Ozzy Osbourne's television appearance on a show *A Different Spin* in 2010. He answered a Mark Hoppus's question about current music and if he listens to it. He was asked if he knows who Justin Bieber is and his reply: "*Who the fuck is Justin Bieber?*" has become legendary.

7.1.3 "Hell" under analysis

The word *hell* is an example of a word that is not a swearword on its own. It must be a part of a phrase in order to create a swear expression. Kelly Clarkson being interviewed about her music used the word *hell* in its idiomatic structure, *it's like hell has frozen and pigs are flying*. There is no signal that would suggest swearing. However, Pharrell Williams in another interview and under other conditions, explains some of his lyrics and says: *you're probably thinking, "what the hell is this guy talking about?"* This structure is however regarded as swearing, and this example of the word *hell* shows its idiomatic nature, i.e. it needs context in order to be understood as a swearword. This general ambiguity is not applicable to words like *fuck, dick, shit* and many more, these are clearly examples of orthodox swearing.

7.1.4 "Shit" under analysis

Shit in the context of the interviews is interpreted as a noun denoting something poor of quality. *Shit* as a swear expression is a polysemic word and carries several meanings. It can be used as a noun indicating some dung, or nonsense. From this perspective *shit* is synonymous with another swear word *bullshit*. *Shit* can be used in connection to drugs in general, usually associated with heroin or marijuana (*Don't give me the shit, Paul, I don't*

wanna end up hooked!). Shit can act as a verb in a sense to deceive, to lie someone (*Stop shitting me, bastard*) (Spears, 1989).

7.2 Hedging

In the theoretical part, vagueness is described as a superior feature or umbrella term to hedging. In the practical, I focused on hedging only.

Hedging is used in spoken language, and in the theory of politeness. Hedging is considered as a negative politeness strategy (Riekinnen, 2009). However, in the written form it is considered as informal language and from this point of view, it may be considered rather impolite.

In the corpus there have been 37 expressions found and understood as hedging. The following table encompasses the most frequented hedging found.

kind of	kinda	stuff	seem
sort of	Thing	a way of	a bit of
a form of	whatever	whoever	somewhere

Table 6 Hedging found in corpus

7.2.1 Analyzing “kind of”

Kind of emerged as the most frequent hedging in the corpus. It was uttered also in its abbreviated form of *kinda* that is considered a slang expression as well. This expression shows that features chosen for examining impoliteness are indeed border line features. *Kinda* is a hedge and a slang expression as well.

A word *kind of* fulfills the hedging definition as it modifies a degree of membership (Riekinnen, 2009). An example from the interview with Pharrell Williams makes it clear: *it sounds like fruity Pebbles might be some kind of elixir of eternal youth*. The hedge *kind of* modifies the relationship between the cereal and elixir of eternal youth in general. Similar quality is attributed to other hedging words like *sort of*, *a form of*, *a bit of* (Riekinnen, 2009). The following examples were found:

- *It's like kind of a plastic surgery.*
- *It's too soon to go to into any sort of details.*
- *Songwriting's really a form of play.*
- *With your characters, do you envisage their physical appearances and personality traits? Not on this record. But a bit of a model was a Willie Nelson album from 1974 called*

7.2.2 Fuzzy hedges and their uncertainty

The next group of hedging shares some features typically associated to vague expressions. These expressions aim to convey some uncertain information. It is similar to vague expressions via making information fuzzy, vague. Examples of such hedges are *somewhere*, *whatever*, *thing*, *way*, *at some point*, *stuff*, *something*. The examples, showing also the context, without which it is impossible to mark a hedge, is given below. Examined hedges are underlined.

- *I got more Botox than my doctor has ever given anybody! The average is 10 units and I got somewhere in the thirties.*
- *I'm completely ignorant of EDM or whatever.*
- *Economic systems have a way of indelibly imprinting themselves on the minds, bodies, and spirits of those who live within their constructs.*
- *I like a lot of stuff I didn't think I was going to like 10 years ago.*
- *As long as it isn't illegal, there are far more dangerous things.*
- *I'd like to do a country EP at some point, a smallish record.*
- *I used to be one of the top 10 people on Twitter, 4 millions-something followers,....*

7.2.3 Hedges as hesitators

Hedges are also seen in the theoretical part as language expressions signaling hesitation and uncertainty about a statement of the utterer. This hesitation is used lexically in the corpus, e.g. hedge *maybe*, or as a verb *think* or it is performed by a modal *would* (Kaltenböck, Mihatsch, and Schneider, 2010).

- *I'm up to four or five songs I think are really cool.*
- *I wouldn't say "jam band" ... but it's definitely more "jam band" than "guys with a guitar singing songs he wrote.*
- *Who knows what I'll be into 10 years from now? Maybe I'll be in an opera house singing Frank Sinatra.*

7.3 Fillers

Filler were found as a second most frequent feature of impoliteness in the corpus. From the total number of words that was 7953, 72 of them took the position of a filler. The most frequent fillers uttered are summarized in the table below.

Filler	Number of appearance	Filler	Number of appearance
yeah	6	so	16
right	3	well	5
oh	4	you know	3
actually	4	just	3

Table 7 The most frequent fillers

The most frequent place of uttering a filler was found at the beginning of a syntactic structure in general. There is a list of such fillers found in the corpus given below. Fillers are underlined for easy orientation.

- *Why can't you go out until three in the morning on Friday? Well, the answer's really cool...*
- *A: Not to mention Studio 54. B: Actually, in my dimension it's called Area 51, ...*
- *A: Have you been writing too? B: Yeah. I'm up to four or five songs...*
- *So what parts of you are real?*

Fillers were also found in the corpus in the end of syntactic structure and in the middle of them as well. Fillers uttered in the end of the structure tend to be expressed by tag questions as seen below in the first example.

- *But these are tough times for rock radio, aren't they?*
- *You were probably too busy respecting the video's breakout star, Emily Ratajkowski, to notice she was topless, right?*
- *I've had a few chips implanted in my brain, you know, the standard issue ...*

In the theoretical part, there was mentioned sign of hesitation connected to fillers produced with non lexical way using a sound instead (Watts, 2003, 183) Some sounds carrying the property as *oh*, *uhhhhhhh...*, or *ugh* were founded in the corpus. Examples showing how they were used in corpus are given below.

- *A: You see what I'm saying? B: Uhhhhhhhh... A: You're probably thinking ...*

- A: *Do you feel you've been influenced by David Bowie?* B: *Oh, Ziggy and I go way back!*
- A: *What happened there?* B: *Ugh, it's a dimensional bandwidth issue.*

7.4 Other slang expressions

This category of features was the most frequent in the research. The total number of other slang expression was 123 out of 258, that was 47,7% of found examples. Some calculations were made, there are 795,3 words per interview on average, one slang word per 64,6 words on average. The table below shows the most frequent ones and how often they were uttered

Slang expression	Number of appearance	Slang expression	Number of appearance
weed	4	molly	5
hang out	5	cool	6
guy	9	jam/jamming	5
gonna	5	I was like	7

Table 8 The most frequent slang expressions

For better understanding of the examined slang expressions, they were divided into several categories:

- Slang phrasal verbs
- Slang compounds
- Shortened slang expressions
- Slang salutation
- Slang expressions associated with drugs
- Slang expressions associated with sexuality
- Unclassified slang expressions

7.4.1 Slang phrasal verbs

Slang phrasal verbs do not carry any special sign or markers in comparison to regular phrasal verbs of English, except for their meaning. In the following part of the chapter, the examples of slang phrasal verb and their meaning are given. Meaning of the examples provided was found in NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions (1989). Slang phrasal verbs are underlined.

- *Let's get right to it!* → Let's start!

- *But I was surrounded with them! I was like, “Do you want me to turn... → this issue is attributed to American English. *I was like* is synonymous to *I said, I thought**
- *I’m hanging out with my brother → to relax, spent a time in calm mood*
- *I don’t know why people get all bent out of shape → to be made angry or insulted*
- *I’d be in the red because you had to pay the club a fee... → to have less money after a business, shift, then before it*
- *When I think about it, I wet my pants. → to want a sex with someone.*
- *Then I’ll eat, go to back to my hotel and go on a 3 a.m. hourlong walk through Barcelona. Then I hit the hay. → to go to bed*
- *turn on the satellite dance station and bounce around like maniacs for hours. → to dance*
- *..., where Green Day are wrapping up a run of European festival dates. → to finish something, to bring something to conclusion*
- *I had a crush on her when I was younger → to be infatuated or enchanted with someone*
- *I used to panic on tour, lose it and fall apart and crumble, but now I have it down to a science. → to have something under control*

7.4.2 Slang compounds

It is used by special subcultures and groups (Svobodová, 2006, 46). In this case, it is used by people interested in culture, especially in music. There is list of slang compounds founded in the corpus. Meaning of the examples provided was found in NTC’s Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions (1989). Slang compounds are underlined.

- *..., I was driving my beat-up Corvair in Beverly Hills, and ... → adjective, damaged*
- *As far as first editions, my heavy hitters are Williams Burroughs’ Junky, ... → noun, a person with a lot of influence and power*
- *Loud-ass guitars and drummers who trash their kits... → adjective, so loud that it would make dead alive*
- *When I was waiting tables, older guys would hit on the waitresses, and I’d call them bird dogs. → noun, an old man who get younger woman*

7.4.3 Shortened slang expressions

Shortened slang expressions are typically shortened in order to make its production easier and faster. The original form of the shortened slang expressions is usually grammatically or morphologically steady but for purposes mentioned above it was transformed. Meaning of the transformed expressions remains the same. There is a list of such words below, the original spelling form is also provided, transformed expressions are underlined.

- *I kinda liked the idea.* → kind of
- *...except you gotta wear a space-suit to get in.* → have got to
- *I knew people were gonna wonder what ...* → going to

7.4.4 Slang salutation

In the corpus there have been two examples of such salutations.

- *Brother, it's been a long road.* → usually this form is shortened just to *Bro*.
- *..., and he said, "Dude! You should learn how to play bass and be in my band."*

7.4.5 Slang expressions associated with drugs

Slang expressions are socially bound (Svobodová, 2006). In the corpus there were slang expressions associated with drugs, people who use drugs or tools that are associated with preparation and consumption of drugs. The list of the words is provided further as well as their meaning which was found in NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions (1989).

- *weed* → noun, marijuana
- *molly* → noun, ecstasy or a drug containing MDA
- *acid* → noun, L.S.D , lysergic acid diethylamide
- *bong* → noun, a marijuana smoking device that cools the smoke by passing it through water
- *stoner* → noun, a teenager who prefers smoking marijuana to anything else

7.4.6 Slang expressions associated with sexuality

Slang expressions also contain words associated with gender, sexual orientation, or sexual desire. The list of those found in corpus is provided below, the meaning, found in NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions (1989), is given as well.

- *Gay* → noun, homosexual

- *Queer* → noun, a man who is into all genders, a man who is heterosexual
- *Queerness* → noun, heterosexual orientation
- *Baby* → noun, a term for beautiful woman, lover, one's sweetheart
- *Bird dog* → noun, an old man who get younger woman
- *Hot* → adjective, sexy, sexually aroused
- *Hooker* → noun, prostitute
- *Cougar* → noun, a woman who hit on younger man

7.4.7 Unclassified slang expressions

The slang expressions that were found in corpus but have no common link or feature were added to the group. The list of words belonging to the group is provided below as well as the meaning that was found in NTC's Dictionary of American Slang and Colloquial Expressions (1989).

- *Green* → noun, money
- *Crib* → noun, a teenagers home
- *Goofy* → adjective, silly, alcohol intoxicated
- *Topless* → noun, usually a woman wearing no clothing above the breast
- *A: I can say we have a time travel. B: No way! A: Yes way!*

CONCLUSION

The aim of the paper was to find, analyze and describe features of impoliteness found in journalese. The analyzed corpus consisted of ten interviews which appeared in the Rolling Stone magazine in the recent years.

The theoretical part provided a necessary background knowledge for the analysis. All selected features of impoliteness appeared in almost every interview. Surprisingly, they were uttered by both participants, the interviewed person as well as by the interviewer.

The data suggest, that Rolling Stone magazine includes high number of impolite expressions and the writers of the magazine use it knowingly and on purpose supporting my hypothesis that impoliteness and the selected features are socially approved in the setting of the magazine

In the analysis, slang expressions considered as markers of impoliteness were proved to be the most frequent feature. Almost half of all detected expressions belong to this category. Slang expressions are easy to spread and when they are uttered by a certain influential group, e.g. famous people, that a show business celebrities really are, there is a strong probability of spreading of these expressions. The fact, the Rolling Stone magazine is oriented on special group of people, their target readers, people who listen to music and care about culture, shows that impolite expressions and slang as one of its features is very well rooted among them. It proves my original hypothesis that certain features of impoliteness are socially approved under certain circumstances and are indeed a part of journalese.

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