A pragmatic Study of Tautology in Trump's Political Speech

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Abstract:

This study is extracted from an MA thesis entitled "A Pragmatic Analysis of Tautology in Some Selected American political Speeches". The current study analyzes tautological devices in Tump's political speech, the previous American president. It aims to explore the most prominent linguistic structural types of tautologies in the political speeches selected for the study of pragmatic aspects of tautologies in political discourse and study the most adequate pragmatic theories that can be best used to the analysis of the pragmatic functions of tautologies of political discourse.

The study hypotheses that redundancies are the most prominent linguistic structural types of tautologies in the political speech. Searle`s (1969) speech acts and Grice`s (1975) cooperative maxims are the most adequate pragmatic theories that can be best used to the analysis of the pragmatic functions of tautologies of political discourse, and tautologies in political discourse can be pragmatically analyzed to in consideration of three metafunctions: ideational (pragmatic), textual (linguistic), and interpersonal (output).

The study adopts an eclectic model for the analysis of data which consists of surface and deep levels. In the surface level, there is analysis of different types of linguistic tautology of Moore`s (2001) types that resembles the textual metafunction. In the deep level, there is a pragmatic analysis as associated with the pragmatic functions of tautologies in political speech.

To achieve its aims, the study analyzes the selected data qualitatively, then there is a statistical study based on quantitative analysis to enhance the findings of the empirical study.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Tautology, Speech acts, Grecian Cooperative Principles

Introduction

Language is the primary key of communication among people. People can develop understanding amongst themselves based on the shared language. People can develop understanding themselves based on the shared language between the speaker and the listener. According to Nursanti (2015), without language, people cannot have an interaction in their daily life since people, through language communication (spoken or written), are able to express their ideas, feelings, attitudes, opinions, etc.

In political discourse, pragmatics focuses on the significance of words and how speakers convey more than the words they use. Politicians sometimes tend to use different techniques to "unravel the hidden truth of meaning and to project them to the public" and "to win the favor of the public and

gain social power". Therefore, this study deals with the concept of "tautology" in political speeches and how it conveys meaning pragmatically.

1.1 Statement of the problem

Tautology often appears in language when a sentence includes a few words that have the same meaning or where a word is part of the definition of another word. Although tautology is common in language and everyday speech and does not reduce clarity, it is better to avoid them in formal writing so as not to repeat what is said unnecessarily. According to Bryson (1999), the term "tautology" is derived from the Greek words "tauto" and "logos" which mean "same" and "word" respectively. In this regard tautology refers to the idea of using the same word or idea twice. Szymanek (2015:144) states: "a tautology means saying the same thing twice in slightly different words, or adding unnecessary or redundant words.". Kallan (2005) asserts that tautology is the repetitive use of words, phrases or expressions that give similar meaning

"Tautology" is perceived as one of the rhetorical and manipulative tools which politicians tend to use to deceive their audience. Feldman (1998:4) states that" tautology is a merit in which politicians take use of this linguistic feature to impress their people and deliver their ideology through their speeches indirectly". Consequently, "tautology" is used purposefully and functionally in a political discourse. In this regard, analyzing this rhetorical device using pragmatics approaches is a problematic issue which this study faces.

1.2 Research Questions

Therefore, this study raises the following questions and tries to find suitable empirical answers to fill this gap:

1. What are the most prominent linguistic structural types of tautologies in the political speech selected for the study of pragmatic aspects of tautologies in political discourse ?

2. What are the most adequate pragmatic theories that can be best used to the analysis of the pragmatic functions of tautologies in political discourse ?

1.3 Limitations of the study

This study aims at analyzing "tautology" in Trump's political speech .The study is limited to investigate the pragmatic aspects of tautology in extracts of one political speech of former president Trump. Trump`s speech is his first public address since leaving office. He spoke at Conservative Political Action Conference (CPAC) on February 28, 2021.

1.4 Significance of the study

This study is beneficial in shedding lights on the analysis on English tautology from the perspective of pragmatics. Moreover, the study looks at the pragmatic functions of tautology in political discourse. The pragmatic analysis is important in this study as it refers to a set of logical and linguistic tools with which researchers develop systematic accounts of political speeches. This analysis attempts to identify the full range of inferences that a listener or a reader will make when encountering the locutions of a speaker or a writer in some tautological contexts. Duffy (2008:168)

states that "Pragmatic Analysis is a new method for analyzing political discourse.".

2.Tautology in speech

2.1 Meaning of Tautology

In literal criticism and rhetorical, tautology is an argument that recurrently expresses a concept by using almost interchangeable morphemes, words and phrases that "speaking the same point twice". (Bryson, 1990). Tautology and glittering generality are not always distinguished in literature (Szymanek, 2015). Wilful repeating may emphasise a thoughts or assist the audience or viewer in understanding a point. Often, logic tautologies such as the words 'Girls shall be girls' are interwoven with language tautologies. (Campbell, 1988).

Incidental repeating of expression is intended to enhance or highlight a specific, typically important fact of what has been addressed. For instance, a present is, by default, free of cost; although using term "free present" might point out that there are no secret requirements or fine printing (such as the assumption of cash or mutuality) and that a present is provided voluntarily.

This relates to the rhetoric device of hendiadys, in which idea is conveyed by the use of direct correspondence words or phrases. For instance, to use "tankards and silver" to imply money, or "this week and generation" to refer to the current time. Vaguely, these phrases may appear tautological, although they are thematically sound, since the repetitive context is only a way to emphasise a certain concept.

Tautology is a repeat and a repetitive use of expressions that express the same thought over and over again in various terms. This is either always had to convey a certain meaning or to reinforce the concept that was introduced a little before (Pomorska, 1987). The repetition was popular in poetry written by writers from the 1800s. The development of existing theories for evaluating and theorising the frequent repetition of words in a text may examine the question of tautology. It is known most of the tautology in poetry are overcome by the complexity of the classifications and related definitions, culminating in conceptual failures.

Tautology is seen as being phrases that expand something that had already been explained in a previous sentence (Gibbs, 1994). As per Leech (1969), tautologies don't teach us much about the universe and the language. The development of existing theories for evaluating and hypothesising the use of repetition in poetry may provide a right answer to tautologies. (Ward and Hirschberg, 1991). Nevertheless, these ideas are now in the early stages and are often encumbered by the complexities of similar definitions with classifications, together with the essential discrepancies among them, which are totally overlooked and resulting in a conceptual failure.

It seems, however, that tautology is just a repeat of words resulting again from repeating of the same word; it varies from the duplication or repetition of the paraphrase separation of various words with the same definition (Waldoff, 2001). Due to such details, tautology raises the bar of poems, and it is far more important although this makes it appear at a glimpse. It is indeed related to the process of sense in the word. When various words are used to communicate a certain definition, it is proposed that the definitions of certain expressions or lyrics outweigh the linguistic forces of such words (Keach, 2004). The definitions of literary words cannot be entirely rubbed out through frequency

alone, but they are also outside them. Thinking during that aspect, tautology tends to arise whenever language is at variance with its symbolic limits. Even so, it is worth noting that tautology not just to recognises language limitations, and moreover suggests the very possibility of elevating certain limitations.

There are several explanations why redundancy and tautology is the beauty of literature. The most significant factor is the curiosity that perhaps the viewer's brain holds to the language he/she reads. Language are no more words or only representations of excitement, they are desirable and effective objects which are also component of enthusiasm. The composer's animosity in the text, and also the notice of redundancy and tautology, could be seen. Originally, they are seen as the environmental impacts of its type, language as separate from the substance of the poetry (Sarker, 2003). However, the tacit licencing of the so-called type material over non-form confirms that there really are numerous explanations why tautology and redundancy are often used in Wordsworth poems. Tautology is not only a senseless duplication of words, but an illustration of the intensity of human emotions (Russell, 2005).

2.2 Types of Tautology

Moore (2001) suggests how tautology is a flawed duplication of phrases like 'me, myself and I.' Existing meanings do not explain repetitive terms or concepts and leaving it vague. Three meanings of the vocabulary may explain this ambiguity: the Concise Oxford Dictionary (2011) implies: "the excessive repeating within such a sentence of the same object in different words (P.1477)" The Merriam-Webster Dictionary of Synonyms (1984) claims: "Unnecessary or redundant duplication of the same a concept in different words (P.857)" And the Oxford Dictionary of English (2010) describes Tautology as: "the expression of the same thing twice over in different words; generally considered to be a fault of style (P.1822)" Moore (2001) states that the methods described are linked to tautology, indicating that repeating takes various forms:

1. Antanaclasis: the repeating of the same terms in a various, maybe not a distinct, context, like: that was it! And who's that man.

2. Paronomasia: a playing on language where the same expression is used in various contexts or related words in speech is placed against each other in order to offer a diametrically opposed power: you are Paul [stone], because on this stone I will create my own (Moore, 2001)

3. Pleonasm: Merriam-Dictionary Webster's of Synonyms (1984) notes that it is better described as "the use of syntactically meaningless word as in "the boy he said"

4. Redundancy: through use of further words than would be needed by aphorism or grammar and is therefore considered to be a form defect. (Merriam-Synonyms Webster's Dictionary, 198

2.3 Functions of Tautology

2.3.1 Intended Vagueness:

Tautologies is utilized to establish uncertainty. Political populism is also in the group. States (1989: 51) describes how tautology, logically, will be a method of expressing anything without stating anything. This approach has a predominant aspect of demagoguery; one cannot tautologize an

affluent listener:

1. "I am the one I am..."

2. "I am the God who is here."

2.3.2 Resignation/Acceptance

Tautologies is used to express the needs to approve or resign oneself to something. In English, any form of tautology could be utilized for this purpose, as the following:

1. But murder is murder. It's not pretty.

2. a first day is a first day.

3. also I'm going to discover it or I'm not

2.2.3 Difference of Denial

That style is utilized to reject the significance of discrepancies among objects. It may be utilized to interact that certain groups of a category are the same for the current reason. (Bulhof and Gimbel, 2001). Examples exist in exudatives, conditional expressions, and conjunctions as the following:

1. victory is a victory... even if it's a strange victory.

2. It's quick if it's quick.

2.3.4 Language Inadequacy

Cherry (1978) argues that such a form emerges from 'the inadequacy of language itself.' This latter involves the expansion of expressions and phrases then we will be sure how we have 'expressed the definition.' Likewise, Jespersen (1917) describes the use of needless dual negation, claiming that: 'The worthlessness of such components allows it attractive to divide they in such a way as to minimize the others from being benign.

1. "We do not let her get onto the spot."

2. "It wasn't any of my motorcycles, I inform you! ".

2.3.5 The Obligation

These tautologies are utilized to convey that one has to meet somebody's obligations. Examples exist mostly in equative. (Wierzbicka, 1987)

1. The arrangement is an agreement.

2. A gamble is a gamble.

3. The rule is the rule.

There is no strengthening or weakening of tautology but instead the mockery it comprises lies upon. The below is a quote from Shakespeare et al., (2002: 74):

1-   "Polonius: What do you read, my lord? / Hamlet: Words, words, words"

2.4 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is among the linguistic divisions that research context's relation to interpretation. The sense of phrase or utterance is the subject of pragmatic research. Pragmatics is the analysis of the connections with the linguistic form as well as the person that expresses the utterances. (Yule, 1996). This focuses on the dimensions of meaning that aren't just linguistic and therefore physical and social awareness predictable. Thus, individuals could get an implied significance, inference, aims, and form of behaviour from language study through pragmatics.

2.4.1 History of Pragmatics

Ferdinand de Saussure identified pragmatics as a response to structuralism linguistics. In certain instances, the concept extended that language has a structure which can be analysed and is made up of components which can be described in comparison with others. In comparison to exploring the historical evolution of language, Pragmatics initially studied only in synchronic terms. This dismissed the theory, though, that all some must from symbols that only occur in conceptual language space. Meanwhile, there have also been historical pragmatisms.

It was not until the 70s whenever the English-American pragmatic thinking and continental European pragmas (also called perspective) came into being that the linguistic area gained the interest of linguists (Jucker et al., 2012). Pragmatics appears to be a relatively new linguistic division. Just in the mid-1970s, growing numbers of linguists started working on this area. The international association for pragmatics (IPrA) was established in mid 80s.

His early lectures were given in Viareggio in 1985, Antwerp in 1987, Barcelona and Japan in 1990. Pragmatics published in 1977 and the Pragmatics publication in 1991, respectively (Mey 1998: 720). The Pragmatics Publication began with approximately 400 papers each year in the 1970s and grew its size gradually to over 2,600 pages by 2009. Similar increases were seen in the quantities of papers, monographs, volumes obtained and more specialised books (Pragmatics and the Cognition, 1993, Historical Pragmatics, 2000, Intercultural Pragmatics, 2004, Pragmatics and Culture, International Review, 2009) and in specific the publishing of pragmatic manuals. (Verschueren et al., 2007; Horn & Ward 2004; Mey 2009a; Cummings, 2010).

Pragmatics is no more just a tiny subcomponent of linguistics however a predominant area, really a specialty can be claimed for by itself. It has developed "from a humble beginning at the remote outposts of philosophy and linguistic sophistry ... into a large realm where often differing interpretations and procedures rule" (Mey, 2009). With such an extensive and complex area of study, it would be fair to ask if a comprehensive background for this area could be drafted at all.

Meanwhile, Nerlich and Clarke (1996) have been most influential in pragmatic history. There are multiple issues. First, what is the origin of history and what time is time. Would it concentrate solely on the discipline's origins before it became an accepted area of study or would it devote some four decades to the growth of training. Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914) and Charles Morris (1901-1979) are usually the originators of the word "pragmatics," however the discipline only established themselves as being in the 70s. And secondly, the Pragmatics historical should agree on the

delimitation of the pragmatic sector, such that its different origins are situated at a period whenever the area alone isn't really present.

2.5. Political Language

The reason language policy is concerned with the political field is language disparity among cultures. This may be an acknowledgement of the state and also how language is officially handled. The legal definition of a language in a government, country or other competence as a national language. In particular, it implies that certain government records concerning a nation or territory, and not those which are not, are written in the local language. Proof in a national language can also be required from a court of law. (Patten, 2001). In places one dominant language, judgments that favour one community of speakers against the other often have political consequences, which are often called language policy. Belgium is also a country with such a linguistic strategy.

Ambiguity is a trait of a political language, so it is basic decency. Even so, it must not be developed in a pragma linguistic theory to create the principle of vagueness important for linguistic study. As per political literature ambiguous political language is the key field wherein politicians interacted to the people to inform people of the policies or proposals. Ambiguous exical material, particular use of pronouns, etc. have been placed down to the vague in this region (Gruber, 1993; Lerman, 1985; Jucker, 1986; Wilson, 1990). The reason must, nevertheless, be from the exact reverse way: phrases, pronouns are not ambiguous within themselves and ambiguous by their use in different texts and styles of expression.

The political communication is based upon many factors. It decides to give birth to the specific character of the political language which government and political opinion usually do, never encounter explicitly but instead implicitly, by help of digital press, namely so-called "Doppelung" of German literature (Gruber, 1993) and the so-called "split illocution" by Fill (1986). (Clark and Carlson, 1982). In many other words, politicians directly interact in the media with, for example, a politician or a reporter and at the same time try to persuade public that has little chance of direct contact. Interaction thus requires place between two scales and the speaker will wish to achieve different communication objectives on both of them.

This television strategy has another component. Politicians would not like to deal with suing in their public appearances throughout the situation of just one targeted party, and as many groups as practicable. This implies, however, that multiple messages need to be sent simultaneously to different individuals. It is through various types of informality or vagueness that cohesive claims are generated in these circumstances since different nations of the crowd may want to be unique and contradictory. Therefore, the interaction among politics and the public contributes to this dimension of vagueness and is a unique feature of the contextual condition which is typical of mass communication by mediation.

The practises of face saving are also seen as essential to all relations between humans. (Brown and Levinson, 1987). They also have a decisive role in the political engagement with television. However, for the specific external variables of this speaking category it is important to extend the original definition of the face and included the principle that each politician will have a favourable overall face that argues that his clear picture is reasonable and confident, whose policy proposals and

behaviour better suit the public's desires and expectations than those of the wider populace.

2.6 Spoken Language

A spoken language, instead of a written language, is a formed by sounds. Most languages are not articulated; they are printed instead. Verbal or voice language, as compared to the hand signals which is formed with both the fingers and facets, is a speech signals language. The word "spoken language" often refers only to voice language, particularly by linguists, who synonymize all three words with the exclusion of hand gestures. Someone else call sign language "spoken" particularly in comparison to handwritten sign transcripts. (Brooks and Kempe, 2012).

Most of the interpretation is dependent on the context verbal communication language. This differs with written words, wherein the text provides further context. The reality of the proposal is established in the spoken word by rational thinking of practice, but logical and consistent reasoning is put more importance in common word. Likewise, the word that is spoken is often contextual, such as the interaction between both the speaker and the listener, while written language is often factual. (Tannen, 1982).

The connection among spoken and written languages is complicated. In languages, furthermore, linguists like Prague education claim that both writing and spoken languages have different characteristics that claim against a written language becoming reliant on spoken language because of its existence. (Pinker and Bloom, 1990). Linguists, for example, the spoken and written is the natural ingredient of the language (Aaron and Joshi, 2006).

verbal and signs languages are made of words. Word consists of a small collection of vowel sounds, consonants and sometimes sound in voice languages. Words consist of a small number of forms, guidelines, hand gestures, and sometimes body language in signs languages, and in any situation, phonetic symbols, are considered the basic components. Words are grammatically and pros odiously related in both voice and signs language into sentences, phrases and broader speech units.

Listening kids learn the language surrounding themselves, verbal, cued or signed, as its first language. Deaf people would do the same with Synched Expression or signs languages if they are used to build a visible communication device. Outspoken language is generally introduced to you as the written language to hear kids is to be learned. (Rickerson, 2011).

2.7 Searle`s (1969) Speech Acts

Speech act of Austin's (1962) and Searle's (1969) "How to do things with words?" in which both linguists assert that language " does things" not only S states what is true and what is wrong. Language according to them goes beyond literal meaning of words , For example: If any one says: " It is hot in here". He is not only complaining of hot weather, but actually making " a request " to someone else to do what is conventionally done in hot weather such as: turning on an air conditioning. So, the sentence above performs both literal meaning and illocutionary force or meaning (Paltridge,2006, p.55).

Searle's (1969) speech acts include three types of acts which attributed with our saying of words:

1. Locutionary acts: Acts which express the literal meaning only.

2. Illocutionary acts: Acts which express the intentions within the meaning produced.

3. Perlocutionary acts: Acts which express the resulted effect or the impact of speech on the actions/ thoughts and behavior on others (Paltridge,2006, p.55).

Searle (1976) restricts actions that can be done with utterances into:

1. Representatives: In which the speaker is obliged to bonus the truth of the proposition, such as : concluding or asserting.

2. Directives: These involve the addressee to perform an action uttered by the speaker, such as : requesting or questioning.

3. Commissive: The speaker commit himself to an action in the future , such as: threatening, offering of promising.

4. Expressive: Express a mental actions, such as: apologizing , welcoming , thanking or congratulating.

5. Declarations: These are used to carry out an " immediate changes" to state or affairs, such as: naming, declaring war, or christening.(Levinson,1983, p.240)

2.8 Grice`s (1975) Cooperative Maxims

Grice (1975) holds that an adequate interpretation of interaction needs a kind of " co-operative principles". These principles operate at gearing participants towards the intended interpretation. Grice (1975) in regard to this matter suggests we should aim to make our conversation contribution such as required, at the stage at which it is occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction in the exchange in which it is engaged " (Grice, 1975, p.45).

This engagement takes place mostly within spoken discourse. This co-operation involves four maxims: of quality, relation, quantity and manner.

a. Maxim of quality: saying only what is true or what is supported by an evidence.

b. Maxim of quantity: saying only informative information, no more and no less.

c. Maxim of relation: any participation to interaction should be related.

d. Maxim of manner: saying clear, ordered an unambiguous information (Paltridge, 2006, p. 62).

e. For both spoken and written discourse, it is important to realize the degree of commitment to these maxims. Observing the maxims supplies participants with a great amount of awareness and understanding of interaction (Paltridge, 2006, p.64).

2.9 Conversational Implicature

Implicature means more being communicated than is said. There are two main types of implicature:

1.Conversational Implicature

Conversational implicature refers to "the applications which can be deduced from the form of an

utterance on the basis of certain co-operative principle" (Crystal,2008, p.2380). It exists when a meaning or message is implicated in a conversation . When people over say (or say more of) or under say (say less of) something, they produce certain extra meaning or meanings beyond the literal meanings of words and sentences. This extra meaning is conversationally dependent. An implicature may also be seen as an indirect way of expressing oneself.

2. Conventional Implicature

According to Crystal (2008, p.2380) , conventional implicature is not derived from co-operative principles, but simply attached by convention to particular expressions. In terms of implicatures, conventional meaning is conceptually prior to an implicature. Thus it is a conventional meaning before it can trigger an implicature.

2.10 Observing and Non-observing the Maxims

When the speaker observes all the maxims, there is no pragmatic interest in his interaction (Thomas,1995, p.65). Grice (1989, p.30) indicates that there are four occasions in which speakers do not observe the maxims:

1. Flouting a maxim

According to Grice (1989, p.30), flouting a maxim does not indicate that the speaker aims to deceive his hearer. Instead, he wishes to make the hearer look for an intended meaning of words which is called "conversational implicature". A speaker flouts a maxim when he "blatantly fails to observe a maxim with the deliberate attention of generating an implicature" (Thomas,1995, p.65).

2. Violating a maxim.

Grice (1975, p.49) defines 'violation' as unostentatious non-observance of a maxim.

3. Infringing a maxim.

A speaker infringes a maxim when he has no intention to violate or flout a maxim. It happens due to imperfect linguistic performance as in the speeches of foreign learners and young children.

4. Opting out a maxim.

The speaker opts out a maxim to indicate unwillingness to cooperate in the way the maxim requires. (Thomas, 1995 , p.74). Such type of non-observing the maxims is presented by pauses while interacting or utterances such as:

o   I don`t think I …. .

o   I know it but I cannot give it.

o   Talking about it is not easy.

o   I don`t want to say anymore.

Thomas (1995, p.76) mentions that there are several writers who suggest occasions in which the innterlocutor does not need to opt out a maxim because there is an expectation on the part of the

interlocutors that the speakers will not provide brief information in any case.

3.The Model of the study

Any pragmatic study of tautology must tackle two levels of analysis: surface and deep. Both are interfered to give the output of the tautologies which is the function. The surface layer, of the current study, depends on the different types of linguistic tautology of Moore`s (2001) types to resemble the textual metafunction. The deep layer is the pragmatic aspects that are involved by the linguistic aspects to reach the functions. The involved pragmatic aspects of tautology are Searle`s (1969) classification of speech acts and Grice`s (1975) theory (Cooperative Principles)

4.Data Analysis

This section is intended to analyze the selected data in accordance with the adopted models of analysis. Furthermore, it presents the findings of the study. The data of the study are extracts of the political speech of the previous president of USA Donald Trump.

4.1 Linguistic Analysis of Trump`s Political Speech

According to Moore`s (2001) types of tautology, the analysis of Trump`s political speech shows the following cases of tautologies:

1. "Do you miss me yet? Do you miss me yet?" is an identical contextual redundancy.

2. In the use of "There's so many wonderful friends, conservatives and fellow citizens in this room and all across our country.", there is a pleonasm tautology. The wonderful friends and the conservatives are all fellow citizens. What the speaker mentions is included within "fellow citizens".

3. The repetition of the word "journey" is a contextual redundancy. It is repeated four times in the first paragraph.

4. In the use of "There's never been a journey like it. There's never been a journey so successful.", there is an identical contextual redundancy.

5. In the use of "began" and "started", as in "We began it together four years ago, and it is far from being over. We've just started", there is a contextual redundancy implied by the synonyms.

6. The two clauses "hardest working people" and "hardworking American Patriots" shows a contextual redundancy.

7. The repetition of the clause "we will win" twice resembles contextual redundancy.

8. There is a pleonasm tautology in using "hardest working people" and "American patriots". Hardest people are necessarily patriots.

9. There is a pleonasm tautology in using "the Washington establishment and the powerful, special interests ". "Power" is a feature of the "Washington Establishment", so it is included within the main title.

10. "Thank you/ Thank my..." is an identical contextual redundancy. The word "thank" is repeated

seven times.

11. "All over the world" is repeated two times. It is an identical contextual redundancy.

12. In "Who is watching closely and smiling down on us. He's watching…", there is a contextual redundancy.

13. In "he loves Catherine. /He loved you, Catherine.", there is a contextual redundancy.

14. In "To each and every one of you here at CPAC, I am more grateful to you than you will ever know.", there is a contextual redundancy fulfilled by the synonyms "each" and "every".

15. In "We're gathered this afternoon to talk about the future of our movement, the future of our party, and the future of our beloved country.", there is a contextual redundancy. The clause "the future of our .. " is repeated thrice.

16. There is a pleonasm tautology in the use of "movement" and "party". "Movements" are included in the plans of political parties.

17. In "cancel culture", there is a contextual redundancy, It is repeated twice.

18. In "We're not starting new parties./ I am not starting a new party.", there is a contextual redundancy.

19. In "That was fake news, fake news.", there is a contextual redundancy.

20. There is a repetition of the word "No". It is repeated three times. Such repetition is a contextual redundancy.

21. There is a repetition of the phrase "Let's", as in "Let`s start a new party and let's divide our vote so that you can never win". It is a contextual redundancy.

22. There is a contextual redundancy implied by the synonyms "tremendous/ incredible/ great".

23. In "Mr. McLaughlin just gave me numbers that nobody's ever heard of before, more popular than anybody.", there is a contrary redundancy. "Nobody" and "Anybody" are contrary.

24. In "That's all of us. It's all of us.", there is a contextual redundancy.

25. There is a contextual redundancy in "And I want to thank you".

26. There is a contextual redundancy in "throughout the country, throughout the world".

27. In the use of "united and strong like never before.", there is a pleonasm tautology as unity includes strength.

28. In the use of " We will save and strengthen America.", there is a pleonasm tautology as safety includes strength.

29. In "It all leads to communism once and for all. That's what it leads to. You'll be hearing more and more about that as we go along. But that's what it leads to.", there is a contextual redundancy.

30. There is a contextual redundancy implied by the near synonyms "knew/ imagined".

31. In the use of " We would have those wonderful <u>debates</u>. He would never <u>talk</u> about this. We didn't know what the hell he was <u>talking</u> about actually.", there is antanaclasis tautology. By using two similar clauses, as "He would never <u>talk</u> about this./ We didn't know what the hell he was <u>talking</u> about actually", the addressee is obliged to know more than one meaning. The referent "He" does not talk. The speaker says that he does not know what the referent talk about. Such tautology is a polysemy.

32. In the use of " I thought I said, "This guy actually, he's okay with energy." He wasn't okay with energy", there is a contrary contextual redundancy.

33. In the use of "He wasn't okay with energy", there is a contextual redundancy. It is repeated twice.

34. There is a contextual redundancy in "He wants windmills, the windmills. The windmills that don't work when you need them."

35. There is an identical contextual redundancy in the six uses of "anti", as in "they are anti-jobs, anti-family, anti-borders, anti-energy, anti-women, and anti-science."

36. There is a contrary contextual redundancy in the use "we have gone from America first to America last". "First" and "last" are contrary.

4.2 Pragmatic Analysis of Political Speech

4.2.1 Searle`s (1969) Speech Act Theory in Trump`s Political Speech

According to the SAs of Searle`s (1969) theory, tautologies in Trump`s political speech are pragmatically analyzed as follows:

1. The tautological redundancy "Do you miss me yet? Do you miss me yet?" is a directive act. It implies the indirect illocutionary meaning of longing and close relationship between the leader and his followers.

2. The tautological pleonasm "There's so many wonderful friends, conservatives and fellow citizens in this room and all across our country" is a representative act as the speaker asserts the meaning of abundance.

3. The repetition of the word "journey" reflects an expressive act as the speaker repeats the word four times with the sense of thanking and congratulating.

4. In the use of "began" and "started", as in "We began it together four years ago, and it is far from being over. We've just started", the speaker commits himself to an action in the future. So, it is a commissive act.

5. The use of "hardest working people" and "hardworking American Patriots" is considered as a declarative act, The speaker carries out an immediate change in his view.

6. The repetition of the clause "we will win" reveals a commissive act as the speaker commits

himself to an action in the future.

7. The repetition of "Thank you/ Thank my.." shows an expressive action. The speaker shows his direct thanking to his addressee.

8. The repetition of "All over the world..", as in "They're talking about it all over the world, Matt. I know you don't like that, but that's okay, all over the world.", shows a representative action. The speaker shows assertions to make his addresses implicate illocutionary meaning which is the extraordinary event which is hosted by American Conservative Union.

9. In "I also want to pay my love and respect to the great Rush Limbaugh <u>who is watching</u> closely and smiling down on us. <u>He's watching</u>..", there is an expressive act. The speaker shows his thanking and welcoming to someone. He implicates the illocutionary meaning of the importance of this person in his elections and administration.

10. In "he loves Catherine. /He loved you, Catherine ", there is an expressive act. The speaker shows a mental action of love. He implies an illocutionary meaning that "Rush Limbaugh" is a suitable person for "Catherine".

11. In "To each and every one of you here at CPAC, I am more grateful to you than you will ever know ". There is a contextual redundant fulfilled by the synonyms "each" and "every". It is an expressive act. The speaker expresses his thanking to his addressees, but he implicates an illocutionary meaning that he feels loyalty to his addressees.

12. In "We're gathered this afternoon to talk about the future of our movement, the future of our party, and the future of our beloved country.", the words "the future" is repeated. The context reflects a commissive act since the speaker commits himself to an action in the future.

13. In " the fake news media, and their toxic cancel culture. Something new to our ears, cancel culture ", the contextual redundancy of "cancel culture" shows a representative act. The speaker asserts some knowledge to make the addressee infers the dangers of fake news.

14. In "We're not starting new parties./ I am not starting a new party.", there is a contextual redundancy. It is a commissive act since the speaker promises something in the future.

15. In "That was fake news, fake news.", the a contextual redundancy shows a representative act ,since the speaker asserts a fact.

16. There is a repetition of the word "No". Such repetition reflects a representative act. The speaker asserts the rejection the idea of starting a new party to implicate the insistence on unity in the conservative party.

17. There is a repetition of the phrase "Let's", as in "Let`s start a new party and let's divide our vote so that you can never win". Such redundancy shows there is a commissive act. The speaker challenges and threats his competitor that he will not win anyway.

18. the near synonyms "tremendous/ incredible/ great" show a declarative act. The speaker declares that there are great numbers of voters.

19. In "Mr. McLaughlin just gave me numbers that <u>nobody's</u> ever heard of before, more popular than <u>anybody</u>.", the contrary redundancy. "Nobody" and "Anybody" presents a declarative act as the speaker aims to declare a triumph in the elections, Such attempt of passing a false idea is to attack the results of the elections.

20. In the redundant clause "That's all of us. It's all of us.", there is a representative act as the speaker asserts that the number of supporters is great and he concludes that all of his addressees are included.

21. In the redundant clause "And I want to thank you", there is an expressive act as the speaker aims to imply that the effort paid during the elections is a team effort.

22. In the contextual redundancy "throughout the country, throughout the world", there is an expressive act as the speaker aims to present a holistic thank.

23. In the pleonasm tautology "united and strong like never before.", there is a directive act as the speaker implies an illocutionary meaning involving the addressees to perform an action uttered by him.

24. In the pleonasm " We will save and strengthen America.", there is a commissive act as the speaker implicates an action to be committed in the future.

25. In the redundant expressions "<u>It all leads to</u>", as in "<u>It all leads to</u> communism once and for all. <u>That's what it leads to</u>. You'll be hearing more and more about that as we go along. But that's <u>what it leads to</u>.", there is a commissive act as the speaker threatens to commit himself to an action in the future.

26. In the contextual redundancy implied by the near synonyms "knew/ imagined", as in "You know that. We all knew that the Biden administration was going to be bad. But none of us even imagined just how bad they would be and how far left they would go.", there is a declarative act as the speaker carries out an immediate change in his speech to name Biden`s administration as bad one.

27. In the use of antanaclasis tautology of "debate /talk", as in" We would have those wonderful <u>debates</u>. He would never <u>talk</u> about this. We didn't know what the hell he was <u>talking</u> about actually.", there is a declarative act as the speaker declares that his competitor does not know what he talk about. The speaker aim to implicate an illocutionary meaning that his competitor does not have a strategy.

28. In the contrary contextual redundancy "I thought I said, "This guy actually, he's okay with energy." He wasn't okay with energy.", there is a declarative act as the speaker carries out a sudden change to his view. Such change implicates an illocutionary meaning that his competitor lack adequate strategy in energy.

29. In the contextual redundancy "He wants windmills, the windmills. The windmills that don't work when you need them.", there is a representative act as the speaker asserts a knowledge to implicate that his competitor lacks logical policies to administrate the country.

30. In the identical contextual redundancy in the six uses of "anti", as in "they are anti-jobs, anti-family, anti-borders, anti-energy, anti-women, and anti-science. In just one short month, we have gone from America first to America last. You think about it, right? America last.", there is a directive act as the speaker involves the addressees to perform an action uttered by him. Questioning them to "think about it" is to implicates an illocutionary meaning that his competitor is illogical in his promises.

31. In the contrary contextual redundancy "First" and "last", as in "we have gone from America first to America last", there is a declarative act as the speaker carries an immediate change to the affairs of the country. He implicates the illocutionary meaning that the current administration will destroy the national systems of the country.

4.2.2 Grice`s (1975) Cooperative Principle in Trump`s Political Speech

The main purpose of Grice`s (1975) principle is to investigate cooperation by examining the observance and no-observance of the four maxims. Levinson (1983, p.38-40) states that "tautologies have absolutely no communicative import". Then, he (1983, p.3-40) adds that since the hearers presuppose that the speaker is cooperative, they infer intended meanings. The main violation of tautologies is the non-observance of the quantitative maxim as the repetition leads to such fact. Yet, Levinson (1983) states that tautologies have two levels. The truth condition and the semantic representation. Hence, tautologies exploit the quantitative maxim to prompt the hearer makes implicature.

Accordingly, the exploited maxim in most tautologies is the quantitative maxim. The current analysis focuses on the implicated meaning of such exploitation.

According to Grice`s (1975) cooperative principles , the analysis of tautology in Trump`s political speech shows the following results:

1. In the identical contextual redundancy "Do you miss me yet? Do you miss me yet?", the speaker flouts the quantitative maxim as clashing with the qualitative maxim to make his hearers infer the meaning of strong relation between the speaker and his supporters.

2. In the pleonasm "There's so many wonderful friends, conservatives and fellow citizens in this room and all across our country.", the speaker flouts the quantitative maxim as clashing with the qualitative maxim to make his hearers infer the meaning of strong relation between the speaker and his supporters.

3. The contextual redundancy of "journey" and the near synonyms "incredible" and "successful", as in "I stand before you today to declare that the incredible journey we've begun together, we went through a journey like nobody else. There's never been a journey like it. There's never been a journey so successful." shows a flout of the quantitative maxim to highlight the qualitative maxim. The speaker has no adequate evidence that his journey as a president is true since he fails in the elections, so he flouts the maxim of quantity by tautologies to make his supporters infer intended meanings.

4. In the use of the synonyms "began" and "started", as in "We began it together four years ago, and it is far from being over. We've just started", the speaker blatantly flouts the maxim of quantity to

make his hearers look for implicature as they suppose that their interlocutor is cooperative. They infer the intended meaning of keeping the republic party strong for the next elections.

5. According to the contextual redundancy in "Our movement of proud, hardworking, and you know what? This is the hardest working people, hardworking American Patriots is just getting started ", the speaker flouts the qualitative maxim to make his interlocutors infer a quality which has no clear evidence since they lost the elections.

6. The repetition of the clause "we will wine" twice indicates that the speaker flouts the qualitative maxim to make his interlocutors infer a quality which has no clear evidence since they lost the elections.

7. In the pleonasm tautology "hardest working people" and "American patriots", the speaker suspends the quantitative maxim as there is no expectation on the part of the interactants that the speaker will provide precise information.

8. In the pleonasm tautology in using "the Washington establishment and the powerful, special interests ", the speaker flouts the quality maxim as he has no evidence of his claims. He aims to make his interactants infer an intended meaning which is he and his supporters are the main fighters of America and Biden`s administration cannot stop them.

9. In the identical contextual redundancy "Thank you/ Thank my.." , the word "thank" is repeated seven times. Such redundancy shows that the speaker flout the quantitative maxim to make his interactants implicate the meaning of team effort.

10."All over the world" is repeated two times in "They're talking about it all over the world, Matt. I know you don't like that, but that's okay, all over the world". Such an identical contextual redundancy reveals that the speaker violate the quality maxim as he has no clear evidence about his claim. But, he exploits the maxim to make his interactants infer a hidden meaning which is the wide fame of their effort in the elections.

11. In "Who is watching closely and smiling down on us. He's watching…", the contextual redundancy shows that the speaker exploits the quantitative maxim to make Rush Limbaugh infer that the speaker is interested of his great efforts.

12.In "he loves Catherine. /He loved you, Catherine.", the contextual redundancy flouts the maxim of relevance as the speaker utters an information which is not related to the topic he discusses. Such a flouting of the maxim is as clash with other maxim which is the qualitative maxim since the speaker does not have adequate evidence of his claim.

13.In "To each and every one of you here at CPAC, I am more grateful to you than you will ever know. We're gathered this afternoon to talk about the future of our movement, the future of our party, and the future of our beloved country ", there is more than one contextual redundancy. They show that the speaker flouts the quantitative maxim to make his interactants infer their important role in a team effort.

14.The contextual redundancy "cancel culture" in "For the next four years, the brave Republicans in this room will be at the heart of the effort to oppose the radical Democrats, the fake news media, and

their toxic cancel culture. Something new to our ears, cancel culture." Shows that the speaker blatantly flouts the quantitative maxim to make his interactants implicate an important intended meaning which is the coming danger of the competitive party which seeks to cancel the national culture of the nation.

15.The two cases of redundancies "We're not starting new parties./ I am not starting a new party" and "That was fake news, fake news.", in "We will do what we've done right from the beginning, which is to win. We're not starting new parties. They kept saying, he's going to start a brand new party. We have the Republican party. It's going to unite and be stronger than ever before. I am not starting a new party. That was fake news, fake news." Show that the speaker exploits the quantitative maxim to make his supporters infer an intended meaning that abandon the future fake claims of media about collapsing of the republic party.

16. In the following extract:

"No. Wouldn't that be brilliant? Let's start a new party and let's divide our vote so that you can never win. No, we're not interested in that. No we have tremendous, Mr. McLaughlin just gave me numbers that nobody's ever heard of before, more popular than anybody. That's all of us. It's all of us. Those are great numbers. And I want to thank you very much. Those are incredible numbers. I came here and he was giving me 95%, 97%, 92%. I said, they're great. And I want to thank everybody in this room and everybody all throughout the country, throughout the world, if you want to really know that. Thank you though. Thank you.",

The underlined redundancies show that the speaker flouts the quantitative maxim to make his supporters infer a hidden meaning that they are strong in spite of being out of administration. The supporters must infer such meaning because they believe that the speaker is cooperative and he has no intention to tell lies.

17. In the following extract:

"We will be united and strong like never before. We will save and strengthen America. And we will fight the onslaught of radicalism, socialism, and indeed it all leads to communism once and for all. That's what it leads to. You'll be hearing more and more about that as we go along. But that's what it leads to. You know that. We all knew that the Biden administration was going to be bad. But none of us even imagined just how bad they would be and how far left they would go. He never talked about this. We would have those wonderful debates. He would never talk about this. We didn't know what the hell he was talking about actually.",

The several tautologies, depicted by the underlined redundancies, pleonasms, and antanaclasis, show that the speaker exploits the quantitative maxim to make his supporters infer an intended meaning which is their reliability to role the country in spite of the loss in the elections.

18.In the use of "His campaign was all lies. Talked about energy, I thought I said, "This guy actually, he's okay with energy." He wasn't okay with energy. He wants to put you all out of business. He's not okay with energy. He wants windmills, the windmills. The windmills that don't work when you need them", the several underlined tautologies show that the speaker exploits the quantitative maxim as a clash with the qualitative maxim. He wants his supporters to infer that Biden

lack adequate policies, but he does not have adequate evidences to support his claims.

19. The identical contextual redundancy in the six uses of "anti", as in "they are anti-jobs, anti-family, anti-borders, anti-energy, anti-women, and anti-science.", show that the speaker exploits the quantitative maxim to make this.

4.3 Statistical Analysis

4.3.1 Statistical Analysis of Moor`s (2010) Types of Tautologies in the Selected Political Speeches

Analyzing the types of tautology in the selected speech results the following findings:

1. In Trump`s political speech, the total observed types of tautology is (36). The most frequent type is contextual redundancy. It occurs (39) times and amounts (80.0%). The most prominent contextual redundancy is the identical one which occurs (26) times and amounts (72.2%), and the contrary type occurs (3) times and amounts (4.7%). The second most frequent type of tautology is pleonasm. It occurs (6) times and amounts (16.6%). Antanaclasis type occurs only one time and amounts (2.7%). Finally, paronomasia type does not occur at all.

The findings are presented in table 4.1 and figure 4.1 below:

Table 1 Types of Tautologies in Trump`s Speech

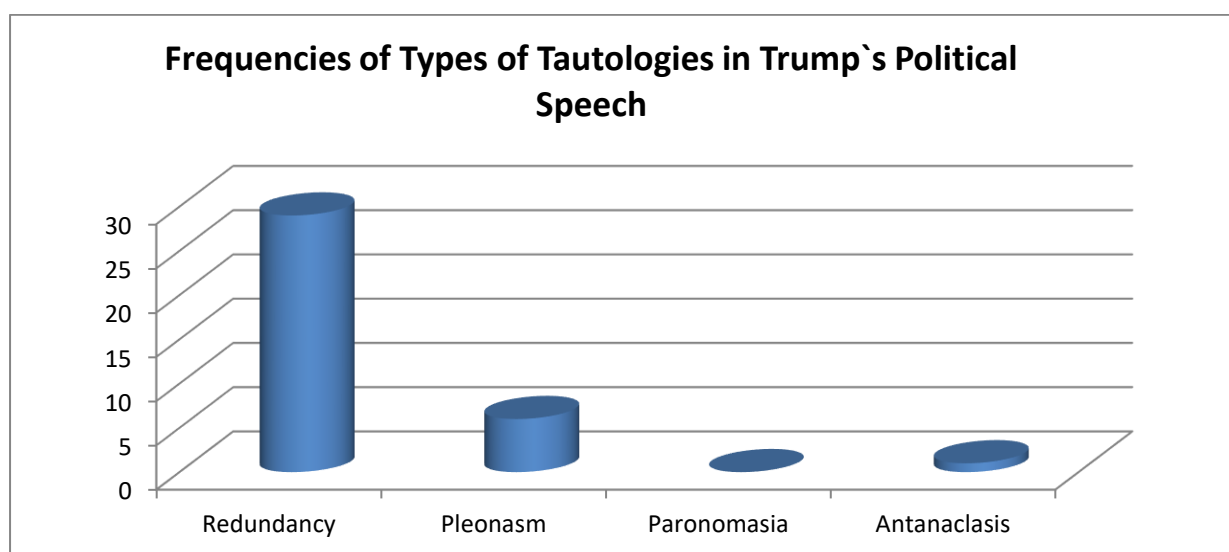| Types of Tautology		Frequency	Percentage
Redundancy	Identical	26	72.2 %
	Contrary	3	4.7 %
Pleonasm		6	16.6 %
Paronomasia		-	0.0 %
Antanaclasis		1	2.7 %
Total		36	100 %

Figure 1: Frequencies of Types of Tautologies in Trump`s Political Speech

4.3.2 Statistical Analysis of Speech Acts of Tautologies

Analyzing the speech acts of tautologies in the selected speech results the following findings:

1. In Trump`s political speech, the total observed SAs in tautologies is (31). Representative act, expressive act, commissive act and declarative act are similar in their occurrence. They occur (7) times each and amounts (22.5%) each. The directive act occurs (3) times each and amount (9.6%).

The findings are presented in table 4.7 and figure 4.7 below:

Table 2 : Speech Acts of Tautologies in Trump`s Political Speeches

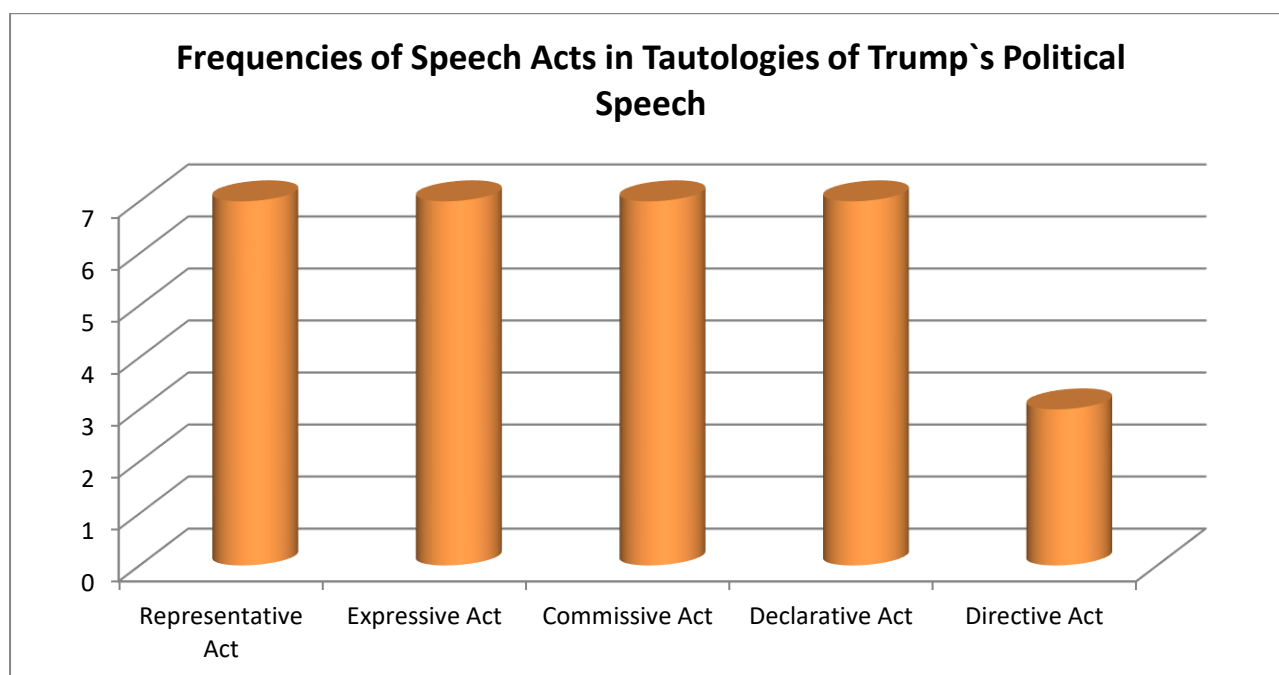| Speech Acts	Frequency	Percentage
Representative Act	7	22.5 %
Expressive Act	7	22.5 %
Commissive Act	7	22.5 %
Declarative Act	7	22.5 %
Directive Act	3	9.6 %
Total	31	100 %

Figure 2: Frequencies of Speech Acts in Tautologies of Trump`s Political Speeches

5. Conclusions

Conclusions of the study are based on the findings that are obtained when answering the research questions as the main hypotheses of the study. The main conclusions are the following:

Concerning the first question that the study aimed to answer (RQ1: What are the most prominent linguistic structural types of tautologies in the political speech selected for the study of pragmatic aspects of tautologies in political discourse ?), the adopted types of tautology in the study are:

redundancy, pleonasm, antanaclasis, and paronomasia. The study finds that redundancy is the most prominent type of tautology in the selected political speech.

Redundancy is of two types: identical and contrary. The identical is the repetition of the same words or phrases, while the contrary is the repetition of two or more contrary words. The statistical analysis proves that the most prominent type of redundancy is identical one.

Pleonasm is the semantic repetition of the same meaning which contained elsewhere.. It occupies the second rank in the use of tautologies in the political speech selected in the current study. Repeating the same meaning in different words or phrases that are preceded or followed enhances the ideas intended to be messaged.

Antanaclasis occurs only one time. It depends on polysemy. Polysemy is two or more different meanings obtained by the use of the same word. Such use may confuse the addressee who finds it difficult to receive the semantic message that the speaker intends to deliver, so antanaclasis is partially absent from the selected political discourse.

Concerning the second question that the study aimed to answer (RQ2: What are the most adequate pragmatic theories that can be best used to the analysis of the pragmatic functions of tautologies of political discourse ?), the study proves pragmatically and statistically that, Searle`s (1969) speech acts and Grice`s (1975cooperative principles are best used to analyzing the pragmatic aspects in tautologies of the political speech.

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