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STRUCTURAL TYPOLOGY OF REDUNDANCY IN ENGLISH

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Abstract: This article focuses on the study of structural types of redundant phrases in English. The paper offers a definition of redundancy and examines types of redundancy from their structural perspective. The research outlines specific usage of redundant phrases in modern English. It has been shown that functional redundancies create emotional tension and are used to intensify or clarify information.

Key words: redundancy, emotional tension, reduplication, core semantic component, coordination, subordination.

1. Introduction

Language redundancy is the repetition of the same information, which occurs both explicitly and implicitly. The excess has been attributed to reasons of linguistic and non-linguistic character. These reasons depend not only on the content plane, but also on the expression plane, which aims for the clarity and expressiveness of the message. The main drivers of redundancy are the author's desire to add emotional colour to speech, the mental state of the addressee, his / her pragmatic intentions, social status and the level of education (Kashefi et al. 2018; Wierzbicka 1987). Redundancy is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, widely represented both in language and in speech (Benczes 2014). We study language redundancy due to the fact that linguists started interpreting it more as a functional phenomenon (Зайц 2001; Иевлева 2000).

Language redundancy can be functional and non-functional. Functionally oriented speech elements are introduced by the addressee in the statement purposefully. Their purpose is to convey connotative information for a certain pragmatic effect on the recipient (Lehmann 2005). Non-functional redundancy is created by language elements that do not convey either basic or connotative information (Ефимов 1989).

Therefore, tautology and pleonasm are two kinds of redundancy. Both deal with the syntagmatic combination of two expressions such that the meaning of one includes the meaning of the other (Lehmann 2005). Tautology consists of two-component phrases, their redundancy being expressed lexically with the help of identical words. Full synonymy is crucial to the distinction of tautology from pleonasm. Pleonasms (pleonastic phrases) are separate words or two-component phrases, where redundancy is expressed grammatically and lexically with the help of semantically similar words. Reduplication manifests itself in duplication of: 1) lexemes, for example: *VIP-person – 'Very Important Person person'*, PIN-number – *'Personal Identification Number number'*; 2) grammatical forms, for example: *more easier, seldomly* (hypercharacterization); 3) partial synonymy of components, for example: *beautiful and gorgeous, significant and important* (stylistic pleonasm) (Літкович et al. 2019).

Researching linguistic manipulation devices in mass media texts (Кара-Мурза 2005) with a clearly defined author's intention and practical orientation is relevant within the framework of pragmatic research in media discourse. In this regard, the analysis of structural peculiarities of redundancy in contemporary English is intended to facilitate the disclosure of text-making and text-perception processes.

As the material under analysis shows, a media discourse combines a range of pragmatic effects on the reader, the involvement of which allows authors to influence the audience (Потапенко 2007; Erofeeva & Ushnikova 2017; Panasenko et al. 2018). Redundancy is distinguished by its structure and semantics, so this article deals with the construction of a structural typology of redundancy in the English language.

2. Materials and methods

As far as redundancy is concerned, the focus is on selected media articles containing redundant phrases. In this work, 100 redundant phrases were analyzed with the help of qualitative and quantitative content analyses, and 32 of them were researched comprehensively. In total, ten collections of magazines (*The New York Times, The Los Angeles Times, The Guardian, The Independent, The Daily Mail, The Age, The Sydney Morning Herald, The Irish Times, The London Evening Standard, The Associated Press*) and chats on the Internet were used.

The importance of the **topic** of our article is determined by the focus of modern linguistic research on the study of language dynamics, a general tendency of modern linguistics to study the functioning of speech units, in particular of redundant phrases that indicate the author's intention to influence his / her audience. We explored redundant phrases that are used to intensify information and produce a pragmatic effect on the addressee. As the research material were chosen media texts, because they are more likely to record numerous changes in linguistic reality, and, therefore, describe the current state of natural language (Добросклонская 2007; Потапенко 2007).

Media discourse is seen as both the process and the result of media activity dealing with production, storage, distribution, and consumption of semiotized information (Graham 2004: 54). The varieties of media discourse are newspaper, cinema, television, and radio discourses (Почепцов 1999: 76-99). Media texts constitute one of the most widespread forms of modern everyday language, and their number exceeds the total volume of broadcasting in different spheres of human activity (Потапенко 2007: 21). The influence function of media is realized through a wide range of linguistic and stylistic means of expression, in particular redundant phrases.

Redundancy is associated with both linguistic and psychological characteristics. The use of redundant phrases deals with attracting attention and mobilizing the memory of recipients, which improves text perception. Some types of redundant phrases provide

additional information about a referent, thereby increasing the informativeness of the media texts featuring them. We claim that redundancy performs the following stylistic functions in media texts: emphatic, emotive, and evaluative. The emphatic function is to draw the addressee's attention to specific information, often enclosed within an individual phrase or a word (Сущинский 1987: 111):

(1) "*I believe he began with the Toll House recipe, which is in itself perfection. But then he gilded the perfection with a handful of extra steps. So I guess the recipe is <u>perfecter</u> than perfect*" (Neman 2019).

The word *perfect* has in its meaning a comparative and superlative degree – 'as good as possible, or the best of its kind' (LDCE). The author uses the incorrect form, adding the suffix *-er*, to emphasize a portion of the utterance, thereby creating semantic redundancy. In the example above, using the redundancy *perfecter*, the addresser describes the columnist's recipe as the best. The redundancy helps the author to accentuate the excellence of the cookies.

Redundant derivatives increase emphatic stress on a particular word, attracting the addressee's attention, for example:

(2) "*Americans are historically extremely litigious and it's their way of dealing with things. We do it differently, especially members of the royal family who historically have very <u>seldomly</u> sued because it's just more attention on them*" (Murphy & Waterson 2019).

In example (2), the Duke of Sussex adds the suffix *-ly* to the word *seldom*. This suffix is used in English to create adverbs, whereas the word *seldom* is an adverb itself and does not need any suffix. Thus, it creates redundancy and increases the expressiveness of this word and the whole utterance. Prince Harry announces that he wants to sue

against the Sun and the Daily Mirror. He emphasizes the fact that members of the royal family have never taken legal action against tabloids.

The emotional function (Гнезділова 2007), through carefully selected redundant phrases, is responsible for adding emotionality and expressiveness. In other words, this function leads to the deliberate creation of emotional effects of communication, for example:

(3) "*Demolition of a 1960s tower block at Wynyard has delivered an <u>unexpected surprise</u>, the advertising facade of a gentleman's department store that was once a landmark of George Street*" (Siewert 2017).

In this example, the emotional function is manifested by the redundant phrase *unexpected surprise* intended to influence the addressee. Due to demolition work, people were extremely surprised by the most legendary advertising campaign of the last century. The emotionality is indicated by the affective language.

Evaluation is defined as a conscious activity, which leads to the formation of a positive or negative attitude towards the object being evaluated. Evaluation manifests itself in two main types of opposition: qualitative (good :: bad) and quantitative (many :: few; much :: little) (Вольф 2014). Evaluation incorporates the addresser's attitude and is characterized by national and cultural characteristics (Артемова 2006). In the example given below, the redundant phrase *humble and modest* expands the expressive potential of praise and intensifies the positive evaluations expressed in the utterance, for example:

(4) "*Because he was a <u>humble and modest</u> man, Carney didn't talk about baby records or an earlier part of his life when records were kept on his Hall of Fame Gaelic football career as a young man in Ireland where he is considered a legendary hero akin to Willie Mays or Babe Ruth in American baseball*" (Archbold 2019).

The present analysis of redundant English phrases includes four stages:

a) selection of material for linguistic investigation through the sampling of lexical units in media texts published over the last five years;

b) description of typical redundancy patterns in the English language;

c) implementation of structural analysis to identify structural types of redundant phrases;

d) linguistic interpretation and generalization of the research findings.

3. Structural types of redundant phrases

According to the criterion of syntactic relations between components in a phrase, linguists differentiate between coordination and subordination. Some linguists have extended the two-member opposition and introduced a third type of syntagmatic relations – predicative (Бархударов 2012: 95) or "sociative predicative" (Мухин 2004: 25). The term "predicative" conveys information that the relation between the elements must correspond to the relation between the subject and the predicate (Иванова et al. 1981: 114). The relation between the two elements can, therefore, be of three types: 1) both elements are relatively independent of each other (which corresponds to our term *coordination*); 2) the first element depends on the second one with the second element independent of the first one (which is obviously synonymous to *subordination*); 3) the first element depends on the second one and the second element, in turn, depends on the first one. So, the elements are *interdependent* (Ельмслев 2006). Thus, the syntactic relations "coordination – subordination – interdependence" are more specific. Coordination and subordination do not signal the syntactic function of the constituent elements, but only indicate their interrelation status. All the three types of relations determine the status of the elements that form a number of syntactic relations with regard to one another (Иванова et al. 1981: 115).

According to the criterion of syntactic relations between components of a clause, redundant phrases are divided into subordinate, where one of the components

dominates over the rest, and coordinate, which consist of relatively independent elements. A structural typology of redundant phrases is demonstrated in Figure 1.
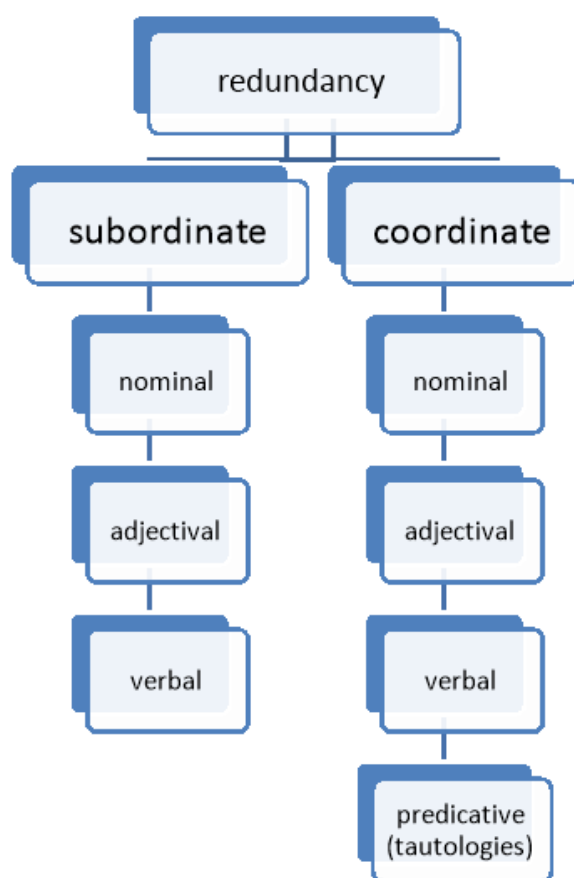

Figure 1. Structural typology of redundant phrases (Літкович 2014: 163)

4. Subordinate redundant phrases

Subordinate redundant phrases are based on inequality of components. Elements of a redundant phrase are combined in such a way that one dominates the others and subordinates them in terms of form and position. The dominant unit is referred to as the core semantic component, or the nucleus, of a subordinate redundant phrase and can be expressed by different parts of speech (Літкович 2014). The core semantic component of a subordinate redundant phrase is also characterized by its own features that permit its identification. In linguistics, there are no formal grammatical criteria for identification of the core semantic component of a subordinate word-group. The core of the subordinate word-group, however, can be easily recognized due to the identified syntactic links of the dependent components. The core component is an element whose

syntactic function remains unidentified at this level of analysis (Иванова et al. 1981: 120-121). Thus, in the redundant phrase *extremely essential* the syntactic function of the adverb *extremely* can be identified as that of an adverbial modifier, whereas the function of the adjective *essential* remains unidentified within the given phrase. So, it allows us to label the adjective *essential* as the core of this word-group. With new components added to the phrase, the nucleus is shifted because it is impossible to identify its syntactic function. Thus, in the phrase *extremely essential skills*, the adverb *extremely* is identified as an adverbial modifier; the adjective *essential* performs the function of an attribute, and the syntactic role of the noun *skills* within this phrase cannot be identified, which implies that it is the core of the word-group.

The proposed process of identification of the nucleus according to formal grammatical criteria makes it possible to reach two important conclusions. Firstly, identification of the syntactic function of dependent components within a redundant phrase indicates the presence of subordinate relations in a word-group. Secondly, if it is impossible to identify the syntactic function of the component, this signals its dominant position and allows it to be recognized as a nucleus. The core and dependent components are identified inside a word-group. In the English language, subordinate redundant phrases are more widely used than coordinate ones.

Thus, there are three structural types of subordinate redundant phrases according to the morphological status of the core semantic component, namely:
1) nominal, with a noun being its core semantic component;
2) adjectival, with an adjective being its core semantic component;
3) verbal, with a verb being its core semantic component.

4.1 Nominal phrases

Several types of nominal redundant phrases are distinguished according to the morphological status of the core semantic component. They are represented by the following structural patterns:

1) noun: "noun + noun" (*N + N*); "acronym + noun" (*Acronym + N*);

2) noun – preposition – noun: "noun + preposition + noun" (*N + prep. + N*);

3) adjective – noun: "adjective + noun" (*Adj. + N*); "acronym + adjective + noun" (*Acronym + Adj. + N*).

According to these two- and three-component patterns, redundant phrases are analyzed in the form of free phrases.

In accordance with the pattern "noun + noun" (*N + N*), the following redundant phrases with the first noun performing the attributive function are created: *summer season*, *time period*. The core semantic components of the redundant phrases *summer season* and *time period* are the first components *summer* and *time* because they do not subordinate to any other component within the phrase. A special feature of the English language that distinguishes it from other Indo-European languages is the ability of the noun to perform the function of a prepositional attribute (Иванова et al. 1981: 29), which we observe in the following pattern of a redundant phrase:

(5) "*It's September 1957, and the town is almost empty after the <u>summer season</u>, leaving the newlyweds feeling a little awkward*" (Carey 2019).

The pattern (*N + N*) is an attributive subordinate redundant phrase. According to this pattern, a phrase consists of words of one morphological class and can combine nouns of different groups and different semantic fields, creating subordination. Thus, in the redundant phrase *summer season* the first component means a specific season and the second component is a generalized name for the main periods which the year is divided into. The words in the phrase are in hyper-hyponymic relations, where *season* is a hypernym and *summer* is a hyponym. Redundant in this phrase is the hypernym *season*, while the hyponym *summer* is the nucleus.

According to the noun – preposition pattern "noun + preposition + noun" (*N + prep. + N*) are formed such redundant phrases as *period of time*, where the preposition *of*

indicates the attributive relations between the words. The noun *period* refers to a part of the concept, whereas the noun *time* refers to the whole concept. The components of the redundant phrase *period of time* are related to each other as part – whole (part – whole relations):

(6) "*They have the same end game, which is that you are sequestered from the rest of the public for a <u>period of time</u>, said Dr. George Rutherford, an infectious disease specialist at the UC San Francisco School of Medicine*" (Netburn 2020).

The next pattern is adjective – noun "adjective + noun" (*Adj. + N*), for example: *absolute beginning*, *absolute end*, *advance warning*, *advance planning*, *advance reservations*, etc., where the adjective performs an attributive function and denotes the object feature, for example:

(7) "*IDA Ireland may seek <u>advance planning</u> permission for future data centres to avoid disputes like the one that delayed Apple's proposal for Athenry, Co Galway*" (O'Halloran 2017).

The dependent components of such redundant phrases are adjectives, while the core semantic components are common nouns, which more often denote lifeless things (*empty space*) and less often – living beings (*chief / main protagonist*).

The noun pattern "acronym + noun" (*Acronym + N*) is most frequently used, for example: *HIV virus*, *LCD display*, *OPEC countries*, *PAT testing*, *PIN number*, *SALT talks*, etc. Thus, the acronym *HIV* itself is a component of the phrase *HIV virus*, which absorbs the meaning of all its components (words that make up the acronym Human Immunodeficiency Virus). It is perceived as a specific, dependent, attributive component of the phrase, and the component *virus* is perceived as the nucleus. In fact, in the word combination *HIV virus* the component *virus* is an additional, structurally

and semantically redundant, component. Its purpose is to facilitate the understanding of the semantics of the acronym, for example:

(8) "*A man who was injected with the <u>HIV virus</u> as an infant child by his father has defied the expectations of doctors to live to the age of 25, and says he is healthy as a horse*" (Samuels 2016).

The adjective – noun pattern has the structure *Acronym + Adj. + N* ("acronym + adjective + noun"). The pattern is represented by three-component redundant phrases such as the *MS-DOS operating system* type, for example:

(9) "*The <u>MS-DOS operating system</u> now classes as ancient history in the tech world*" (Humphries 2016).

The redundancy in the noun and noun-adjective patterns (*Acronym + N*), (*Acronym + Adj. + N*) becomes evident only after the acronym expansion: *DOS operating system – 'Disk <u>Operating System operating system</u>', LCD display – 'Liquid-Crystal <u>Display display</u>', PIN number – 'Personal Identification <u>Number number</u>'*. Redundant acronyms as initial abbreviations that coincide graphically and acoustically with fixed phrases in the language (Дубенец 2002: 58-64) include: *SALT talks – 'Strategic Arms Limitation Talks talks', HAND day – 'Have a Nice Day day'*.

These new units are full homonyms of the words *salt* and *hand* and they should be distinguished from other acronyms because they have their own independent lexical meaning.

The assimilation of acronyms is particularly noticeable in a group called *RAP – Redundant Acronym Phrase* (Жукова & Котов 2006). These acronyms include, amongst others, *PIN number*, *VIP person*, and *CD disc*, where the lexemes *number*, *person*, and *disc* overlap the last component of the abbreviation. Here are some other

examples of redundant phrases contained in acronyms: *MAC conference – 'Mid-American <u>Conference conference</u>', GPS system – 'Global Positioning <u>System system</u>', LAN network – 'Local Area <u>Network network</u>', ATM machine – 'Automated Teller Machine machine', ISBN number – 'International Standard Book <u>Number number</u>', CNN network – 'Cable News <u>Network network</u>', DAT tape – 'Digital <u>Audiotape tape</u>', USP code – 'Universal Product <u>Code code</u>'*, etc.

There are also dual decoding examples of redundant abbreviations where two components of an acronym are duplicated: *personal PIN number*. This dual decoding phenomenon of redundant abbreviations has been called a syndrome: *RAS (Redundant Acronym Syndrome) syndrome* or *PINS (PIN Number Syndrome) syndrome* (ibid.). It is worth noting that creation of acronyms is a solution for overloaded term combinations because the expanded form is difficult to perceive.

Moreover, the main function of acronyms is economy of speech and written text. Pronounced abbreviations are approximately five times shorter in sounding than the corresponding full phrases and in written texts the economy can be even greater. The necessity to save linguistic resources and language efforts is conditioned by the constraints of human cognitive processing and communication. An acronym reduces the material side of communicative units, in particular redundant phrases, and more quickly conveys information from the sender to the receiver. In addition to saving time and speech efforts for the speaker, acronyms are also means of concentrating information (Літкович et al. 2019).

Consequently, nominal subordinate redundant phrases are represented by five patterns. They are frequent and diverse. The use of redundant phrases is pragmatically determined by media discourse. Therefore, the reason for the appearance of redundant acronyms is saving space, time, and speech efforts of the speaker. The use of redundant abbreviations can be justified when they help to understand a statement faster and / or

more clearly as well as to avoid ambiguity (Літкович 2014). The phrase *DVD disc* denotes a disc itself, not the DVD player or compact disc player.

4.2 Adjectival phrases

Adjectival subordinate redundant phrases consist of two components with a core semantic component – the adjective. They can be represented by the following patterns:

1) adjective: "adjective + adjective" (*Adj. + Adj.*);

2) adverb – adjective: "adverb + adjective" (*Adv. + Adj.*);

3) noun – preposition – adjective: "noun + preposition + adjective" (*N + prep. + Adj.*), (*N + prep. (art.) + Adj.*).

According to the adjective pattern (*Adj. + Adj.*), both components of a redundant phrase denote an object feature and perform an attributive function:

(10) "*A young woman was burnt in the face with <u>boiling hot</u> water outside a bar amid fears of a fresh acid attack*" (Gillet 2017).

According to the adverb – adjective pattern (*Adv. + Adj.*), the following redundant phrases appeared: *absolutely necessary, absolutely sure, perfectly legitimate*, etc., for example:

(11) "*A government decree urged the country's famously demonstrative citizens to stay at least 1 meter (3 feet) apart from each other, restricted visits to nursing homes and urged the elderly not to go outside unless <u>absolutely necessary</u>*" (Sedensky & Leicester 2020).

The relation between the synonymic components is subordinate in this sort of redundant phrases. Semantic intensity focuses firstly on the core semantic component of the phrase – the adjective *necessary* – and then intensifies the adjective *absolutely*.

The noun – preposition – adjective pattern (*N + prep. (art.) + Adj.*) is represented by redundant phrases such as *variety of different*, *widow of the late*, etc.:

(12) "*Numerous other research groups are attempting to make vaccines against COVID-19 using a <u>variety of different</u> methods in hopes at least one will offer protection*" (Rahhal 2020).

A redundant phrase may be complicated by the expansion of a dependent component or the use of periphrasis and fixed phrases in the position of the signified as the first component of the phrase. Redundant phrases may consist of two and also three or more components. Thus, redundant phrases can be complicated by expansion of the dependent component with the Participle II (*repeated redundancies*, *staged scenario*, *unmarried old maid*, *surrounded on all sides*) and synonymous adjectives (*freezing cold ice*).

Consequently, adjectival subordinate redundant phrases are represented in modern English-language media discourse by three main patterns. Typically, in a statement they perform the function of attributes and may be complicated by the expansion of the dependent adjective. The use of adjectival redundant phrases may be justified when a linguist, for some objective or subjective reasons, clarifies and explains something. In redundant phrases, one component adds shades of meaning to the other, specifying certain attributes or explaining them (Літкович 2014).

4.3 Verbal phrases

In verbal redundant phrases, the core semantic component is the verb. Such phrases can be represented by two patterns:

1) verb – adverb: "verb + adverb" (*V + Adv.*);

2) verb – noun: "verb + noun" (*V + N*).

According to the verb – adverb pattern (*V + Adv.*), the following redundant phrases are formed: *to sink down*, *to mix together*, etc. In such phrases, the adverbs most often indicate direction of motion and overlap the semantics of the core semantic component. Some scholars (Амосова 2010: 35; Аничков 1961: 229) agree that the words *up*, *down*, *in*, *out* are postpositions that belong to structural parts of speech and do not have their own lexical meaning but only add extra nuances to the meaning of other words. Amosova (Амосова 2010) distinguishes three types of postpositions: 1) with the meaning of direction, 2) with aspective meaning, 3) with the meaning of intensification. However, the second elements of the verb – adverb group that she calls postpositives (*in*, *out*, *up*, *away*, etc.) are different from the other three groups because they can convey the meaning of direction independently and act as clarifying components (*He went up to his room*). Due to this fact, they become closer to adverbs. Other scholars variously interpret the lexical-grammatical nature of these components, referring them to adverbs (Смирницкий 2007: 159; Palmer 1988: 96), derivational affixes (Жлуктенко 1953: 12) and even special lexical elements that occupy an intermediate position between words and morphemes (Ilyish 1971: 153; Khaimovich & Rogovskaya 1967: 171).

The elements such as *up*, *out*, etc. can be considered adverbs only if they convey the meaning of direction. When the components are used to convey the aspective meaning of an action (*to eat up*) indicating its completeness or change the meaning of the verb (*to break – to break out*), these components are postpositives and they are not redundant (Смирницкий 2007: 162). Following Ivanova, Burlakova, and Pocheptsov (Иванова et al. 1981: 128), we consider that postpositives belong to adverbs. In redundant phrases, adverbs perform the function of clarifying and intensifying the meaning of the core semantic component – the verb. Indeed, pointing the direction, redundant phrases convey their own lexical meaning, for example:

(13) "*Before that wet concrete was leveled and smoothed, before it was pumped to the top of the building, before it was <u>mixed together</u> at a plant near Vernon, it started out as cement powder, water, sand and grave*l" (Koren 2017).

The verb – noun pattern (*V + N*) consists of a core semantic verb and is duplicated by a noun whose meaning is already included in / implied by the verb, for example: *to ask a question*, *to shrug one's shoulders*, *to present a gift*, and so on. The phrase *to ask a question* is easily recognized as redundant because the verb *to ask* already includes the seme *question* 'to say something to somebody in the form of a question, because you want to know the answer' (CALED). The verb – noun pattern can be extended by using the construction with a possessive pronoun and an adjective that precede the noun (*with (to) one's own*): *to see with one's own eyes*, *to hear with one's own ears*, *to rise to one's own feet*.

(14) "*After connecting on his sixth 3-pointer of the night, which he swished over his defender Cliff Robinson, Jordan turned to the scorer's table and shook his head three times. Then, as he jogged back down the court, he employed a simple <u>shrug of his shoulders</u>*" (Dodson 2017).

In example (14), the phrase *to shrug one's shoulders* is redundant because the seme *shoulders* is included in the meaning of the verb *to shrug* – 'to raise and then lower your shoulders in order to show that you do not know something or do not care about something' (LDCE).

(15) "*All continents are <u>surrounded on all sides</u> by water, so the same question could be asked of Africa, South America or Eurasia*" (Campbell 2018).

In example (15), the phrase *surrounded on all sides* is a redundant phrase because the seme 'to be around someone or something' is included in the meaning of the verb *to*

surround. The semantic intensity focuses on the core semantic component *surrounded* and then it is intensified by the noun group *on all sides*.

5. Coordinate redundant phrases

Coordinate redundant phrases are word combinations that consist of relatively independent elements and are joined by a conjunction. Elements of a redundant phrase are joined by the conjunction *and*, and occupy fixed positions in reference to each other: *peace and quiet – *quiet and peace*. These word combinations become terms. However, in media discourse they lose the status of terms, becoming ordinary word combinations. In this case, determinologization generates their emotive meaning (Русанівський 1988: 175).

Structural types of coordinate redundant phrases are distinguished by both elements belonging to a particular part of speech, namely the noun, the adjective, and the verb. We suggest that there are four structural types of coordinate redundant phrases, namely: 1) nominal, 2) adjectival, 3) verbal, and 4) predicative.

5.1 Nominal phrases

Nominal coordinate redundant phrases are represented by two patterns:

1) noun: "noun + conjunction + noun" ($N + conj. + N$);

2) adjective – noun: "adjective + noun + conjunction + noun" ($Adj. + N + conj. + N$).

Noun structures are based on the coordinate relations where nouns of one semantic field are combined and components are equal in their syntactic rank: *peace and quiet*, *bits and pieces*, *last will and testament*, *ways and means*, *hopes and aspirations*, etc. The pattern $N + conj. + N$ is represented by redundant phrases, where two nouns are incomplete repetitions of synonymous components, for example:

(16) "*In these loud times — with political foes yelling on television, trucks rumbling through streets, and smartphones chirping all around — who doesn't want a little <u>peace and quiet?</u>*" (Bidgood 2018).

In the example above the phrase *peace and quiet* is redundant because the word *peace* means 'no noise, interruptions' (LDCE), and the word *quiet* means 'not making much noise' (ibid.). So the components of the redundant phrase are duplicated. Here is another example:

(17) "*While they were doing that, Ms Waters packed an overnight bag for her mother and included familiar <u>bits and pieces</u> from her bedroom*" (Pope 2020).

In example (17), the word combination *bits and pieces* is redundant since the seme 'piece' is included in the meaning of the word *bit* – 'a small piece of something' (LDCE). This redundant phrase does not allow the permutation of the components **pieces and bits*.

The adjective – noun pattern *Adj. + N + conj. + N* is represented by redundant phrases like *last will and testament*, for example:

(18) "*In these circumstances, the will should still be valid, provided the testator intended that the mark or the signature was meant to attest that this was their <u>last will and testament</u>*" (Morgan-Gould 2016).

In this example, the redundant phrase *last will and testament* is a fixed phrase. The components of the redundant phrase are duplicated and complement each other. According to Collins Advanced Learner's English Dictionary, this word combination means 'the most recent will that they have done, especially the last will that they do before they die' (CALED). The replacement of the components of the redundant phrase *last will and testament* is impossible – **testament and last will*.

Consequently, nominal coordinate redundant phrases do not have a core semantic component and are represented by a noun coordinate pattern and an adjective-noun coordinate pattern. The components of the redundant phrase are based on equal relations where both are interconnected and do not allow component rearrangements.

5.2 Adjectival phrases

Adjectival coordinate redundant phrases are represented by one adjective pattern: "adjective + conjunction + adjective" *(Adj. + conj. + Adj.)*. Two components out of three are qualitative adjectives. These qualitative adjectives are synonymous and are joined together into free collocations that denote an object feature. Adjective structures are based on the coordinate relations where adjectives of one semantic field are combined and components are syntactically equal but they are not identical: *the same and identical*, *unique and exceptional*, *sly and deceitful*, *useless and unnecessary*, *wordy and verbose*, *full and complete*, *necessary and desirable*, etc., for example:

(19) "*Over the past month Donald Trump has given us fresh reminders of the <u>unique and exceptional</u> ways he corrupts American life*" (Brooks 2019).

The connection between the elements of these phrases is coordinative. The attributive relations between the components of the redundant phrase and the signified are successive. Here are some examples where redundant phrases intensify the emotionality of the statement:

(20) "*The retired detective who brought Soham murderer Ian Huntley to justice has branded him a 'manipulative, <u>cunning and deceitful</u>' paedophile who should 'die in jail'[...]*" (Burrows 2018).

In example (20), the phrase *cunning and deceitful* is redundant because components duplicate the meaning of each other. Since the adjective *cunning* is defined as 'clever

and good at deceiving people' (LDCE), the seme 'deceive' is already included in the meaning of the word *cunning*.

(21) "*Here are 20 luxury car features that are completely <u>useless and unnecessary</u>*" (Barclay 2020).

The above-mentioned word combination *useless and unnecessary* is redundant. Both components of the phrase are synonymous qualitative adjectives that duplicate each other's meaning and intensify the emotionality of the utterance.

Consequently, adjectival coordinate redundant phrases are scarce and they are represented by only one pattern. The components of the redundant phrase are synonymous qualitative adjectives that intensify the emotionality of the utterance.

5.3 Verbal phrases

Verbal coordinate redundant phrases are represented by one verbal pattern: "verb + preposition + verb" *(V + prep. + V)*. This group includes redundant phrases like *to give and bequeath*, *to have and hold*, *to cease and desist*, *to authorize and direct*, *to aid and abet*, etc.:

(22) "*I do <u>give and bequeath</u> to my niece, Valorie Jean (Neal) White, all of my personal effects and all of my tangible personal property, including automobiles, hangars, aircraft, fly-drive vehicles, patents, companies, and all other things owned by me at the time of my death, including cash on hand in bank accounts in my own name, or companies names, or securities, or other intangibles*" (Dowell 2018).

The redundant phrase *to give and bequeath* does not have a core semantic component and the semantic intensification in these phrases falls on both components of the word combination – *to give and bequeath*.

In verbal coordinate redundant phrases, both components are equal and, as a rule, they are set expressions, which do not allow component rearrangements, e.g.:

(23) "*As Hollman tells it, their talks ended with Hollman telling Giovannini not to use their name. They've been told repeatedly to <u>cease and desist</u>, he said*" (Stromberg 2020).

In example (23), the phrase *cease and desist* is redundant because the verbs *to cease* and *to desist* have the same meaning 'to stop doing something or stop happening' (LDCE). This redundancy does not allow the replacement of the components such as **to desist and cease*. The word combination *to cease and desist* becomes a fixed phrase as a term and is often used in legal discourse. We attribute the phrase *to authorize and direct* to phraseological terms, as in the following example:

(24) "*The amendment restores the Attorney General's plenary legal authority <u>to authorize and direct</u> all relevant federal agencies, including the Department of Homeland Security, to collect DNA samples from individuals who are arrested, facing charges, or convicted, and from non-United States person who are detained under the authority of the United States*" (National media release 2020).

In example (24), the phrase *to authorize and direct* is redundant. According to Collins Advanced Learner's English Dictionary, the meaning of the verb *to authorize* is 'to give official permission for something' (CALED) and one of the meanings of the verb *to direct* is 'to tell someone what they should do' (LDCE). These verbs duplicate each other. This type of redundancy is most commonly used in jurisprudence (legal theory).

Similar redundant phrases lose their main function – to denominate a special notion – and lose their status as terms (Колесникова 2003: 3). Thus, in media discourse most of these redundant phrases fall under the process of determinologization and become common words, for example:

(25) "*You shamefully <u>aid and abet</u> Garcetti in supporting Los Angeles as a sanctuary city protecting illegal aliens while disabled homeless Veterans who fought on your behalf are living on the sidewalk directly outside the National Veterans Home*" (Rosebrock 2020).

Consequently, verbal coordinate redundant phrases like *to aid and abet* are commonly used in jurisprudence (legal theory), but in media discourse they lose the status of terms and become common words. In such a case, as a rule, terms that have undergone the determinologization process will acquire emotional meaning (Крапотина 1998: 175). However, these processes depend on the structure of media discourse, the quantity of terms and the function(s) they perform.

5.4 Predicative

In this section, various tautologies are investigated. Having examined the structural tautology *W + V + W*, where *W* is a word, which is represented by different parts of speech, and joined by the verb *to be*. We distinguish three main groups of predicative redundant phrases (tautology). A predicative can be represented by: abstract nouns, nouns denoting living beings, adjectives, and adverbs.

Abstract nouns: $N_{abs.} + V + N_{abs.}$ ("abstract noun + verb + abstract noun"), for example: *nought is nought*, *war is war*, *a job is a job*, *a bargain is a bargain*, *poison is poison*, *love is love*, *rank is rank*, and so on.

Nouns denoting living beings: *(D+) N + V + (D+) N* ("pronoun + noun + verb + pronoun + noun"). *D* is a determinant of the noun. This determinant is usually a possessive pronoun or an article. *D* is an optional component. For example: *an ape is an ape*, *a varlet is a varlet*, *my son is my son*, *my daughter is my daughter*, etc.

Adjectives: *Adj. + V + Adj.* ("adjective + verb + adjective"), for example: *own is own*, etc. Adverbs: *Adv. + V + Adv.* ("adverb + verb + adverb"), for example: *enough is enough*, *fair is fair*, etc.

In predicative redundant phrases as described above, components with invariant meaning for each group of examples are distinguished. The invariant meaning of such tautological constructions for each syntactic construction was determined by Wierzbicka (Вежбицкая 1985) and Levinson (2008) (one invariant meaning for all tautological constructions). In the group of examples with the pattern $N_{abs.} + V + N_{abs.}$ is expressed reference to a certain type of human activity:

1) this activity has positive / negative consequences;

2) these consequences are well-known;

3) it is impossible / difficult to change them;

4) it is necessary to accept the consequences.

Some clichéd parenthetical structures are constantly reproduced in speech as *you know*, *as they say*, etc. Sometimes tautologies following the pattern $N_{abs.} + V + N_{abs.}$ contain a large implicit component, such as: *work is work* ('work is tension, effort, but it brings revenue';), *war is war* ('war is sacrifice, destruction, famine'), and so on.

In predicative redundant phrases nouns denoting living beings (*N + V + N*) belong to the category of people / living beings, sharing certain qualities. When tautological constructions are phraseologized, they contain common nouns: *boys are boys*, *girls are girls*, *kids are kids*, *students are students*, *dogs are dogs*, *a man is a man*, *a woman is a woman*, etc. In addition, tautologies may include proper nouns: *Mother Teresa is Mother Teresa*, *Darwin is Darwin*, *Einstein is Einstein*, etc. Tautologies that contain common nouns denote well-known facts that do not require any proof since the objectivity of their existence is obvious.

The lexical meaning of the common noun (*boys are boys*) is grouped around the nucleus, while the lexical meaning of the proper noun (*Darwin is Darwin*) is not supplied in the dictionary. To understand the meaning of a tautology that consists of two proper nouns, it is necessary for readers to have some extralingual knowledge about the subject. The lexical meaning of the proper noun reflects "encyclopedic" knowledge, a complex of versatile knowledge about the referent, known to the addresser and the addressee. First of all, let us clarify the meaning of the toponym *Texas* in the tautology *Texas is Texas*. Some people who have some knowledge about Texas due to Western movies and cowboy books can distinguish the following stereotypical features in its meaning: 'the presence of cows, horses, and weapons'. The motivation behind that is that they synthesize the meaning on the basis of representations, associations, and stereotypes.

Tautologies that are made with the help of proper nouns are nonce formations. Their use is occasional: *Best is Best* was the slogan of "The Beatles" fans. Best is the nickname of one of the band's former musicians. These tautologies are characterized by explicit ambiguity (Никитин 2007: 639). It is based on parallel implementation of two categorical meanings of the lexical unit *best* (adjective and noun): in the same context, two meanings are realized and combined (for the fans of the band "The Beatles", the musician named Best was the best musician. The slogan appeared at the time the musician left the band and his fans organized numerous protests).

To sum up, the group of structural tautologies $W + V + W$ is heterogeneous. In this group, the components of the redundant phrase consist of adverbs and adjectives. These tautologies are uncommon, so they are attributed to the periphery of predicative redundant constructions.

Speakers use tautologies of the structural type $W + V + W$ for various reasons. At the same time, the semantic meaning of the statement does not narrow, for example:

(26) "*LAPD Commander Andrew Smith had urged Dorner, whose truck was found in the area last Thursday, to surrender, telling him: <u>Enough is enough</u>*" (Boxall & Banerjee 2012).

In example (26), the police officer orders the offender to give up, telling him that it is enough to commit crime. The tautology *enough is enough* means 'enough shooting and bloodshed'. Predicative constructions contain a large implicit component, because their meaning is wider than their verbal representation. On condition that there is mutual knowledge about the subject of the conversation, the speaker does not provide explicit explanation in order to save time. The addresser appeals to the competence of the listener (Никитин 1983: 74).

Linguistic signs are bilateral. Every linguistic sign has two aspects, which are inseparably connected: the sound sequence (signifier) on the level of expression, and the concept (signified) on the level of meaning. The basis of the semantic meaning of tautology is the possibility of splitting meaning into different aspects: pragmatic vs cognitive, intentional vs extensional, signifying vs denotative (ibid.). The structure of meaning according to Nikitin is represented in Figure 2.
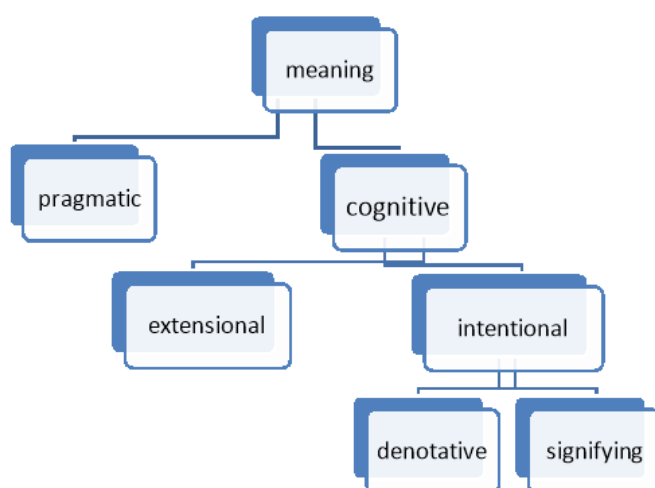
Figure 2. Structure of meaning according to Nikitin (Никитин 2007: 42)

Cognitive meaning comprises two kinds: intensional and extensional. Intensional meaning, or intension, is based on qualities or attributes that a term connotes, while extensional meaning, or extension, refers to members of the class that the term denotes. Analysis of nouns reveals that the meaning of each noun in different contexts is not stable. Intensional and extensional meanings can vary, which affects the informativeness of a tautology.

Variation of extensional meaning is a change in denotation. Extension may vary in different contexts. Thus, a concept represents a particular member of the class to which it relates. The relation of a concept to denotation may be specific or non-specific. When it is specific, the denotatum differs in some ways from other members in its class, for example:

(27) "*<u>The war</u> between Russia and Ukraine, <u>is a war</u> that nobody wants to see [...]*" (Graham 2015).

In example (27), the tautology *war is war* means the specific war that is taking place between Ukraine and Russia, not war in general. In case a concept correlates with non-specific denotation, a certain class member is meant, but it is impossible to say which one. The denotatum is not specified, for example:

(28) "*What does it take to have a war? Soldiers – men and women willing to kill. A cause – any will do. Hatred – You can't kill someone you love. What else? <u>War is war</u>*" (Burke 2018).

In the example above, the predicative tautology *war is war* is not a specific war, but war in general. Let us consider more examples:

(29) "*Soldiers who served in the Gaza Strip say they received orders to shoot to kill every person they saw in what the army classified a "combat sector", while being led*

to believe – wrongly – that the area had been cleared of civilians. […] But <u>orders were</u>
<u>*orders*</u>" (Pollard 2015).

In example (29), the second component of the tautology $N_{abs.}$ has a wide extension. According to the context, the soldiers received a strict order to shoot. So, we decompose the meaning of the tautology *orders were orders* ($N_{abs.} + V + N_{abs.}$) into specific components: the first component $N_{abs..}$ is a strict order to shoot that must be followed; the second component $N_{abs..}$ is a general order, any regulatory document. In this phrase, the lexeme *orders* is duplicated.

In the tautology ($N + V + N$), the third component N can also represent a class category separate from its particular members, for example:

(30) "*The CBBC has come under fire on Twitter in response to a section of one of its audience guides entitled "<u>Girls are girls</u> and <u>boys are boys</u>". In "A guide to the CBBC audience", which is publicly available online, girls and boys are described in two separate paragraphs, headed "Girls: Emotionally focused" and "Boys: Task focused", respectively […]*" (Criado 2014).

Tautologies of the group ($W + V + W$) are formed by duplication of adjectives / adverbs and have no extensional meaning.

Variation of intensional meaning. If extensional variation refers to denotations correlating with a concept, then intensional variation refers to their characteristics, which are in the meaning (Никитин 2007: 37). There are two possible ways of displaying intensional meaning variation. The first refers to the stable core of intensional meaning, in other words, its intension. Variation in the intension is the qualitative semantic transformation of the concept. Any change in intension creates a new meaning. This phenomenon is known as semantic shift (Кузнєцова 2011: 6;

Willem 2009: 525). Let us consider the tautology *boys are boys / boys will be boys*. The following semes constitute the intension of the word *boy*:

> *1) human being;*
>
> *2) male;*
>
> *3) child.*

The changes of the intension create a new meaning, *'aggressive behaviors'*, for example:

(31) "*I was also concerned to learn that when a child brought in a Ninjago book, the teachers read the book to the children even though Common Sense media reports that this series is best for children seven and over, and rates it 0/5 for educational value, 2/5 for violence, and 5/5 for consumerism. When I have expressed my concerns about some of these issues, every conversation has ended the same way, with the teacher saying, "Oh you know, <u>boys will be boys</u>" [...]*" (Meyer 2014).

Otherwise, when the second component of tautology varies, it means that intension remains unchanged, but the meaning of tautology is enriched by various additional implicational characteristics. It is only possible when the component refers to a single denotatum that has a large number of characteristics in a text, apart from those characteristics that are commonly found in the class. This variation of intensional meaning does not violate intension itself and does not create new meanings. It reveals the two types of intensional meaning – signifying and denotative (Никитин 2007: 37-38).

The second component of a tautology (N) may express a signifying or denotative meaning. The second component N in tautologies of the first group with abstract nouns ($N_{abs.} + V + N_{abs.}$) and the second group with nouns denoting living beings ($N + V + N$) has a signifying meaning in the second component, giving a generalized image, a generalized idea, for example:

(32) "*Honestly, we're talking about an entity that thrives on enslavement, you know? Not cool. <u>Fun's fun</u>. But who needs it*" (Moraes 2017).

In example (32), *fun* means not a particular instance of fun, but a generalized idea of fun.

The second component of all tautologies that are formed by adjectives / adverbs (for example, *enough is enough*) does not have reference. This component only has a signifying meaning and does not have a denotative meaning.

The second component N in predicative tautologies with abstract nouns ($N_{abs.} + V + N_{abs.}$) and nouns denoting living beings ($N + V + N$) may have different extensions, depending on whether it represents the whole class or individual representatives of this class. When representing the whole class, N_2 has a signifying meaning, while when representing individual class representatives, N_2 has a denotative one. N_2 can also express different intensional meanings. Components of intension and implication may vary. W_2 in tautological predicative constructions with duplication of adjectives / adverbs (third group) can express only intensional signifying meaning. Due to its non-reference, W_2 has no extensional or denotative meaning.

6. Conclusions

This article investigates characteristics of redundant phrases functioning as a means of expressing redundancy in modern English media discourse and reveals the structural features of this variety of redundancy. Redundant phrases are no unwitting slips, but are intended to lend emphasis to the message. The imaginative and emotional nature of redundancy serves to explain their use not only in fiction but also in mass media discourse. Different types of redundancy have different stylistic intensity, depending on the intention of the addresser.

Redundancy is an umbrella term for tautology, pleonasm, and hypercharacterization. Full synonymy is crucial in distinguishing tautology from pleonasm and hypercharacterization. The essence of this distinction is that redundancy can be full when components of a phrase completely duplicate each other – tautology. In the case of partial redundancy, components of a word combination are semantically similar words – pleonasm.

Redundancy can be functional and non-functional. Functionally-oriented speech elements are purposely introduced by the addresser. Their purpose is to convey connotative information in order to have a pragmatic impact on the recipient. Non-functional redundancy is created by linguistic elements that convey neither basic nor connotative information. Functional redundancy is manifested in repetition or synonymous duplication of lexemes, grammatical forms (hypercharacterization), or partial synonymy of components.

Synonymous duplication of lexemes is more common, more frequent, and more diverse in structure and semantics. In hypercharacterization, redundancy is created by means of grammatical markers, e.g. suffixes and prefixes, as well as with the help of degrees of comparison of the adjectives and adverbs that are used to focus the addressee's attention on the message. Hypercharacterization creates redundancy by violating the norms of English grammar, which becomes anomalous, incorrect, and has a special effect on the addressee. Partial synonymy of components is able to convey subtle nuances of meaning and emphasis in the content of an utterance.

Redundant phrases are independent expressive means of language. We differentiate stylistic means of expressing redundancy in speech and grammatical means of redundancy. The autonomy of redundancy in language is justified by its purpose to clarify, specify, supplement, and intensify a shade of meaning within a word in order to accurately convey information to the addressee.

Media discourse is considered as a process and result of media activity and as a mediator between visible reality and real life. The function of media influence is realized through linguistic and stylistic means of expression, in particular redundancy. Redundancy in contemporary English-language media discourse creates emotional tension and is used to intensify, distinguish, or clarify information. The semantic tension of an utterance emerges from the excessive duplication of grammatical or lexical forms whereby the writer draws the reader's attention. The impact on the reader / listener in order to convince him / her to do something or to induce a desired response is not achieved by logical argumentation. It is he emotional intensity of speech that guides the selection of linguistic means with suggestive influence.

It has been shown that according to the criterion of syntactic relations between the components, redundancies are subdivided into subordinate and coordinate. Subordinate redundant phrases are based on inequality of the components. To conclude, we have differentiated three subtypes of subordinate redundant phrases: a) nominal; b) adjectival; c) verbal. Coordinate redundant phrases are based on the semantic and syntactic relations between grammatically equal units of language. We have discussed and separated four subtypes of coordinate redundant phrases: a) nominal; b) adjectival; c) verbal; d) predicative (tautologies).

List of abbreviations

CALED – Collins advanced learner's English dictionary

LDCE – Longman dictionary of contemporary English

RAP – Redundant acronym phrase

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Résumé

This article focuses on revealing the nature of redundancy from a structural perspective. Functional redundancy is interpreted as a positive phenomenon that serves to specify, clarify, and add emotional colouring and sonority to the utterance. Redundant phrases can be found not only in language but also in speech. It is stated that redundancy is a linguistic means of expressing emotional tension. The semantic tension of an utterance emerges from the excessive duplication of grammatical or lexical forms whereby the writer draws the reader's attention. Redundancy manifests

itself in the synonymous duplication of lexemes, grammatical forms, or partial synonymy of components. Two structural types of redundant phrases are distinguished: subordinate and coordinate. Subordinate redundant phrases are based on inequality of the components. Structural types of subordinate redundancy are distinguished by the core semantic component belonging to a particular part of speech: nominal, adjectival, and verbal. Coordinate redundant phrases are word combinations that consist of relatively independent elements and are joined with the help of a conjunction. These word combinations are fixed phrases, and their elements do not allow permutation of components. The following types of coordinate redundant phrases are distinguished: nominal, adjectival, verbal, and predicative. This article highlights certain pragmatic factors, which account for the creation of redundant phrases in modern English media discourse. As the analyzed material shows, despite the limited sample size, media publications combine a range of pragmatic effects on the reader.