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1. Introduction

Language is a tool for communicating. With the help of language, we are able to express ourselves to other people. Linguistics recognises several means of communication and within the field of pragmatics one can find an interesting feature called deixis. It “[…] is a technical term (from Greek) for one of the most basic things we do with utterances. It means ‘pointing’ via language […] the linguistic form […] is called a deictic expression” (Yule 1996: 9). For instance, this feature can be found in various texts, which are used for narration, information and even for education. Due to this, it may be interesting to analyse the deictic expressions in certain materials for education.

1.1 Aim and hypothesis

The aim of the essay is to study how deictic expressions are used in textbooks and what influences they may have on the interpretation of the texts. My hypothesis is that the deictic expressions in English textbooks are used in different ways, as well as extent, depending on the contents and the formulations of the various texts.

1.2 Method

The following method will be used in connection with this essay. This essay will be focused on the use of deixis in textual materials. Thus, by analysing the deictic expressions in a number of texts in two different English textbooks, Wings and Good Stuff, which are designed for the eighth form at lower secondary school in Sweden, it will be shown how these pragmatic features are used in relation to different contexts. That is to say, how the expressions may be used in a way, where “[…] their reference is
Three different texts will be analysed in each of the textbooks *Good Stuff* and *Wings* which are mentioned above. To begin with *Good Stuff*, the first text *Coca Cola* is a description of the development of the soft drink Coca Cola. The second text *Bored? - Grab a Board* gives a more detailed account of various board sports. The third text *Friendly Advice* is written as a dialogue. The following texts will be analysed in the textbook *Wings*. The first text, *Star for a day*, is a description of the Universal film studio in Los Angeles and it is presented from a young boy’s point of view. The second text *At school in Scotland* is a presentation of the Scottish school system and certain parts of the texts are described from a young girl’s point of view. The last text, *The invaders who made Britain*, is a historical description of the former people in Britain.

1.3 Outline

The outline of the essay can be described in the following way. The various aspects of deixis will be introduced in a background section. In the first part of the analysis, the use of person deixis will be dealt with. The second part will present the use of place deixis, whereas the third section will illustrate how time deixis is used in the various texts. Furthermore, within the different passages it will be examined whether the expressions are used deictically or non–deictically and even if they can be considered to be anaphoric expressions. Finally, the findings will be discussed, as well as summarised in a conclusion part, where we should have a better insight into the use of deictic expressions and what sorts of effects they may have on the language of textbooks.
2. Background

2.1 Deixis

One may say that deixis has a referring function where the context is important. The context is evident and Stephen C Levinson points out how “[…] deixis concerns the way in which languages encode or grammaticalize features of the context of utterance or speech event, and thus also concerns ways in which the interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of that context of utterance” (Levinson 1983: 54). However, as Bühler (1934, cited in Renkema 1993: 77) has demonstrated, different sorts of referring fields can be found within a language. The first field has a more symbolic effect where the meanings of the words, which belong to this field, for example “roof, run and nice”, are not affected by different situations. However, the second field is connected to deixis and the words within this field, for example “I” […] and […] “you” and “there” are dependent on certain conditions of discourse.

We have claimed that deixis is reference in relation to the context and George Yule believes that “we have to define reference as an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something” (Yule 1985: 130). Thus, Levinson states that the referring function of the words in “discourse, or text, deixis” can be related to the parts of the discourse where a specific utterance can be found (Levinson 1983: 85). Similarly, Charles J. Fillmore describes how “discourse deixis has to do with the choice of lexical or grammatical elements which indicate or otherwise refer to some portion or aspect of the ongoing discourse” (Fillmore 1997:103). The next section will deal with the deictic expressions and the distinctions between deictic and non-deictic usage, as well as anaphoric usage.
2.2 Deictic expressions

Deixis can be related to the use of deictic expressions which may be used in different ways and with varying meanings. Levinson explains that “[...] by deictic expression we mean those linguistic units or morphemes that have a deictic usage as basic or central” (Levinson 1983: 64). According to Peter Grundy, one may distinguish between deictic use and non-deictic use. The first term relates to reference as being dependent on the context. However, the second term indicates a more general reference (Grundy 2000: 26). Owing to this, Fillmore gives his account of the two terms where he makes a comparison between a statue and a photograph of the same object. He claims that the statue can be considered to have a neutral or independent point of view, which may be related to the non-deictic term. However, the photograph is dependent on the position of the camera and this can be related to the deictic term (Fillmore 1997: 28). Furthermore, as Fillmore (1971, cited in Levinson 1983: 65) has indicated, deictic use can be divided into two sorts of usage, a gestural and a symbolic. The “[...] gestural usages require a moment by physical monitoring of the speech event for their interpretation, while symbolic usages make reference only to contextual co-ordinates available to participants antecedent to the utterance” (Levinson 1983: 65-66). Levinson exemplifies the gestural, symbolic and non-deictic usages respectively by the use of you in the following three sentences: “You, you, but not you, are dismissed”, “What did you say?” [and], “You can never tell what sex they are nowadays” (Levinson 1983: 66). On the other hand, the expressions which are used non-deictically may have an anaphoric effect. Thus, Levinson describes how anaphora can be related to the fact that certain terms are used for referring to previously mentioned entities. For example, in the following sentence the word he can refer back to John: “John came in and he lit a fire” (Levinson 1983: 67). Now follows a presentation of the deictic centre.
2.3 Deictic centre

The deictic centre can be said to be the basis of a specific utterance. Levinson claims that the deictic expressions are used in relation to the deictic centre where the focusing on aspects about person, time and place is usually believed to originate from the speaker’s point of view in various utterances. In discourse, an utterance is always based on the current initial position of the speaker (Levinson 1983: 64, 85). Accordingly, “[…] the references effected […] to person, place and time […] can only be understood by an addressee who is able to reconstruct the speaker’s viewpoint” (Grundy 2000: 46). The next section will deal with the ambiguity of the deictic expressions.

2.4 The ambiguity of deixis

A reason for using the expressions carefully in school textbooks may be the fact that the interpretation of the deictic expressions may be difficult sometimes. To follow Grundy’s ideas, to be able to understand the meaning of various utterances where deictic expressions are used, one has to be clear about the differences between the indicative function as well as the referring function. That is to say, it is evident to have certain knowledge about the distinctions between the demonstrated objects and the intended objects. Since the deictic expressions are always used in relation to the deictic centre, which may be indistinct sometimes, the deictic expressions may therefore be difficult to interpret. This statement is due to the fact that there may be a shift in the deictic centre where the focus seems to have been changed to concern the addressee instead of the speaker. For instance, the speaker may use the pronoun your to refer to the addressee’s point of view. Thus, at all events it is necessary to throw light on the intended context (Grundy 2000: 33-35). In addition, according to Yule, this shift can be called “deictic projection” where the speaker can manipulate various locations. For
example, the verb *come*, which usually indicates movements in the direction of the speaker, can also be used for describing opposite motions towards an addressee (Yule 1996: 12-13). However, as Tanz (1980, cited in Levinson 1983: 64), has pointed out, “[…] when speaker and addressee switch participant-roles, the co-ordinates of this entire world switch to the space-time-social centre of the erstwhile addressee, now speaker. Such a picture makes the acquisition of deictic terms seem a miracle, and children do indeed have trouble with them”.

Certainly, some difficulties can be related to different time perspectives. Fillmore claims that it is important to make a distinction between the time of the sender, as well as the receiver of various utterances and if the time of the sender concerns a specific context or just a separate word. For example, “the word “now” can be used in two voice gestural ways in a single utterance, as […] “Now you see it, now you don’t” (Fillmore 1997: 67-68). Melissa Furrow asserts, “[…] the adverbs of time, […] depend on the time occupied by the current speaker at the event in question. […] [But] calendar date[s] and a clock time […] [are not counted] […] as deictic unless they take their meaning from the time of the utterance, as do *six months ago*, […], but [not] *September 1985* […] [since it] establish[es] a time without gesturing to it” (Furrow 1988: 376-377).

According to Fillmore (1975, cited in Levinson 1983: 54), the interpretation of certain utterances may be difficult sometimes since we do not seem to have enough information about the original time of the utterances.

Jan Renkema claims that the interpretation of place deictic expressions is dependent on the reference of various positions which is either related to the speaker or the intended objects and that is where the difficult point comes in, namely to decide which one is preferable in a particular situation (Renkema 1993: 78-79). Owing to this,
Levinson argues that the ambiguity of place deictic expressions can be related to the fact that “[…] some objects have intrinsic orientations, with front, sides, etc., and these allow both the deictic selection of some oriented plane and the non-deictic reference to some such oriented plane” (Levinson 1983: 82-83). In the next part of the essay, we will give an account of the various types of deixis.

2.5 Different types of deixis

There are different types of deixis, in the form of person, place and time deixis. Firstly, Levinson indicates how the use of certain pronouns in person deixis can be regarded as divisions of roles in relation to various utterances, where the use of “first person” is related to the actual speaker, whereas the use of “second person” concerns “[…] the speaker’s reference to one or more addresses” (Levinson 1983: 62). In contrast, sometimes a speaker can include an addressee by using the pronoun we (Grundy 2000: 27). However, the use of “third person” is related to unities which have a more extraneous role in a certain utterance (Levinson 1983: 62). In addition, Renkema puts forward a complementary explanation of the notion person deixis, where he argues that the concept may include aspects of “gender”, “manner” and “honour”, as well as the “relationship between” the speaker and the listener (Renkema 1993: 78). For this reason, Peter Grundy believes that various pronouns may be used in different ways depending on the informality or formality of the contexts. He states that “[…] we address our equals and refer to our superiors” (Grundy 2000: 26).

Secondly, place deixis deals with the locations of the “participants-roles” in various utterances where one may include “[…] proximal [distinctions] ([…] close to the speaker) and distal [distinctions] ([…] non-proximal, sometimes close to the addressee), […]. Such distinctions are […] encoded [by] demonstratives [like] […] this
vs. *that* [...] and *by* deictic adverbs [...] like *here* vs. *there*” (Levinson 1983: 62). According to Grundy, the context is important for determining various references and certain demonstratives may be used for this purpose. Sometimes they are “[...] used either as [...] pronoun[s] or in combination with a noun” (Grundy 2000: 28). Other linguistic elements may be related to the term place deixis. For instance, George Yule includes “some verbs of motion, such as ‘come’ and ‘go’ (Yule 1996: 12). Moreover, Yule believes that mental as well as physical aspects have an influence on the visual angle of the speaker, which will determine the use of place deixis expressions. That is to say, sometimes a “proximate” expression may be used for describing a “distant” location. For instance, “Speakers temporarily away from their home location will often continue to use ‘here’ to mean the (physically distant) home location” (Yule 1996: 12).

The third type of deixis, time deixis, deals with various expressions of time which may be related to a specific utterance (Levinson 1983: 62). Fillmore argues that we have to distinguish between the time of the actual message, *encoded time*, and the time of the reception, *decoded time* (Fillmore 1997: 61). Yule gives an account of how time deictic expressions also deal with the concepts of distance, either close to the speaker or far away. Undoubtedly, awareness about the time of the utterance is evident. Various words like ‘now’, ‘then’, ‘today’, ‘tomorrow’ and ‘next week’ are included as time deictic expressions (Yule 1996: 14). However, sometimes it may be difficult to distinguish certain time deictic expressions since they can be surrounded by other elements as well (Renkema 1993: 79).

In conclusion, deictic expressions seem to have an all-embracing function since “deictic expressions always communicate much more than is said” (Yule1996: 16). However, Yule gives a more simplified account for the various terms above where he states, “any expression used to point to a person (*me, you, him, them*) is an example of
**person deixis.** Words used to point to a location (*here, there, yonder*) are examples of **place deixis**, and those used to point to a time (*now, then, tonight, last week*) are examples of **time deixis**” (Yule 1985: 130).

In short, we have now obtained greater knowledge about the concepts of deixis. Deixis is considered to have a referring function in relation to various contexts, as well as in the relation between the speaker and the addressee. Discourse deixis deals with a specific utterance within the discourse itself. Thus, the elements within deixis, which are called deictic expressions, may be used deictically or non-deictically where the deictic use may be divided into a symbolic or a gestural use. However, sometimes the elements appear to be anaphoric. All utterances can be related to the deictic centre which can be described as the location of the speaker. However, the interpretation of the deictic expressions may be ambiguous sometimes. Furthermore, there are different types of deixis in the form of person, place and time deixis.

3. Analysis

The number of deictic expressions and their various fields of applications have been summarised into specific diagrams to make the analysis more clear. Each type of deixis will be covered in all the texts in the sections that follow where the first section will deal with the various concepts of person deixis.

**3.1 Person deixis**

**3.1.1 Good Stuff**

The diagram below shows the total amounts, as well as the specific ones, of the deictic, non-deictic and anaphoric usages among the person expressions in the three texts in the textbook *Good Stuff*. 
The first text, *Coca Cola*, seems to have a rather high amount of person deictic expressions and many of them are used deictically as well, even if a high number of the expressions are anaphoric. The pronoun *you* is commonly used in the text and the opening sentence shows how *you* is addressed to the reader of the text, “If *you* see the colours red and white together, what do *you* think of?” (Coombs 2003:8). By putting a direct question to the reader where the author uses the pronoun *you*, it seems as if his intention is to welcome or include the reader into the story. Sometimes the author wants to include himself in the story. When he tells about his own experiences of Coca Cola, he refers to himself by using the pronoun *I* deictically. “When *I* was a kid, *I* drank lots of Coca Cola” (Coombs 2003:9). However, in a few cases, *you* is used non-deictically where the author wants to make a more general statement. For instance, “In the early days, *you* couldn’t buy Coke in a bottle. *You* had to go to a ‘soda fountain’ in a drugstore” (Coombs 2003:8). The author does not address the reader since he gives a more general description of the history of Coca Cola. Many of the expressions are used anaphorically. “Cola nuts come from two kinds of trees that grow in West Africa. *They*
contain cola flavour as well as caffeine” (Coombs 2003:8). Thus, the pronoun they refers to the Cola nuts.

The second text, *Bored? – Grab a Board!*, has a high number of deictic expressions and many are used deictically even if a good many are used non-deictically. A large number of the expressions are used anaphorically. The pronoun you is commonly used in this text and sometimes the author invites the reader to take part in the story. “Are you bored” (Coombs 2003:24)? The introducing question is an example of this fact. On the other hand, in comparison to the former text, you is often used non-deictically. In many of the various contexts, the text seems to be a more general description of the different board sports and how they should be practised. The author does not seem to speak directly to the reader. This statement may be exemplified by the following utterance, “Better still, you can ride a wakeboard. It’s like a mini-surfboard with two supports for your feet. You stand up on it and let the speedboat pull you along as fast as you like” (Coombs 2003:26). However, one may find many anaphoric expressions in the text. For instance, “The first European to see surfing was the English explorer, Captain James Cook, in 1770. He loved watching the Hawaiians surf on their boards, but he never tried it for himself. It looked too dangerous” (Coombs 2003:24). This extract shows how the use of the pronouns, respectively he, himself, their and it, refer to the captain, the Hawaiians and the surfing itself.

The last text in the textbook *Good Stuff*, the dialogue *Friendly advice*, has also a high amount of deictic expressions and many of them are used deictically whereas a low number of the expressions are used in a general way. Several of the expressions are anaphoric. Since the text is written as a dialogue, one has to know the context and the names of the different people involved to be able to understand the meaning of the utterances. In one episode, there is a conversation between two people who are called
Fabian and Katy. “**Fabian:**” “That’s a great idea. When I get nervous I don’t know what to say sometimes. What do you think I should talk about?” “**Katy:**” “You don’t have to talk all the time. You could listen to her as well you know” (Coombs 2003:88).

The pronouns *I* and *you* are used deictically to refer to the speaker as well as the addressee in the dialogue. However, the last *you* in the utterance “you know” can be said to have a more general reference and therefore it may be regarded as non-deictic. There are many anaphoric expressions in the text which usually refer to people who are already mentioned. For example, “*She* might get frightened and then you can protect *her*” (Coombs 2003:89). In this sentence, the use of *she* refers to a person who has been mentioned earlier in the text, whereas the use of *her* refers to *she* in this particular context.

### 3.1.2 Wings

The diagram below shows the total amounts, as well as the specific ones, of the deictic, non-deictic and anaphoric usages among the person expressions in the three texts in the textbook *Wings*.

![Person deixis diagram](image)
The first text in the textbook *Wings, Star for a day!* has a very high number of deictic expressions and only a few of them are used non-deictically in a more general way whereas a rather high amount of the expressions are anaphoric. Since the story is intended to be presented from a young boy’s point of view, which is based on his journey to Los Angeles with his parents, the person deictic expressions usually refer to these individuals. Take the sentence “Maybe I have a future in acting” (Glover 1996: 103). Here, the use of *I* can be related to the young boy himself when he reflects on his dramatic talents. Another example is the use of the pronoun *we*. “*We* drove slowly through hundreds of outdoor sets that they use in filming. One minute *we* were driving down a street in New York, then *we* turned the corner and *we* were somewhere in ancient Greece” (Glover 1996: 104). In this extract, the speaker, the boy, seems to have included his parents in the description as well. In certain episodes, one may find some more general utterances where the expressions are used non-deictically. “*You* could never be sure when *you* would meet the next movie star (movie star look–alike, of course) or which one it would be” (Glover 1996:105). Thus, the intention of the author, or in this case the speaker, is not to address the reader since he just wants to make a general statement. Many expressions are anaphorically used where they point to the various participants, objects or events in the story. For instance, “The best moment for Dad was when *he* shook hands with Groucho Marx. For me *it* was the Blues Brothers’ street show” (Glover 1996: 105). In this extract, the pronouns *he* and *it* refer to the Dad and the best moment.

The second text, *At school in Scotland*, contains many deictic expressions. Half of them are non-deictic where a certain amount of the non-deictic expressions is anaphoric. The text is a presentation of the Scottish school system and certain episodes are described from a young girl’s point of view. The aim of the author seems to be to
include the reader in the presentation by using the following utterances, “Compare your timetable with Emma’s. […] Would you like to have a timetable like Emma’s?” (Glover 1996:72)? The deictic use of the pronouns your and you seems to be addressed directly to the reader. One may say that he should reflect on his own experiences. The episodes, which are presented from the girl’s point of view, contain deictic expressions as well. “If you look at my timetable, you can see I don’t get any free periods” (Glover 1996:73). The idea behind the text seems to be that the speaker, Emma, addresses the reader at the same time as she includes herself in her speech. One may also find examples of non-deictic use where the speaker makes a more general remark. One example may be the following sentence, “Sometimes a teacher gives you detention, which means you have to stay in and work during your lunch break” (Glover 1996: 74). The intention is probably not to include the reader in this context since the statement can be said to be a more general piece of information, which may interest the reader. There are not so many anaphoric expressions in this text and those in question are often used to indicate already mentioned information. “Each house has a Housemaster and Housemistress. They are teachers who have regular interviews with the pupils in the House and get to know them very well” (Glover 1996: 74). The pronouns they and them refer to the Housemaster and the Housemistress as well as the pupils.

The final text, *The invaders who made Britain*, is a very short text and therefore it does not seem to contain so many person deictic expressions. Only one of the non-deictic expressions is used more generally. “We know that people lived in Britain at least 250,000 years before Christ” (Glover 1996: 30). The pronoun we seems to have a more covering signification and one may say that the meaning of the utterance is almost taken for granted. However, a majority of the expressions are used anaphorically. The text seems to be a historical description of the invasions of Britain where the author
gives an account of the various people involved. As a result, the expressions are often used anaphorically to refer to these people. For example, “The two largest tribes were the Angles and the Saxons. They spread across the country, and then the Angles moved north and the Saxons went south” (Glover 1996: 31). One may say that the intention of the author is not to make the reader enter into the text. Next, we will look at the use of place deictic expressions in the different texts.

3.2 Place deixis

3.2.1 Good Stuff

This diagram shows the total amounts, as well as the specific ones, of the deictic, non-deictic and anaphoric usages among the place expressions in the textbook Good Stuff. However, one should point out that the total amounts of deictic expressions, which are shown in the diagrams, only consider the actual numbers of expressions and not their fields of application since, according to Lyons (1977a, cited in Levinson 1983: 67), the deictic expressions may be both anaphoric and deictic sometimes. For this reason, the tables, which describe the deictic and anaphoric usages, may not be in accordance with the total amount of place deictic expressions.
One can find certain examples of place deictic expressions in the text *Coca Cola*. Deictic usage can be exemplified by the verb *go* in the following sentence, “You had to *go* to a ‘soda fountain’ in a drugstore” (Coombs 2003:8). One may say that the writer describes a situation where “[...] he is moving away from the [speaker]” (Levinson 1983: 83). That is to say, in this particular context, the speaker seems to move away from his own location. Another example of deictic usage is the pronoun *that* in the following context, “Now I don’t like the flavor. Some people would say *that* makes me weird” (Coombs 2003:9). To be able to understand the meaning of the second utterance above, one needs to have knowledge of the first utterance. A more general and non-deictic usage can be described by the use of *that* in, “The jerk was called a jerk because he, or she, often jerked the handle *that* released the fizzy water” (Coombs 2003: 8). However, anaphoric usage is exemplified by the use of *there* in the following context, “[...], I went to a big museum. [...] *There* was also a room with a special show” (Coombs 2003: 9). The adverb *there* seems to refer to the museum. However, we claimed that certain expressions might be used both anaphorically and deictically. Therefore, the adverb *there*, which is used in the context above, is considered to be deictic as well since it “[...] contrasts with *here* on the deictic dimension of space, locating the utterance outside [the] [museum]” (Levinson 1983: 67).

The second text, *Bored?– Grab a board!* contains rather many place deictic expressions and half of them are deictically used whereas the rest of the expressions are non-deictic but only a few of the expressions are anaphoric, even if these expressions may be deictic as well. Deictic usage is found in the context, “The best place to water-ski and wakeboard is Australia. People have been doing it *there* since the 1950s” (Coombs 2003:26). The use of the adverb *there* seems to emphasise that the place is located far away from the actual speaker and one needs to be familiar with the former
utterance to able to understand the meaning of the second one. Another example may be the use of the pronoun *those* in the following context, “[…], some people say that skateboarding is soft. *Those* people are into streetluge” (Coombs 2003:26). The pronoun *those* seems to be used to point out that the other people are more distantly located than the speaker itself and the second utterance seems to be dependent on the former one as well. Non-deictic usage may be exemplified by the pronoun *that* in the phrase, “[…], you chant a special poem *that* makes the surf swell up” (Coombs 2003: 24). This utterance seems to be rather obvious. Anaphoric usage can be found in the familiar utterances, “People have been doing it *there* since the 1950s. [and] *Those* people are into streetluge” (Coombs 2003: 26). The adverb *there* seems to refer to Australia and the pronoun *those* can be said to refer to the people, which were described in the two sentences above.

The last text, *Friendly Advice*, in the textbook *Good Stuff*, contains a certain amount of place deictic expressions where a majority of the expressions seem to be deictically used and only one of them is non-deictic. None of the expressions seem to be anaphoric. Deictic use is exemplified in the context, “You could also give her your jacket if it’s cold. Isn’t *that* too old-fashioned” (Coombs 2003: 89)? The pronoun *that* can be said to refer to the first utterance, which it may be dependent on as well. The last sentence makes more sense when one has some knowledge about the former one. Deictic usage is also found in the sentence. “*Take* her to a movie” (Coombs 2003: 88). One may say that the verb “[…] “take” indicate[s] motion toward a location which is distinct from the speaker’s location at coding time (Fillmore 1997: 83). An example of non-deictic usage is shown in the sentence, “Try and get a kiss *outside* the cinema” (Coombs 2003: 89). The utterance is obviously not connected to any other context.
3.2.2 Wings

The following diagram shows the total amounts, as well as the specific ones, of the deictic, non-deictic and anaphoric usages among the place expressions in the textbook *Wings*. However, similar to the former diagram, which presents the amounts of place deictic expressions in the textbook *Good Stuff*, the tables which describe the deictic and anaphoric usages, may not be in accordance with the total amount of place deictic expressions since the meaning of the expressions may be ambiguous sometimes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place deixis (Wings)</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deictic use:</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non deictic use, total:</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anaphoric use:</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first text in *Wings*, *Star for a day*, has a rather high amount of place deictic expressions and several of them are deictically used. But many of the expressions are used non-deictically, even if just a few of them are anaphoric. A deictic usage can be found in the utterance, “*This* is what he wrote about his visit to Universal Studios” (Glover 1996: 102). Since the pronoun *this* is found in an introducing context it seems as if *this* refers to the rest of the story itself and its various descriptions. Deictic usage can also be found in the sentence, “When we *came* to a dusty street straight from a western, our tram guide pointed out how the buildings were all built on a small scale” (Glover 1996: 104). The verb *came* is used to describe a distant action where the
speaker is included as well. More general and non-deictic usages are shown in the sentence, “I had to go on stage and they told me to sit in the driving seat of a car” (Glover 1996: 102). The meaning of this utterance is rather clear and the expressions “on stage” and “in the driving seat” do not seem to be used from a specific point of view. That is to say, the locations do not change because of various perspectives. Anaphoric use is found in the sentence, “We left Universal Studios at 4.30. We’d been there about eight hours” (Glover 1996: 105). In this utterance there refers to Universal Studios, even if it may be deictically used as well.

One can find a certain amount of deictic expressions in the second text, At school in Scotland. Most of the expressions are deictically used and only a few of the non-deictic usages are anaphoric. Deictic use is shown in the sentence, “All Wallace High pupils get a copy of the Code of Conduct when they start here” (Glover 1996: 74). Since the adverb here is used in a context which seems to be described from the girl’s point of view, one may say that the speaker seems to describe a nearby environment. A more general and non-deictic usage may be found in the utterance, “If someone always comes late, or plays truant or something like that, your group tutor can give you punishment exercises to do” (Glover 1996: 74). In this sentence that seems to have a more all-embracing meaning. However, anaphoric usage can be exemplified by the utterance, “But most of us have a T-shirt and sweat-shirt in the school colours-purple and gold-with the school crest on. Those are nice” (Glover 1996: 72). The pronoun those can be said to refer to the garments which are described in the first phrase.

The final text, The invaders who made Britain, has rather many expressions which are deictically used whereas just a few of them are non-deictic and anaphoric expressions. For instance, deictic usage is found in the utterance, “But around 400 BC the land was invaded by many tribes who came from central Europe. These people were
the Celts and they spoke different Celtic languages” (Glover 1996: 30). It seems that the author uses a more proximate expression, *these*, for pointing out the ancient people. Another example of deictic use is the usages of *this* in the following context, “They also conquered the east and north of England and called *this* area the ‘Danelaw’. *This* meant ‘the land where the law of the Danes ruled’” (Glover 1996: 31). In the first sentence, the author uses the proximate pronoun, *this*, for describing the English area. In the second sentence, the use of *this* seems to refer to the former statement. Another deictic example is the use of the verb *came* in the sentence, “The Vikings *came* from Norway, Denmark and Sweden and settled along the coast of Scotland” (Glover 1996: 31). It seems as if the speaker describes the actions of the Vikings as if they have moved from a very distant place to a nearer one. Non-deictic use may be found in the sentence, “But the Romans could not conquer the Picts, a fierce Celtic tribe *that* lived in the north” (Glover 1996: 30). The use of the relative pronoun *that* seems to have a more general function and it does not seem to be dependent on the location of the speaker. Anaphoric usage is exemplified by the use of the pronoun *there* in the following context, “They came from the north of France, and were the children and grandchildren of Vikings who had settled *there*” (Glover 1996: 31). *There* seems to be anaphorically referred to the phrase *the north of France*. However, the use of *there* may also be deictic since the author seems to indicate the distant location of France. In the following part of the essay, the results of the analysis of time deictic expressions will be presented.
3.3 Time deixis

3.3.1 Good Stuff

The following diagram shows the total amounts, as well as the specific ones, of the deictic and non-deictic usages of the time expressions in the textbook *Good Stuff*. The tables do not include any anaphoric usages.

One can find examples of time deictic expressions in the text *Coca Cola* as well. A little under half of the expressions are deictic whereas the rest of them are non-deictic. In the following utterance the place expression *today* is deictically used, “The main ingredient in Coke *today*, aside from water, sugar, and caramel coloring, is the cola nut”(Coombs 2003:8). The use of *today* seems to emphasise that the ingredients in Coca Cola are a bit different in relation to former times, which is described in the previous paragraph. Another example of a sentence where an expression is deictically used is “He *then* filled it the rest of the way with carbonated water” (Coombs 2003:8). The use of *then* may be regarded as a continuous description of an earlier utterance. On the contrary, the following expression seems to have a more general reference, “*Every year* more than a million people visit the Coca Cola Company headquarters in Atlanta” (Coombs 2003:9). This utterance may be regarded as a general statement and it does not refer to
any particular time in the context. Another example is the non-deictic use of *before* in “Long before Coke was invented, people who live where cola trees grow chewed the nuts” (Coombs 2003:8). The utterance seems to be rather obvious and one does not need any other information to be able to understand its context.

The second text, *Bored? - Grab a board!*, contains some time deictic expressions. A little more than half of the expressions are deictically used. An example of deictic usage is the word *then* in “Then you dig hole near its roots” (Coombs 2003: 24). The whole sentence seems to be a continuation of an earlier utterance. The word *then* seems to be used in the same way several times in the text. However, non-deictic usage can be exemplified by the following utterance, “Wakeboarding is difficult *at first* and many people start with kneeboard” (Coombs 2003: 26). The use of *at first* in this sentence seems to be a more general description and it does not refer to any particular time in context. Another sentence where one can find an example of a non-deictic usage is, “They kneel on the kneeboard and get used to the power of the speedboat, then try standing up on a wakeboard *later on*” (Coombs 2003:26). The word *later* seems to be used in a more general way. Together with the word *on*, the utterance can be said to be an ordinary expression which signifies “[… at some time later on or in the future” (Longman 2001: 793).

The third text, *Friendly Advice*, has a higher amount of time deictic expressions in comparison with the two former texts. However, the division of deictic and non-deictic usages seems to be similar to the other texts since little more than half of the expressions are deictic whereas the others are non-deictic. An example of deictic usage may be the use of *before* in “No, pizza *before* is better” (Coombs 2003:88). To be able to understand what *before* refers to one has to be acquainted with the former context. That is to say, what the participants in the dialogue have intended to do before they
went to the pizzeria. In contrast, non-deictic use may be exemplified by after in “Try switching your mobile on after the movie” (Coombs 2003: 89). The utterance is rather clear, as well as its context.

### 3.3.2 Wings

The diagram below shows the total amounts, as well as the specific ones, of the deictic and non-deictic usages of the time expressions in the textbook *Wings*. Similar to the diagram which presents the time deictic expressions in the textbook *Good stuff*, the one below does not include any anaphoric usages.

![Diagram showing time deixis of *Wings*](image)

The first text in *Wings, Star for a day*, seems to contain some time deictic expressions where a majority of them are deictically used. Firstly, the use of after in this context is an example of deictic use, “*After* that we took the tram ride” (Glover 1996: 104). One has to know about the events before to be able understand what the words after refers to. Another example of deictic usage may be the sentence, “*Last year* Nicholas was on holiday in California with his parents” (Glover 1996: 102). The speaker, in this case the boy, is talking about an event from the past. Of course, this assertion may be a bit difficult to implement in a written context. However, non-deictic usage is found in the
sentence “A few minutes later they showed us the film we had made” (Glover 1996: 103). It looks as if the meaning of this utterance is rather obvious.

In the next text, *At school in Scotland*, one can find the same amount of deictic expressions as in the former one. Opposed to the other text, a majority of the expressions are non-deictically used whereas the others are deictic. For instance, the use of *once* is typically non-deictic in the sentence, “We get exams too, and at least *once a year* the school sends a report card to our parents about how we are getting on” (Glover 1996: 72). One may say that this utterance does not refer to any particular time since the events seem to recur so often. Likewise, another example of non-deictic usage can be found in the sentence, “School starts and finishes at the same time *every day*” (Glover 1996: 73). The speaker, the girl, does not point to any particular time in context since she gives a general description of the school hours. On the other hand, similar to the text, *Star for a day*, the speaker may also refer to specific times of certain events. Take the sentence, “We may go on a winter sports holiday together *next year* - if we can afford it” (Glover 1996:74). Here the speaker seems to talk about a future event. Another example may be the sentence, “I’ve joined the drama club *this term* too” (Glover 1996: 74). Here, the girl seems to refer to a more present time event.

The final text, *The invaders who made Britain*, contains a few deictic expressions and a majority of them are non-deictically used whereas the rest of them are used deictically. The whole text seems to be a general historical description. An example of non-deictic usage is the sentence, “We know that people lived in Britain at least 250,000 years *before* Christ” (Glover 1996:30). There is no mistaking what the word *before* refers to in this general statement. The same assertion applies for the use of *today* in, “The Celts are important because they are the ancestors of many people who live in Wales and the Scottish highlands *today*” (Glover 1996: 30). However, deictic
usage may be exemplified by the word *now* in the context, “The land north of the wall they called ‘Caledonia’. “Most of that area is *now* Scotland” (Glover 1996: 30). The aim of the author seems to be to emphasise the connection between the second utterance and the former one. In other words, one may say that the two utterances should be interpreted in a particular order. Next, the results of the analysis of the various texts will be briefly summarised in relation to the diagrams.

3.4 Summary of results

Firstly, there seems to be a high amount of person deictic expressions, which include deictic usage, in the texts which involve many participants and which seem to constitute some sort of narrative, for instance as in the text, *Star for a day*. The texts which contain more informative descriptions seem to have few deictic expressions, for instance the text, *The invaders who made Britain*. Non-deictic usages of person deictic expressions are often found in texts which contain both informative and narrative descriptions like the texts *Board?- Grab a Board!* and *At school in Scotland*. The texts which seem to involve the speakers and the addressees have a lower amount of non-deictic usages. However, this statement concerns the text, *The invaders who made Britain*, as well, which may depend on the total amount of person deictic expressions since the text is rather short. The texts, *Board?- Grab a board!* and *Friendly Advice*, have the highest amount of non-deictic expressions which are anaphorically used, whereas the texts, *At school in Scotland* and *The invaders who made Britain*, have the smallest one.

Secondly, overall there seem to be fewer place deictic expressions in comparison with the person deictic expressions. The texts, *Friendly Advice*, and *Star for a day*, have the highest number of deictic usages whereas the text *Coca Cola* has the lowest one.
The highest amounts of non-deictic usages of place deictic expressions are found in the texts, *Board? - Grab a board!* and *Star for a day* whereas the lowest amount can be found in the texts, *Friendly Advice* and *The invaders who made Britain*, closely followed by the texts *Coca Cola* and *At school in Scotland*. The amount of anaphoric usages of the place deictic expressions seems to be rather equal in all of the texts, except for the dialogue, *Friendly Advice*, which does not contain any anaphoric usages.

Finally, the lowest amount of deictic expressions, on the whole, can be related to the time deictic expressions. The highest amounts of deictic usages are found in the texts, *Friendly Advice*, and *Star for a day*. The lowest amount is found in, *The invaders who made Britain*. The highest number of non-deictic usages is found in the dialogue, *Friendly Advice* whereas the text *Star for a day* has the lowest number. Now follows a section where the different findings will be discussed in relation to earlier research.

4. Discussion

The findings of the analysis of the texts in the two schoolbooks *Good stuff* and *Wings* indicate a varying amount of deictic expressions depending on the length, as well as the contents of the texts which include aspects of person, place and time.

To begin with, the use of the person deictic expressions seems to vary among the texts where a deictic usage is often found in the texts, which seems to involve both the author and the reader. Deictic usage may be exemplified by the use of pronouns like *you* and *I* where the texts seem to be presented from a more personal point of view at the same time as they address the reader. Owing to this, Roland Harweg discusses the various concepts of “obtrusive texts” which seem to appeal to the readers. He claims that these texts can be said to have a more personal and informal angle since they are not intended for informative purposes. Therefore, the introducing sentences in obtrusive
texts usually contain deictic expressions, for example “you” and “I” which can be used for preserving the contact with the readers (Harweg 1980: 313, 319-320). The effect may be that the reader can enter into the texts where he feels connected to the speaker of different contexts. Alison Garton and Chris Pratt state that, “in a narrative, the writer must set the scene for the reader and introduce the main actors” (Garton and Pratt 1989: 183). However, Furrow asserts that “[…] the more deictics in a narrative passage, the stronger the link with the reader, who is treated as a listener, as someone who can be made to picture and respond to the same events as the narrator has […] seen” (Furrow 1988: 375). Thus, as a reader, one has a more intimate contact with the various events in the texts. According to Widdowson (1979a, cited in Hedge 2000: 188), “[…] reading can be seen as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text, or even between the reader and the author”. However, Lesley Jeffries points out that “[…] first and second-person pronouns [like] (I, me, my, you(r) depend for their reference on who the speaker is and who the addressee is” (Jeffries 1998: 79). Thus, Michael McCarthy and Ronald Carter indicate that,

“in the first- person narrative, the voice that the reader hears is that of the main character, to whom the events of the story happened or are happening. […] this […] type […] contain overt references to the presence of the ‘listener’, and is much more truly ‘dialogic’ than third- person narration”

(McCarthy and Carter 1994: 19).

In spite of this, the interpretation of the deictic pronouns may be a bit difficult in a written context “[…] where [a] face-to-face contact is lost” (Levinson 1983: 71). Jeffries also emphasises that a profitable understanding of deictic words is dependent on the contextual information since the isolated meanings of the expressions are rather insignificant (Jeffries 1998: 76). That is to say, it is evident to relate the expressions to
the whole textual context. However, language learners may use different strategies for reading which may have an influence on the interpretation of various contexts. Ulrika Tornberg points out how some readers have difficulty in interpreting the cohesion of different utterances since they use the bottom up process where the words are separately decoded instead of contextually. Other readers may be more successful since they use the top down process which seems to be based on previous knowledge and where the context in its entirety seems to be emphasised (Tornberg 1997: 74).

On the contrary, non-deictic expressions seem to be commonly used in contexts where the author wants to give a general presentation of various matters. In these situations, the pronouns are not used for pointing at any specific persons since they seem to have a more all-embracing function. Thus, Furrow believes that “[…] deictic words [like] […] your […] and you [which are used] in a context which clearly shows them not to be deictic at all, […] may be colloquial stands-in for the indefinite pronoun one” (Furrow 1988: 370). A non-deictic usage is often found in the parts of the texts where the speaker gives an account of various facts or conditions in general and one may say that sometimes “[…] the addressee is taken to belong to a particular group [of] people” (Grundy 2000: 25). Thus, the descriptions seem to be intended for a large public. According to Christine Tanz, “the preferred forms of self-reference and addressee reference vary from culture to culture, for adults as well as for children” (Tanz 1980: 49). However, Grundy claims that the concepts of non-deictic usage can bring about various problems as a result of cultural linguistic distinctions where he exemplifies the English usage of the pronoun you since it can be both personally and generally interpreted (Grundy 2000: 25). Thus, one may find examples of this fact in the different texts where it sometimes can be difficult to distinguish the various usages of you.
Several of the non-deictic expressions are anaphorically used where they seem to refer to previously mentioned persons. Overall, a majority of the non-deictic expressions seem to be anaphoric. Yule claims, “after the initial introduction of some entity, speakers will use various expressions to maintain reference” (Yule 1996: 22). The speakers of the texts seem to use a good many anaphoric pronouns in passages which include descriptions or discussions. But Jefferies believes that “although third-person pronouns […] have shifting reference, the shift does not depend who the speaker is” (Jefferies 1998: 79). The anaphoric expressions may therefore not cause too many problems. Various pronouns like he, she, they and it seem to be used for keeping the various participants of the events and the discussions in order. Therefore, “anaphora can, of course, hold within sentences, across sentences, and across turns at speaking in a dialogue” (Levinson 1983: 86). However, McCarthy and Carter claim that “in the third-person narrative, the voice addressing the reader is that of the author, who recounts events as they occurred to fictional or historical characters” (McCarthy and Carter 1994: 19). Furthermore, Jefferies discusses the importance of referring pronouns where he claims that they may facilitate the interpretation of a text since the pronouns contribute to the distinguishing of the participants in a text, especially when there are very few people involved. An exaggerated use of names may be confusing in a text (Jefferies 1983: 163). Thus, a great many of the non-deictic expressions seem to be anaphorically used and particularly in contexts which contain descriptions of or conversations between the participants. However, according to Harweg, “[…] text beginnings may not contain expressions which presuppose preceding expressions outside the boundaries of the initial sentence […] [since] “anaphoric” expressions are those which look back to the content expressed earlier in the same text” (Harweg 980: 313). For this reason, the interpretation of the introducing sentence of the dialogue,
Friendly Advice, may be confusing when the first speaker of the dialogue says, “So you finally asked her out” (Coombs 2003: 88). The use of the pronoun her may indicate that the woman, whom her seems to refer to, has already been introduced into the context, which is not the case. In comparison, Tricia Hedge discusses some difficulties considering oral communication and language learning where she describes how certain “[…] pronouns […] substitute for previous noun phrases or even whole situations described earlier in [a] conversation. […] [Thus] interpretation of [a] topic by a listener who came in […] [later] would be impossible” (Hedge 2000: 51). However, in terms of school equipment, Mc Carthy and Carter describe how one may “[…] find all sorts of features […] that would be odd in a conversation in the real world” (Mc Carthy and Carter 1994: 195).

However, one may find various examples of place deictic expressions in the texts and the amount seems to distinguish between the different texts where deictic usage is often exemplified by pronouns like this and that, which may be used for indicating proximity or distance. The pronoun this, and sometimes the plural these, seem to be used in contexts where the speaker wants to describe more closely located objects and conditions whereas pronouns like that and those are found in sentences where a certain degree of remoteness seems to be emphasised. Thus, according to Jeffries, “[…] this and these refer to things that are either physically or psychologically near to the speaker whereas that and those refer to things that are distant from the speaker either physically or emotionally” (Jeffries 1998: 75). These statements may explain why distant matters in the texts may be pointed out by proximate pronouns or vice versa. Accordingly, Yule believes “[…] that the truly pragmatic basis of spatial deixis is actually psychological distance” (Yule 1996: 13). Therefore, the attitude towards various matters may be reflected in the utterances of the texts. The analysis also shows that this may be found
in contexts where it functions as an introducing pronoun whereas *that* seems to refer to former utterances, which can be related to the fact that “[…] *this* can be used to refer to a forthcoming portion of the discourse, […] and *that* to a preceding portion” (Levinson 1985: 85). However, Levinson points out “there is also a systematic neutralization of the proximal-distal dimension when it is not especially relevant” (Levinson 1983: 81). The pronouns *this* and *these* seem therefore to be used in contexts where *that* and *those* might be suitable as well. Furthermore, the comprehension of different pronouns may be an important factor considering language learning. Hedge claims that “[…] inability to understand the cohesive devices in a text will impede understanding of the functional relationships of sentences. Cohesive devices include such things as reference items (for example, […] ‘these matters’)”(Hedge 2000: 192). Furthermore, in terms of small children, Tanz points out how “some of the indexical terms of nomination (*this, that […]*) first occur alone in early speech and then gradually with referential terms. But in early speech the distinction between deixis and full symbolic reference is in effect neutralized” (Tanz 1980: 3-4).

Deictic use of the adverbs *here* and *there* is also found in the different texts where the usages seem to depend on whether the locations are closely or distantly situated. The adverb *here* seems to be used in contexts where the speaker wants to describe a familiar and nearby environment, whereas the adverb *there* is used in situations where a particular location is considered to be further away from the speaker. For this reason, “the adverbs *here* and *there* are [therefore] often thought of as simple contrasts on a proximal / distal dimension, stretching away from the speaker’s location” (Levinson 1983: 80). Furthermore, Grundy believes that “[…] we should also expect intercultural variation in the way that speakers encode the relationships of themselves to the world around them” (Grundy 2000: 36-37). Due to this fact, an author’s usage of the pronouns
here and there in various texts may be based on his personal view of the surrounding world as well. For this reason, McCarthy and Carter believe that words like here and there are dependent on the context of the text where the environmental aspects of the speakers are important. They also claim that texts which contain these types of words may be “[…] useful in language teaching for raising awareness of differences in usage of pronouns […]”, especially for speakers of languages where the distinctions are not the same as those in the target language” (Mc Carthy and Carter 1994: 67-68).

However, based on certain studies of very small children it was found

“[…] that some language context ‘units’ are more easily interpretable, more transparent than others. The meanings of terms that relate to contexts in more transparent ways will be discovered earlier […] [where] aspects of the relation between the concepts and the words that attach to them [are important]” (Tanz 1980: 164).

Therefore, the acquisition of deictic terms may be considered to happen in a specific order.

Place deixis can also be related to specific verbs like come and go which are usually connected with movements away from or towards the speaker, even if there may be exceptions as well. By using verbs like come or go “it is […] possible to mark whether movement is happening towards the speaker’s location […] or away from the speaker’s location” (Yule 1985: 130). Thus, one may say that the usages of verbs like come and go in the various texts are dependent on whether situations and the actions of different participants are taking place in directions towards or away from the speakers. However, a verb like come seems to be used in an opposite manner as well where it is used for describing movements towards a more distant location which concern the various participants, including the speakers. This notion can be related to the fact that “[…]
there is a deictic usage of *come* that is based not on participant’s actual location, but on their normative location or **home-base** [..] [which is used] when neither speaker nor addressee is at home” (Levinson 1983: 84). One may say that the verb *come* may be used for movements towards a location where the participants are expected to be in an immediate future. On account of the verb *come*, Furrow asserts that “[…] speakers [may] adopt their listeners’ point of view” (Furrow 1988: 366). As a result, “[…] the speaker […] [may] [be] moving towards the location of the addressee” (Levinson 1983: 83). Owing to this, McCarthy and Carter point out how “[…] textbook writers [may] [be] very skilful […] in utilizing a genre (a child’s personal narrative) […], with simple sentences and few distractions from the verb-forms that are to be focused upon” (McCarthy and Carter 1994: 198). As a result, it may be easier for the reader of the text to acquaint himself with the contents of the text. On the contrary, Fillmore claims that a narrator can also use a verb like *come* in contexts where he seems to imagine a referential centre and where the locations of the speaker and the reader are excluded” (Fillmore 1997: 98). This fact may explain why the verb *come* can be used for describing more distant situations and actions in a text.

Non-deictic usage of place deictic expressions may be found in the texts where the speaker wants to give a more general description of different matters, independent of various viewpoints, and a common feature is that certain words may be regarded as ordinary expressions when they are used together with other linguistic entities, for example prepositions. Levinson describes the non-deictic usage as a situation where “[…] the deictic term […] [is] being relativized to the text instead of to the situation of utterance” (Levinson 1983: 67). That is to say, the different expressions do not seem refer to any particular locations. For instance, the pronoun *that* can be used in a more general way where it does not relate to a specific place in the context. Other examples
may be the usages of the words *outside* and *on* in the expressions, “[…] outside the cinema” (Coombs 2003: 89) and “I had to go *on* stage” (Glover 1996: 102). The expressions seem to be non-deictic since they are “[…] used to show position relative to a point independent of both speaker and listener” (Furrow 1988: 366). According to Fillmore, “a number of nouns […] seem to have their dimensionality properties built in, because they are more or less limited to occurring with [a] […] [preposition] [like] “on”” (Fillmore 1997: 30). The general meaning of the expressions seems to remain unchanged even if the observers’ viewpoints will be changed.

However, a few of the non-deictic expressions seem to be anaphorically used which the adverb *there* and the pronoun *those* may exemplify, but sometimes it may be difficult to distinguish anaphoric and deictic usage. The adverb *there* and the pronoun *those* are considered to be anaphoric since they can be used when “[…] new referent[s] [are] introduced and later [they] [are] referred to again” (Jeffries 1998: 157). In the various texts, the adverbs and the pronouns seem to refer to already mentioned places and objects. However, sometimes it may be difficult to distinguish anaphoric usage from deictic usage. For this reason, Levinson states that “deictic […] expressions are often used to introduce a referent, and anaphoric pronouns used to refer to the same entity thereafter” (Levinson 1983: 86). According to the analysis, anaphora and deixis might be ambiguous since the expressions in various sentences can exemplify both anaphoric and deictic usages. Thus, “[…] the proliferation of different kinds of usage of deictic terms is a source of considerable potential confusion to the analyst” (Levinson 1983: 67). However, “extending our knowledge of the effects of textbooks on learning will bring about new, or improved, criteria for textbook selection” (van Els, Bongaerts, Extra, van Os and Janssen –van Dieten 1984: 307).
On the other hand, the analysis indicates that there are rather few time deictic expressions in the texts, in comparison with the amount of person and place deictic expressions, where the number of expressions seems to be rather similar between the various texts, except for a few exceptions. Deictic usage can be exemplified by utterances which contain words like today, before and now and the interpretation of the expressions may be difficult sometimes since they are used in a literary context instead of oral speech. Firstly, the highest amounts of time deictic expressions are found in texts which contain a great many actions and events in relation to the various participants. Thus, “[…] time deixis makes ultimate reference to participant-role” (Levinson 1983: 73). Moreover, Furrow claims that “[…] the percentage of deictic constructions in a passage is higher when the narrator is openly and not just implicitly looking at the scene he describes” (Furrow 1988: 369). One may say that the text may be more vivid since the speaker seems to be involved from a more personal point of view when he refers to various points of time. Thus, one needs to remember “[…] that the degree of difficulty of a text […] [may be] determined […] by […] the subject matter of the text, the way in which the writer approaches the subject, and the knowledge the learners already have about the subject” (van Els, Bongaerts, Extra, van Os and Janssen –van Dieten 1984: 222). On the contrary, a smaller amount of time deictic expressions is found in the short and descriptive text, *The invaders who made Britain*. According to Furrow, “[…] the fewer deictics, the more the speaker diminishes” (Furrow 1988: 375). The limited amount of time deictic expressions seems therefore to refer to the historical descriptions without any personal involvement of the speaker. Secondly, words like today and before seem to be used for indicating contrasts between various points of time in the utterances. According to Levinson, “we may […] include in discourse deixis […] [that] an utterance signals its relation to surrounding
Therefore, as a reader one has to consider the whole context to be able to understand the meaning of the various utterances. However, since the utterances, which contain the deictics *today* and *before*, are found in written contexts, it may be difficult to distinguish the original time of the utterances. Thus, Garton and Pratt believe that “[…] comprehension of the written word often requires integrating complex information across extended discourse to a much greater extent than spoken language does” (Garton and Pratt 1989: 210). However, one may assume that the original time of the utterances, which include words like *today* and *before*, can be related to the time when the specific sentences was written. Thus, Levinson states that, “time deixis concerns the encoding of temporal points and spans *relative* to the time at which an utterance was spoken” (Levinson 1983: 62). Finally, the deictic usage of the word *now* can be found in contexts where it seems to be used for referring to a particular time in relation to an earlier utterance. It seems to be used for indicating a present point of time in relation to a former utterance. In the text, the comparison can be related to a historical description in relation to a present one. “Thus, “*now* can be glossed as ‘the time at which the speaker is producing the utterance containing ‘*now’”’ (Levinson 1983: 73). However, one may assume that the intention of the author is to point to a more general point of time and not the moment when the sentence is written. Fillmore asserts that specific moments of time can be emphasised by the use of words like *right* and *just*, as in *right now* or *just now* (Fillmore 1997: 68). But these expressions would probably have been very unsuitable in the context which is found in one of the textbooks. Certainly, in language learning “[…] it is necessary to ensure that the written word is clearly expressed and in a way that avoids unnecessary repetition” (Garton and Pratt 1989: 182).
Other examples of deictic usages can be related to expressions like *last year, next year and this term*. The deictic expressions, *last year* and *next year*, seem to be used for referring to past or future events in the various contexts. Thus, the usages may be ambiguous since “[...] these expressions depend for their interpretation on knowing the relevant utterance of time” (Yule 1996: 14). That is to say, the understanding of the expressions *last year* and *next year* seems to be dependent on what year it was when the expressions were uttered. For this reason, the expressions may be rather difficult to interpret since they are literary used. Owing to this:

“There is much in the structure of languages that can only be explained on the assumption that they have developed for communication in face-to face interaction” (Lyons, 1977a, quoted in Levinson, 1983, p. 63).

Thus, “language learning is [...] a dynamic process in which learning how to [...] understand texts and their variation is crucial” (Mc Carthy and Carter 1994: 38). Another deictic example may be the use of the expression *this term* which seems to be used in contexts where the speaker points to events which can be said to take place in present time. Accordingly,

“Like all aspects of deixis, time deixis makes ultimate reference to participant- role. [...] *[this term]* can be glossed as ‘the time at which the speaker is producing the utterance containing *[this term]*. It is important to distinguish the moment of utterance [...] from the moment of reception” (Levinson 1983: 73).

Thus, the reader of the text may interpret the utterance in a way which is in accordance with his own picture of the time. However, Fillmore discusses the concepts of the referring of time in relation to calendrical and nocalendrical units where he indicates how the characteristics of a language make it possible to manipulate time. He brings forward, among other things, that time may be described from various sorts of units...
which can be related to the time of various utterances. As a result, by using a word like *this*, for example as in *this week*, a speaker refers to a specific period, in this case the week, where his utterance is included. Words like *last*, as in *last week*, or *next*, as in *next week*, refer to periods either before or after a specific utterance (Fillmore 1997: 69-71).

Certain non-deictic usages can be found in the text where the utterances seem to refer to more general conditions of the time which may be exemplified by expressions like *every year*, *later on* and *long before*. A common feature for all these expressions is, similarly to the non-deictic place expressions, that “[…] they do not have the peculiarity of shifting according to the speaker and the speaker’s location” (Furrow 1988: 366). The utterances, which include the expressions above, seem to be statements that are more general since they do not refer to any specific point of time. When reading the sentences, which include the temporal expressions, one does not seem to come across any marks of interrogation.

However, based on the various discussions above, one may assume that “[…] insights from discourse analysis can help teachers refine their decision making processes of text selection and can help them towards a more principled basis on which […] they can organize their textual examples in purposeful and progressive ways” (McCarthy and Carter 1994: 21).

5. Conclusion

To sum up, deixis deals with the referring function of various words and expressions within the field of pragmatics. There are different types of deixis in the form of person, place and time deixis. The expressions can be considered to have a deictic, non-deictic or anaphoric usage depending on their referring function. By analysing the amount of
deictic expressions in different texts in two English schoolbooks, the aim of this essay is to study how deictic expressions are used in the textbooks and what influences they may have on the interpretation of the texts. The hypothesis is that the different usages and amounts of deictic expressions in English textbooks are dependent on the contents and the formulations of the various texts.

The analysis shows that the highest amount of deictic expressions can be found among the person deictic expressions. Deictic usage can be exemplified by pronouns like *I, you* and *we* which are often used in texts which seem to appeal to both the narrator and the reader where the various events seem to be presented from a more personal angle. Thus, one can regard reading as a dialogue between the author and the reader where a first-person narrative may involve the reader in a more personal way. However, since deictic reference is dependent on the speaker, as well as the addressee, the interpretation of the deictic expressions may be difficult in a written context. The context is also an important factor in the interpretation of the deictic expressions since a separate expression may be rather insignificant. Therefore, the interpretation of various contexts can be dependent on the different strategies of the readers. That is to say, the readers may use the *bottom up* process where they put stress on the separate words in a context, whereas the *top down* process emphasises the context as a whole. However, non-deictic usage is often found in the texts which contain more general descriptions of various events. The pronouns seem to have a more all-embracing function where the reader may be considered to belong to a larger group of people which can be addressed by the pronoun *you*. However, the interpretation of *you* may be ambiguous because of its personal, as well as general meaning. A great many of the non-deictic expressions seem to be anaphorically used where the various expressions, which may be exemplified by pronouns like *he, she* and *they*, refer to already mentioned participants,
especially in descriptive and discussing contexts and where a third-person narrative may bring out the voice of the author himself. An anaphoric expression in an introducing sentence may be confusing since it is considered to refer to an entity in a former context. Thus, it may be difficult to work out educational materials which depict situations in the real world.

The amount of place deictic expressions seems to be lower in comparison with the person deictic expressions. Deictic usages can be exemplified by the pronouns *this* and *that* where the former pronoun can be used for indicating proximity whereas the latter can be used for pointing out distance, which can be related to physical, as well as mental aspects where various attitudes may be included. As a result, the pronouns can be oppositely used as well. The pronouns *this* and *that* seem also to be used in contexts where they refer to either a forthcoming utterance or a preceding one. In certain contexts, the use of *this* and *that* can be said to have a neutralised meaning. However, it is important to have cognizance about the meanings of various pronouns and other referring elements since it may improve the contextual knowledge of various texts. The deictic usage of the adverbs *here* and *there* can be found in the texts where the narrator refers either to a nearby location or to a distant one. Intercultural aspects may also have an influence on an author’s usage of *here* and *there*. However, in language learning the awareness of the differences between pronouns like *here* and *there* can be useful since there may be distinctions between various languages. Specific verbs like *come* and *go*, which can be related to movements, may also be examples of deictic usages in various texts. By using verbs like *come* and *go* the narrator can indicate whether the actions are taking place towards him or away from him. Sometimes the verb *come* can be oppositely used as well which depends on the “home-base” of the speaker and the addressee. However, based on a specific genre, the authors of various textbooks may
present the various events from a character’s point of view, which may simplify the interpretation of the text. Non-deictic usage of the place deictic expressions seem to be common in contexts where the narrator describes more general locations which seem to be independent of the viewpoints of the participants in the various conversations. Non-deictic usage of place deixis may also be exemplified by various expressions which may include a composition of nouns and prepositions. We earlier claimed that place deictic expressions can be both anaphorically and deictically used and this fact concerns the adverb there and the pronoun those, which can be found in the various contexts where they seem to refer to earlier mentioned locations and objects.

The lowest amount of deictic expressions in the various texts can be related to time deixis. A possible reason for this fact may be that the time expressions seem to be generally used for pointing out aspects of time in relation to the various activities in the texts where a limited usage of the expressions may be evident for preserving the understanding of the contexts. The highest amount of time deictic expressions are found in the most “active” texts. That is to say, texts which include a great many events and participants. However, the interpretation of various texts may be dependent on the contents, as well as the author’s descriptions and the previous knowledge of the readers. The lowest amount seems to be used in the more descriptive texts, which may be related to the fact that they contain fewer activities. The descriptive passages may be longer and they do not need to be supported by several temporal expressions. Deictic usage of the time deictic expressions can be related to words like today, before and now which seem to be used for indicating differences of time in the contents of various utterances where the contexts seem to be very important since the time deictic expressions may also be difficult to interpret in written contexts. Therefore, information that is more complex is needed for the understanding of textual contexts in comparison to spoken
contexts. However, expressions like last and next year, as well as this term, can be counted among the deictic usages as well and they seem to be used in various contexts for referring to past, future or present time which seem to be based on the original time of various utterances in relation to calendrical and noncalendrical units. The non-deictic usages of the time deictic expressions seem to be common in utterances of the texts where the narrator refers to more general time perspectives independent of the time of the utterances. Lastly, by expanding their knowledge about the contents, structure, as well the purpose of various texts, the teachers may improve their possibilities to make progressive selections of texts which may result in a fruitful language learning.
References


