DOMINANT INVICTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS
OF MANIPULATION IN ENGLISH NEWSPAPER TEXTS

Bibliographic Description:

Abstract
The importance of the media in relation to the problems caused by risk and uncertainty, which led to potential distortions with a significant impact on public opinion, is outlined. There is a contradiction in the hypothesis that the press in its content is a tool to encourage negative attitudes towards people who may be the probable cause of violence and a propagandist of widespread invective beliefs. The peculiarities of the reflection of the issue of migrants on the pages of English newspapers are analyzed. Examples of negative appeals in the columns of English newspapers are presented. Significant results of the research through the prism of polarized and aggressive materials of the English-language press in the context of different countries are noted. Emphasis is placed on the negative approach to the coverage of immigration and ethnic relations, as well as the reflection of the stereotypical image of a bad doctor. It is indicated that the obtained factual material of the image-stereotype structure consists of a certain set of components of nuclear and peripheral qualifiers. The most common problems in the context of the relationship in the “doctor-patient” system are highlighted. Similarities and differences in stereotypes within the analyzed linguistic cultures are revealed. The content and reasons for using the neutralization strategy to reproduce the invective are characterized. The strategy of stylistic replacement in the conditions of expediency of changing the language expression to a language function of the target culture similar in its functions is singled out. Stylistic amplification (or emphasis) and cases of its appropriate application are considered. It is noted that for the purpose of language aggression neologisms with inherent evaluation and adherent evaluation can be used. It is stipulated that the detection of invective vocabulary is relevant in the linguistic examination of controversial texts in cases of insult.

Keywords: public opinion, mass media, linguistics, marker, nuclear classifier.
1. Introduction.
Focusing on negative information can be a smart way to manage a complex news environment. People usually need to change their behaviour or the assessment of politicians when something goes wrong, not when something goes right. Therefore, in the case of having an unlimited amount of time to pay attention to everything, there is the need to focus on information that requires change if all this negativity does not lead to extreme skepticism or alienation.

2. Literature Review.
The society notes the powerful expansion of the non-normative language elements with apprehension, emphasizing that it poses a serious danger to a stable literary language, as it undermines the established system of language norms, leads to the degradation of the general culture of communication. However, the sharp increase in the share of abusive vocabulary and invective in language is not only a consequence of current social phenomena, but also due to historical traditions of the language itself, processes whose roots lie in the depths of human development, which is most acutely manifested in the conditions of totalitarianism. The above-mentioned fact indicates a high level of invective activity in modern society, which is explained, in particular, by the dominance of negative emotions that dominate the communicative continuum, and which requires its thorough scientific qualification.

While writing the article, the scientific achievements of a number of scholars were taken into account, whose works are the theoretical basis of our study. M. Bagan studied the category of negation in the Ukrainian language, notably its functional-semantic and ethnolinguistic manifestations (Баган, 2012). T. Betsenko paid attention to highlighting the principles of research of textual images in Ukrainian folk dumas. L. Bilokonenko paid attention to pejorative and invective vocabulary in interpersonal conflict (Білоконенко, 2012). V. Glushchenko outlined the structure of the linguistic method in Ukrainian linguistics of the late 20th – early 21st centuries (Глущенко, 2016). I. Grabovenko focused on the linguistic dimensions of PR action in mass media political discourse (Грабовенко, 2012). O. Guz identified the peculiarities of the expression of verbal aggression in mass media discourse. A. Davydenko singled out the linguistic aspects of the translation of profanity (Давіденко, 2015). N. Yesypenko singled out the basic Anglo-Saxon linguistic and cultural concepts using cognitive and quantitative approaches (based on the English prose of the 18th and 20th centuries) (Сипенко, 2012). G. Zankovskaya systematized the methods of conceptual analysis in modern cognitive linguistics (Заньковська, 2014). O. Kuzik identified the cognitive and communicative features of speech aggression in political discourse (based on electronic publications in the United States and Great Britain) (Кузик, 2019). N. Plotnikova presented an algorithm for analyzing the linguistic and cultural concept (Плотнікова, 2013).

3. Aim and Objectives.
The aim of the research is to analyze and determine the dominant invective constructions of manipulative orientation in English-language newspaper texts. It is necessary to solve a number of objectives, such as: to identify stereotypes with a set of components of core and peripheral qualifiers; analyze similarities and differences in stereotypes within the studied linguistic cultures; structure the obtained results.

4. Methodology.
Research methods and techniques are subordinated to the objectives of the study and are determined by the specifics of the object under consideration. The work uses a
descriptive method in its deductive and inductive orientation, as well as various types of analysis, namely: contextual, definitional, comparative, component ones; interpretive analysis of text fragments, functional analysis of utterances, methods of linguistic observation, classification and systematization.


5. Results.

The behaviour of newspaper employees reflects a key indicator of their activity, that is, finding the target audience. In turn, experience (and sales) indicates the value of negative information. For example, newspaper sales increase significantly when the cover is negative rather than positive. So, it becomes obvious that readers are more attracted by the negative news. Therefore, it is not surprising that the “days of good news” lead to a significant reduction in the readership. Indeed, other studies show that even when participants say they would like more positive news, they still choose news that is mostly negative. Even though columns emphasize good qualities, human habits of news consumption still prefer negative information.

The reasons for giving preference to negative news rather than positive one have been the subject of detailed study. Attention should be paid to the achievements of psychology, economics and political communications to suggest that people may be neurologically or physiologically inclined to focus on negative information.

The argument has its roots in the evolutionary-biological analysis of how people decide what to look for. The proof states that it is evolutionarily advantageous to prefer negative information because the potential costs of negative information far outweigh the potential benefits of positive information. As a result, the human brain tends to focus on negative information.

It is also worth considering the implications of the media for the tone of the news content that the reader receives. If we increasingly receive news content through social media pages, and if readers tend to pass on positive rather than negative information, then we can expect a tone of “news flow” (all news received by traditional or non-traditional means) to become more positive overall. Whether or not the world is really getting worse, the nature of the news will interact with the nature of cognition to make one think so.

Among the things that happen, the positive and the negative unfold in different terms. This news is far from “the first project of history”, but closer to sports comments from game to game. It focuses on individual events, usually those that occurred after the last edition (in previous times, the day before, now, seconds before).

The most effective strategy of propaganda is presupposition and implication as inconsistent parts of the semantics of euphemism. The propagandistic model of euphemism, i.e. its ideological framing, is well hidden. The advantage of this method of concealment is the reduction of rational control over what has been transmitted. Political media is always twofold. They have several levels of interpretation: an official, consistent version, followed by a more sensitive one, which should remain as long as possible, without any consequences for the speaker’s responsibility.

The study focuses on deliberate and purposeful invectives, which mainly serve functions such as manipulating the mass consciousness and discrediting one’s political opponent/opponents, evoking expected emotions and influencing their “weaknesses”. The rich functional-discursive potential and pragmatic nature of such units raises the important question of the correct translation of invectives in political newspaper texts, which not only
often become sensitive material, considering the ethical issue of taboo language, but also the challenge of overcoming other lexical, grammatical and cultural inconsistencies that make the work of the translator more complicated. Therefore, we argue that the correct reflection of the invective helps to prevent misunderstandings between communicators in the process of intercultural interaction. In addition, the correct interpretation of the speaker’s intentions, and, consequently, its adequate reproduction in the translation of political discourse, is one of the fundamental conditions that contribute to the communicative success of high-level conversations.

Information aggression can involve both direct persuasion and manipulative influence, between which, in this case, it is difficult to draw a clear line. In our opinion, aggressive discourse can be considered in the framework of manipulation, because in more direct forms of influence, it is ultimately aimed at manipulating public opinion, to form an image of the enemy, which must be fought. This fact allows us to consider aggression as a manipulative belief, which should be distinguished from the open belief, which was observed, as it has already been mentioned, in parliamentary speeches or discussions in the media.

Since in media discourse aggression can be expressed by both verbal and non-verbal means, along with the term language aggression, we propose to use the term “information or media” aggression, which is broader than language one and considers aggression based on multimodality. The feature that helps to differentiate between manipulation and aggression is as follows. Language manipulation is a hidden influence on the cognitive and behavioral activity of the addressee, while language aggression is an open expression of hostility to the referent and intrusion into the cognitive space of the addressee.

The role of the media in addressing risk and uncertainty issues is of particular concern, which has caused potential distortions with significant public impact. The importance of newspapers in disseminating Wakefield’s research concerning MMR was a good example. It resulted in the situation when many parents refused from the triple vaccine for their children and vaccination levels fell below critical thresholds, leading to an increase in the measles incidence: “The MMR debate emerged at a time when public trust in government pronouncements on science and risk had already been severely tested. During the 1990s, the UK had been embroiled in uncertainty and anxiety over a possible connection between BSE in cattle and what has come to be known as variant Creutzfeld Jakob Disease (vCJD). Fearing a crisis of public confidence, and its possible effects on the farming industry, the government reassured the public that it was impossible to contract the disease from eating beef. In 1990, a statement was issued by Chief Medical Officer, Sir Donald Acheson, saying that after reviewing all the scientific and medical evidence, he was confident that ‘beef can be eaten safely by everyone, both adults and children, including patients in hospital’” (BBC, 2000 URL: https://www.bbc.com). At the same time, larger but less visible risks, such as diabetes or death on the roads, receive less coverage.

Claims that the press is inherently racist and it perpetuates racism to such an extent, that it may even be a potential cause of racist violence by advocating “popular” racist beliefs, are highly controversial. In addition, they were often made on the basis of scanty empirical evidence, and at best by repeating the same well-known examples, without information to what extent such cases were representative for the norm. Although such perspectives have been influential in British media and race research, their limited theoretical perspective on the role of the media in everyday life and their anti-racist campaign programme provide few empirical research materials to assess the actual state of affairs of media coverage and ethnic minority representation. This makes their usage difficult for today’s comparing with the past situation and for assessing whether there have been significant improvements.
Instead, perhaps the main impact of this study was political rather than academic purpose, that is, it promoted reports in British “racial relations” and liberal circles that the media was closely linked to the perpetuation of racism in society due to the cause: “Although white privilege and white nationalism are both products of white supremacy, they may at times be antithetical and hostile to one another. In fact, our discussion of professional journalism demonstrates that white professional media (racial privilege) is often antagonistic toward white nationalist media. White nationalist media’s pronounced racism and use of ‘alternative facts’ is a direct threat to the seemingly objective and multicultural anti-racism of white professional media. Even so, professional journalism’s desire to defend and police itself against white nationalist newspapers helps to reinforce white professional media’s investment in color-blind rhetoric and its dependency on white nationalism as a means of affirming its own value. In the end, white supremacy in the news media and in society more broadly escapes critique as white privilege and white nationalism attempt to maneuver against one another” (Alamo-Pastrana & Hoynes, 2020, p. 71–72).

To avoid the tautological position of cultural research that “the media is always racist”, it is worth noting previous empirical studies that, over time and by media type, outlined and analyzed the thematic content of media reports covering issues related to the migrants and minorities (figure 1). In addition, it should be done for solving even more complex societal issues, such as: whether media coverage and presentation of racial violence in society contribute to public perception or it will require a much more sophisticated type of analysis than simply viewing media reports. For example, it will involve the study of relevant factors and cognitive processes; verbal aspects as well as some non-linguistic ‘tricks’ (Ponton, 2016).

Figure 1. Display of the issue of migrants in the columns of English newspapers

During the seven days before the referendum in Britain, the anti-free movement attitude peaked in the British press, which was predominantly pro-Brexit at the time, with more than 41% (or 50 of 121) stories analyzed. There was adopting of biases that were clearly opposed to migrants (and, in many cases, immigrants in general). It was the week that began when UKIP leader of that time Nigel Farage unveiled his ‘Breaking Point’ poster (infamous now), which deceptively framed images of Syrian migrants crossing the Croatian-Slovenian border as a sign of the EU’s free movement (figure 2).
Stories about migrants in the immediate aftermath of the referendum were predominantly connected with concerns about the potential damage to Britain’s economic competitiveness. They include warnings that the cessation of free movement could interfere with everything from a supposed London Stock Exchange merger to an upcoming premiership.

The most striking result of the study is how polarized and aggressive reports from the British press (figure 3) are compared to reports from other countries.

In most countries, newspapers, both left and right, were usually reporting news using the same sources. They also presented similar topics and provided similar explanations and solutions to the crisis. However, the British press was different. While The Guardian and, to a lesser extent, the (Daily) Mirror, have published a number of humanitarian topics and sources sympathetic to the plight of refugees, the right press has consistently endorsed a tough approach to refugees and migrants: “We were told the UK was full up and there was no room for anyone else. Images of the world’s poor on the verge of ‘invading’ Britain were painted in numerous articles. Immigration was, supposedly, a crisis of unimaginable
proportions. The daily newspaper diet of large anti-migrant headlines, accompanied by xenophobic columnists retailing thinly veiled racist rhetoric, was so common it became a cliché for us critics to complain about it. Yet as much as we railed against it, editors redoubled their efforts, ignoring rational arguments that exposed their distorted agenda” (The Guardian, 2020 URL: https://www.theguardian.com/media/2020/jan/26/migrants-are-off-the-agenda-for-the-uk-press-but-the-damage-is-done).

In the low proportion of articles on humanitarian issues (Daily Mail 20.9%, The Sun 7.1%, the EU average of 38.3%), as well as in a high percentage of articles highlighting the threat of refugees and migrants, there are articles related to the British social security system and benefits (The Daily Telegraph 15.8%, Daily Mail 41.9%, The Sun 26.2%, the EU average of 8.9%).

However, in the more right-wing The Daily Telegraph, Daily Mail and The Sun both the EU’s quota plans and the UNO were condemned for failing to recognize the “social impact of what many Europeans see as uncontrolled and illegal immigration”. In The Daily Telegraph and the Daily Mail, these views were mainly expressed in editorials and commentaries, while in The Sun the key forum was the letters page. A typical example of this is as follows: “Well done, Katie Hopkins, for saying it how it is. Immigrants do not have a gun to their heads when they board these boats and are aware of the risks. They have only one thing in mind. Get to England and then screw the taxpayers for every penny they can get” (Carrington, 2015).

The first thing to note is that issues related to immigration and asylum policy are a strong thematic focus for all newspapers except The (Daily) Mirror, which, in any case, had a much lower level of reporting than other newspapers. This was especially true of the center-right newspapers The Times and the Daily Mail, which accounted for about half of all reports, and focused mainly on policy issues related to the treatment of immigrants and foreigners (The Times – 23.5%, Daily Mail – 29.3%). It might seem that the Daily Mail, for instance, accepts immigration and asylum as campaign issues, as 11.6% of all its articles were editorials, compared to only 1.6% in The Times. In contrast, the centre-left newspaper The Guardian focused more on racist and anti-racist activities in civil society (39.8%), including racial abuse and anti-Semitism in particular (21.5%). This shows the difference in the internal orientation of broadcasters on migration issues: centre-right newspapers are more likely to report on immigration and asylum, while centre-left newsletters are more likely to report on civil society, combating racist acts in the public domain and campaigning for minorities themselves.

With the exception of the Daily Mail, stories of racial attacks and violence and cases of racial abuse are the main topics of more than 15% of all other newspapers. This indicates that racial attacks, violence and cases of racial abuse are treated in such a way that they occupy a high position on the news agenda. However, the activity of anti-racist movements in the public domain was unlikely to be the main topic of any news, while with the exclusion of the activity of the postal ethnic minority was less likely to be the main topic of news than extreme right-wing activity in all newspapers.

In spite of that, it should not be taken as a sign that ethnic minorities do not receive news space to formulate their demands when they are reported in the news, or that they receive less space than the far right. Half of The (Daily) Mirror’s report focuses on civil society activism in the immigration / racial sphere, and more than a fifth of its coverage (21.1%) focuses on the activities of the extreme oriented ones. This can be considered a sign of The (Daily) Mirror, perceiving it as a problem of the campaign.

Unlike The (Daily) Mirror, The Sun has a more complete coverage of racial / immigration issues. The Sun focuses a third of its attention on institutional issues of
minority support, and state support of minorities (19.0%) in particular, which can be seen as an issue in which the newspaper plays a leading role – although not necessarily on minorities. It is worth noting that the issue of crime and minorities was not much more prominent as a topic in The Sun news than in other newspapers. This seems to contradict the generally accepted interpretation of previous research, especially from the cultures of the background study described previously, which accused The Sun of relating minorities to crime. Interviews with editors and journalists showed that differences in newspaper coverage of race and immigration were likely to be the result of different general editorial positions and institutional self-perceptions of the newspaper’s own position.

Issues concerning immigration and ethnic relations fall under the general practice of reporting and are covered by correspondents’ law, domestic affairs and crime. Thus, the newspaper considers itself a ‘pro-police’ newspaper or has good relations, and sources in the Home Office, which influences the way it reports on ‘race’ issues. Barriers to the result may be a more positive representation of minorities in general institutional and established reporting practices that are more open to the views expressed by other types of factors, including official sources.

The factual material in the English language (British media) also reflects the stereotype of a bad doctor. For example, on the portal “Mymedinform” there is an article “How to recognize a bad doctor?”. To warn patients, the following list of qualities, that can help a patient identify an incompetent specialist, is given in the text, namely: a bad reputation; lack of certificates of advanced training; extortion; a quick examining; intimidation; lack of diagnosis; prescribing drugs that can only be purchased at a particular pharmacy; incorrectly chosen treatment that does not bring positive results; lack of humanity.

The factual material of the research allows us to identify, similarly to the Ukrainian language, a certain set of components of its core and peripheral qualifiers in the structure of the stereotype image “a bad doctor”. Core qualifiers directly reflect the professional sphere, pointing to the unprofessionalism of the doctor. These included: “medical error”, “medical error leading to patient’s death”, “malicious damage to health”, “inaction”, “negligence”, “long wait for help”, “refusal of medical assistance”, “violation of medical ethics”, “punishment”.

As the main means of representing the leading core qualifier “medical error” and the sub-qualifier indicating the highest degree of medical error – “medical error leading to patient’s death” – the following ones were defined:

– quantitative indications of an excessive amount in combination with graphic means. For example, one can observe the emphasizing of the medical term “OVERDOSE”, which intensifies the inattention of medical staff: “Sleep apnea patient was given a ketamine OVERDOSE after surgeons accidentally administered for 10 days the dose of anesthesia” (Daily mail, 2008 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html);

– markers of unprofessionalism, such as word forms of different parts of speech with a negative prefix, for example: un in “unnecessary” (superfluous): “And it claims an ‘epidemic of misinformation’ has led to patients receiving unnecessary tests and prescriptions – and being diagnosed and treated for conditions that will never cause them harm. “A culture of ‘more is better’ has put the onus on doctors to do something at every consultation,” says Dr Aseem Malhotra, a consultant cardiologist who outlines the aims of Choosing Wisely in the British Medical Journal” (The (Daily) Mirror, 2017 URL: https://www.mirror.co.uk);

– negative prefix mis as in “misdiagnosed” (with wrong diagnosis): “A woman was misdiagnosed with ‘eating disorder’ after she dropped 8 stone in just one year while unknowingly battling thyroid cancer” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.
The family met with 30 doctors – but they would misdiagnose her with a different ailment from juvenile arthritis to connecting tissue disorder or dismiss her pain" (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). There can also be used evaluative adjectives (with negative evaluation), for example: “a dentist with dirty equipment”; adverbs of a certain manner: “repeatedly”, “finally”, “accidentally”, “mistakenly”;

– nominations of diseases that indicate a misdiagnosis, in combination with ‘as’ in most cases: “A toddler, who nearly died after doctors meningitis as tonsillitis, survived because his mother trusted her gut and insisted she should be treated” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html); “A seven-year-old started fitting and had to be rushed to hospital after becoming infected with life-threatening Aussie flu that was dismissed as tonsillitis” (The (Daily) Mirror, 2018 URL: https://www.mirror.co.uk); “I had all this pain and extreme tiredness but they kept putting it down to irritable bowel syndrome and ME. I had been driving back from my work in Redhill falling asleep at the wheel. But I just thought maybe everybody feels like this and it is just that I am not coping well” (The (Daily) Mirror, 2018 URL: https://www.mirror.co.uk);

– nomination of injuries inflicted by doctors during the operation, as an indication of inattention and low level of professionalism: “Eight years after a botched surgery left Lisa-Maria Carter without her things, tractors or abdominal muscles i sections of their digestive organs, a court has finally ruled that the University of South Florida must pay her $109 million for her suffering” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). According to the authoritative surgeon cited in this passage, a qualified specialist could not make such mistakes: “The surgeon told a court he lost his temper. After he accidentally cut the patient with the original canal. He said it was a loss of judgement due to personal problems” (The Daily Telegraph, 2018 URL: https://www.telegraph.co.uk).

Similar examples account for 10% in the actual material within the core of the field structure of the analyzed stereotype image;

– pronoun-noun in the plural “others”, which indicates the mass unprofessionalism of doctors, is manifested in misdiagnosis: “Saved from sepsis by a sharp-eyed nurse after others dismissed it as flu” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html);

– qualitative intensifiers that emphasize the great negative experience, which are primarily adjectives of high degree of the feature manifestation, for example, the repetition of the adjective “high” in the comparative degree in combination with the adverb “far” (meaning “much”) to emphasize the feature of the described phenomenon: “Mr. Hallam ‘Higher mortality rate’ among his patients, and a far higher complication rate” (Daily mail, 2010 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html);

– verbs of harm: “Hundreds of patients be infected with Hepatitis B, C and HIV after visiting a dentist with dirty equipment” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). Similar examples account for 10% in the actual material within the core of the field structure of the analyzed stereotype image;

– cardinal numerals that reveal negative statistics on the activities of a particular doctor: “A series of NHS blunders have 137 people connected to get one of their tests in the past six years, according to the latest figures” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). Similar examples account for 8% of the actual material within the core structure of the analyzed stereotype image;

– syntactic parallelism, which emphasizes a number of medical errors: “Millions of people are receiving drugs that aren’t helping them, operations that aren’t going to make them better and scans and tests that do nothing beneficial for them, and often cause harm,”
he said” (Daily mail, 2020 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). In this example, the highest degree of unprofessionalism is expressed by the initial component of the statement – the number of “millions”. According to the statistics, among the most common problems affecting patients are the following ones: taking medications that do not help, performing operations that do not improve health, as well as prescribing inappropriate tests;

– constructions of causal actions within the theme “medical errors – causing harm”, based on the verb “give” + object (cause) and nominations of diseases (consequences): “Another saw his testicle become gangrenous and had to be cut out after reportedly being given the wrong treatment for torsion” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html); “The surgeon was said to be furious that the unnamed nurse had given medication to one of his patients at the wrong time” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html); “An 85-year-old diabetes patient may have declared HIV after New Hampshire hospital mistakenly injected him with an insulin pen that was used on an HIV-positive patient” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html); “Whilst in intensive care we were informed she had been given too much blood thinking medicine and her developed conditions called compartment syndrome in her upper right arm” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html);

– parcellation (parcelling with a connecting-negative value), which reveals the fears of experts about the so-called “healing” of patients by doctors: “Dementia is another problem area. The ‘cash for diagnosis’ initiative was scrapped when experts argued there would be false positives – and some patients with mild cognitive impairment get better waste. But they are fighting those doctors remain relentlessly ill for dementia when they are involved in other problems” (The Daily Mirror, 2019 URL: https://www.mirror.co.uk).

– device of contrast, which is based on quantitative (recurrence, duration) contrasts, for example, “constant condition of the patient – the wrong treatment”: “Despite several visits to health profesionales and her weight ‘fluctuating’; Cerys was repeatedly advised to practice a ‘sleep routine’, manage her stress levels and eat well – all of which made no difference to her health” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). Each new visit to the specialists turned into repeated incorrect appointments for the young girl, as it turned out later; “Just before Jennifer’s 30th birthday she was finally diagnosed with the disease that is usually diagnosed before a people participate in 2012” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). In the afore-mentioned fragment the contrast is emphasized by the numerals ‘30’, ‘2012’; “Throughout her life she struggled with breathing and had an incredibly frequent cough, which was explained as asthma or allergies and treated as such,” Robert said” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html); “Cory Jury, Paige’s other, only daytime Mail Australia that family petitions about this think about the doctor numeros times but were always told she was just suffering from migraines and sent home with vitamins” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html). In such examples, the role of quantitative intensifiers are adverbs of time, adjectives that express an indefinite (more than one) number of actions. In the following example, the contrast is expressed within the opposition: “removal of a healthy organ – preservation of the affected organ” (Daily mail, 2018 URL: https://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html) where removed can’t be again.

The analyzed factual material allowed revealing similarities and differences in stereotypes about a bad doctor within the analyzed linguistic cultures.
6. Discussion.

The study of sample material showed the main types of pragmatic shifts, which were analyzed and divided into three main groups. Based on the type of pragmatic shift that takes place in the transmission (whether the expressiveness of the image was levelled, enhanced or preserved by replacing the invective with its equivalent), such adaptive strategies as neutralization, substitution and stylistic intensification were identified. These three micro-strategies are implemented in reproducing through linguistic transformation.

The use of transformations in some cases depends on the decisions made by journalists in an attempt to recreate the pragmatic charge of certain communication strategies and means of expression.

Neutralization occurs when it is impossible to convey the entire linguistic, cultural or emotional content of the original message. At the same time, somewhat expressive stylistic devices are levelled or replaced by less strong, or even completely neutral.

There are several reasons for using a neutralization strategy to reproduce an invective. First, the journalist can neutralize the image to avoid negative colouring of the original message and try to extenuate the attack and make it less offensive. In cases, where the traditions of political rhetoric differ in the source and target cultures, the attitude is different in the permissible degree of insult, based on the norms that exist in different societies. These norms can interfere in the decision-making process of a journalist and influence his choice of expression and language means, thus changing the level of offensiveness of statements.

The second reason for the use of neutralization is the culturally motivated nature of the invective of the speech means. Sometimes the expressive function of expression can be neutralized when the invective is based on the concept of the original culture, which does not exist in the whole culture, and therefore there is an obvious need to explain the meaning to make the word and all implicit meanings understandable to the target audience or remove the invective when the context does not allow to use descriptive translation or paraphrase. For example, this reason often dictates the use of neutralization strategies during visualization; invectives are often used in the confrontation tactics of Donald Trump (Sevastiuk, 2019). It involves assigning of negative pseudonyms or “labels” (“nicknames”) to political opponents that are expressive enough to discredit or ridicule direct recipients, thereby lowering their political rank and undermining their image. These markers are created by combining anthroponyms with offensive adjectives, nouns or expressions that carry an implicit or explicit image.

In addition to the invective function, these units perform the function of a proper name. Therefore, trying to partially preserve the internal form, the journalist, while reproducing semantic and emotional information important for political discourse, tries to convey the personal attitude of the speaker to the objects of naming and targeting some manipulative influence on the reader. Moreover, mostly these nicknames are culturally connected, and they represent the realities of American politics or public life. This demonstrates a goal that is often achieved by neutralization.

Stylistic replacement means changing the linguistic expression to a similar linguistic expression of the target culture. This strategy takes place when the journalist does not have the appropriate stylistic means to reproduce certain images from the original text. Thus, they replace these expressions with others that are more appropriate and more natural for the language in order to achieve the communicative and expressive functions of the source of the message and not to lose the emotional colouring introduced by the original expression.

The use of this strategy can also be proved by pragmatic and semantic inconsistencies between invectives in the source language and their vocabulary equivalents in the target language. These units may be equivalent in a particular context, but have different traditions
of use in different cultures, acquire different connotations in the same context, or simply sound unnatural to the target audience.

Stylistic amplification (or emphasis) occurs when a journalist emphasizes the expressiveness of a source text intentionally to increase its stylistic or emotional colouring. The journalist can also use stylistic reinforcement as an additional means of compensating for expressive, associative or symbolic losses in reporting or as a tool to overcome fundamental differences between the source text and the final one in an attempt to bring the communicative effect of the article closer to the original.

For the purpose of language aggression, both inherent-evaluative and adherent-evaluative neologisms that acquire a negative colouring in the context can be used. The main criteria for detecting language aggression are such discursive factors as: the object of evaluation and its explicitness in the text, pragmatic attitude to the expression of hostility, incitement to hatred.

In the context of highlighting statements with signs of verbal aggression, it is advisable to take into account the pragmalinguistic approach, which is based on identifying the journalist’s motive for the reader and establishing language markers of verbalization of the motive in the language context.

The phenomenon of language aggression can be represented in various forms. In particular, the riskiest forms not only in the communicative but also in the legal linguistic aspect are invective statements aimed at a sharp negative assessment of a particular subject and/or its activities, capable of offending, damaging honour and dignity. In addition, language aggression includes statements with features of language extremism, or hate speech, expressing a sharply negative attitude towards representatives of other national, religious, political, subcultural groups.

Explicit and evaluative innovations, which are created on the basis of lexical units denoting anti-social and illegal activities as well as on the basis of non-literary vocabulary, can function as an invective in certain contexts. Such neologisms have an inherent value, but their functioning as a means of verbal aggression depends on the contextual conditions of use.

The revealing of invective vocabulary is relevant in the linguistic examination of controversial texts in cases of insult. First of all, in order to qualify a speech act as an invective one, it is necessary for the utterance to be marked by a specific object with a sharp negative characteristic.

7. Conclusions.

Speech aggression is associated not so much with the presence of negatively coloured components in the statement, but with the conditions of their use: the object of evaluation and its explicitness in the text, pragmatic attitude to the expression of hostility, incitement to hatred. One of the forms of manifestation of language aggression is invective language acts in which negatively marked lexemes are used in relation to a particular person or organization in order to discredit, express hostility.

Neologisms with inherent negative evaluation serve as a means of invective, used in the context of sharp criticism of a particular public figure or organization. Sometimes invective language acts use neologisms based on evaluative-neutral components, but if the statement is saturated with pejorative lexemes, the neologism is usually built into the general system of evaluative characteristics. Thus, the neologism acquires an adherent negative assessment, functioning in a negative context.
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