

CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is the most commonly used means of human communication through which we exchange our feelings, desires, thoughts and emotions. It is the unique asset of human beings which has placed them in supreme position in the world. It is extremely complex and highly versatile code which cannot be used by other animals as a means of communication. Language is not only a personal phenomenon but a social phenomenon as well because it is affected by culture, social ethnicity and geographical boundaries.

The word 'Language' is defined variously by various linguists. Some of the definitions are presented here.

"Language is the concrete act of speaking, writing or signing in a given situation - the notion of Parole, or Performance". Crystal (1941)

"Language is a set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" Chomsky (1957)

"Language is a system of expressing meanings through words and sentences used by human beings" 'Word master Learner's Dictionary of Modern English (2004).

It looks that no definition can be exact and complete in itself. In general it is widely accepted that language is the system of human communication, which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds into larger units. e.g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances. It is species specific to human beings. Every normal human being acquires at

least one language in his/her childhood. None can believe the existence of human civilization without language.

There are many languages in the world. Among them English is the most widely used language. It is believed that one in every seven people can speak English. It is rich in its literature. Therefore, it has gained the status of international language. It is often used as a lingua franca to maintain communication among different linguistic communities. English has dominated almost all areas in the world such as world politics, science and technology, medicine, marketing and so on. It has a significant influence in Nepali education too. English is taught as a compulsory subject from class one to bachelor level. At university level, most of the prescribed books and reference books available are in English medium.

1.1.1 Advertising and its Language

The act of telling the public about a product or a service in order to encourage people to buy or to use it is advertising. According to Chunawalla (1985), the form of advertising for the transmission of information dates back to ancient Greece and Rome, when criers and signs were used to carry information for advertising goods and services. This practice was continued even during the middle ages. During the 17th century, when newspapers started appearing in various parts of the world, newspaper advertising began to develop. However, the great break through for advertising came only in the late 19th century, when technology and mass production techniques were sufficiently developed.

Advertising is an indispensable component of all sorts of business. Commenting on the indispensability of advertising in a business, Chunawalla (1985:1) has quoted Britt (1980) in Nayak (2000:5) "Doing

business without advertising is like winking a girl in the dark, you know what you are doing, but nobody else does".

Nayak (2000:50) points out how the field of advertising was developed after the invention of different means of communication by quoting Madhu, (1996) "The field of advertising has been revolutionized after the advent of radio and television as popular media of communication in this century. While the press could only cover the literate population, the radio and television have widely covered both the literates and the non-literates. Television and Radio remain the most popular media in urban areas as well as rural areas. Recently, during the 90s, the arrival of satellite television, internet, web-marketing, e-biz and e-commerce has resulted in significant changes in the field".

Advertising appears in the recognized media such as newspapers, magazines, radios, televisions, cinema films, outdoor hoardings, and posters, direct mails and internet. The sole purpose of advertising is to sell something-a product, a service, or merely an idea through effective communication.

Leetaru (2001:1) quotes a renowned advertising pioneer, William Bernbach, emphasizing the importance of language in the modern world of advertising, "The truth is not the truth until people believe you, and they cannot believe you if they don't know what you're saying, and they cannot know what you're saying if they don't listen to you, and they won't listen to you if you're not interesting unless you say things imaginatively, originally, freshly", which is important because, "It is insight into human nature that is the key to the communicator's skill. For whereas the writer is concerned with what he puts into his writings the communicator is concerned with what the reader gets out of it. He, therefore, becomes a

student of how people read or listen." Commercial verbiage is designed to entice the reader to "read on", to explore the product, or service being offered in greater detail. Linguistic components such as Grice's (1967) cooperative principle, grammatical constructions, jargon, and semantic length are all critical to this process, assisting the copywriter.

1.1.2 Types and structure of advertisements

All advertisements can be divided into different groups based on various criteria. One criterion is a geographical area for which the message is intended. Therefore, advertisements can be local, national and international.

Another criterion relates to the form and medium of advertisement. Print advertising includes newspapers, magazines, posters, hoardings and street signs. Electronic advertising involves both sound and/or pictures, as on television or radio. Obviously, various media have their strength and weaknesses. Television, combining sound, sight and motion, is considered to be the medium with the greatest impact. However, television advertisements, or commercials are very expensive. Print advertisements' advantage is that they do not disappear that quickly and they are very suitable for detailed descriptions. Due to an extensive development of multimedia a new type of advertising has emerged, that is the so-called "netvertising".

In general, advertising can be divided into two major groups: commercial and non-commercial. The commercial division includes consumer advertising, trade advertising and corporate advertising, where the first one is directed at a mass audience, the second type is used by manufacturers to communicate with their retailers via trade press, and the last one is advertising by companies to affect people's awareness and

attitudes to the organization as a whole rather than its products or services. The non-commercial division consists of government advertising (usually public service information) and charity advertising, which is intended to give publicity to the needs and objectives of an association or organization conducted for charitable or benevolent purposes (Hermeren 1999).

Advertisements have a certain sustainable structure. Often advertising starts with a headline which is intended to attract viewer's attention. It is often followed by a description (body copy) that elaborates on the attention-getting device. Usually advertisements contain a technical text, i.e. description of a product, producer's name and/or address etc. Finally, every advertisement has a slogan, that is a representative phrase of the message. It is a sort of a motto of a commercial, which can be a rhyme or just a short phrase. Its main function is to be memorable, "catchy", recognizable to the audience (Hermeren 1999). All of these components may vary in order, some of them may be omitted. However, the typical structure of advertisements represents an established pattern.

1.1.3 The communicative situation of advertising

Advertising is communicative situation in which language operates in accordance with the purpose and actual possibilities of this type of communication. According to Leech (1966), in order to describe and define any situation of linguistic communication the following questions should be answered:

Who are the participants ?

The participation of advertising communication are a copywriter and an audience. The first category is usually represented by an advertising agency, where a group of people works on production of a certain message on behalf of the advertiser. Behind the second category also stands a group of people, or audience, who usually by chance are exposed to advertising from different sources.

What objects are relevant to the communication ?

The relevant objects are products or services being advertised. However, not all of them are actually mentioned or discussed in a message. Moreover, they might not be physically or sensibly present. Such advertising involves a complex process of creating a positive image of a certain company, or even an attempt to sell a life style, a value, an emotion etc.

What is the medium of communication ?

The most important distinction of medium is between speech and writing. However, under this heading such types of media as television, radio, as print can be specified. Furthermore, print advertising can be presented in the form of newspaper messages, billboards, special advertising brochures etc. Each type has its own advantages, available facilities and flaws.

What is the purpose or effect of communication ?

In the advertising situation, involving a form of inferential communication, "purpose" and "effect" are not the same thing. The effect of advertising may take different forms and need not coincide with the purpose. It is only partly a question of buying or not buying the product.

However, the purpose remains fairly constant, that is to make people purchase products or services advertised.

As we can see from this brief discussion, the communicative situation of advertising is yet not clearly defined, and each of the parameters discussed present some difficulties for a definition. This unclarity is caused by the nature of this particular type of communication. One of the main distinctive features of mass communication is its one-way direction. Since the addresser and the addressee (or audience) are physically distant from each other, the time and the place of production of the mass media message is different from the time and place of its reception. Often, a message is produced in one country and consumed in another.

Another aspect of mass communication is that both terms, speaker and audience, refer not to a single person, but to a collective. The creators of a message are a group of people, copy writers and art directors working for an advertising agency. They have a developed view of their goals and of the general nature of the audience they work for. By contrast, the audience is a group of people different in terms of sex, age, occupation, income and education. Such a heterogeneous nature of the audience presents a problem for the point of view of the speaker. Therefore, ad-makers have to take into account for whom this or that advertisement is made. As Simpson (1993) puts it, "each mass media organ has to anticipate an 'idealized reader to whom its material is tailored. It is to this typical reader that all people have to relate themselves" (1993: 151). This relationship manifests itself through the text, notably its various interactive signals, such as direct address in the form of offers and advice, and explicit first and second-person pronouns (Hermeren 1999).

One more characteristic of mass audience is their inability to take part in the interaction. They cannot respond directly with arguments and counter arguments, as in the case with interpersonal communication. The fact that the audience is heterogeneous and passive is likely to make them uncritical participates in the communication process, which will make them more vulnerable to persuasion (Reardon 1981: 196). This characteristic of the audience is exploited for the purposes of covert communication.

The communicative situation of advertising has a rather complex structure. One of the most crucial facts is that we are involuntarily exposed to advertising. Therefore, advertisers make a particular effort to attract our attention and arouse our interest. This is why the design, the layout and the language of advertisements are very important.

One issue of great concern to the general public is the issue of deceptive, or misleading advertising. This is often discussed in terms of inferences. "Human beings are 'differencing creatures, trained to 'read into' what is said as much as is consistent with the literal meaning of what is said and the context in which it is said" (Geis 1982: 46). Advertisers routinely exploit people's tendency to draw inferences. Studies on inferences strongly suggest that in order to derive the meaning of a statement, people typically interpret beyond what is explicitly stated. When applied to advertising, the consumer may be led to believe things about a product that were never explicitly stated. Therefore, one of the most important features of advertising as a type of communication is its implicitness.

There are several reasons for advertisers to exploit implicit language. One of the problems for advertises is the existence of various

consumer "watchdogs", such as the Advertising Standards Authority in Britain or the American Federal Trade commission, which regulate what advertisers can say and how they should say it. The British go by the often cited general rule that "All advertisements should be legal, decent, honest and truthful" (Hermeren 1999: 152). But in the context of Nepal there is no such authority to check the language of advertisements.

1.1.4 The Relevance of Inferences for Advertising

The process of advertising has attracted scientific attention for a long time. For economists and marketing experts advertising is a very important tool of free-market economy, an element of successful trade. For linguists it is a pragmatically determined type of discourse which functions in accordance with its main goals: to inform and to persuade. For ordinary people, it is a part of every day life, which can be annoying or amusing, useful or misleading.

From a linguistic perspective, one of the central aspects of advertising is the heavy use of implicature, which involves the recipient in a process of inference-drawing.

Generally, we may say that in our everyday communications we convey information in two different ways: either by "saying X" or by "implying X". Consider the following examples;

- (1) I want you to close the window.
- (2) a. Can you close the window ?
b. > I want you to close the window.
- (3) a. It is cold here.
b. > I would like the window to be closed.

In (1) the speaker explicitly says that s/he wants the window to be closed by the addressee, in (2) he implies the same information without actually saying it, while in (3) his request is put into even more implicit form. In every day communication the speaker would choose this or that way of conveying the information, depending on the situation, the audience and other extra-linguistic factors. Using the term introduced by Grice (1975), instead of explicitly asserting something many speakers implicate a particular information (e.g. (2b) and (3b)). The hearer can easily understand it by inferring it. So even if inferences are always more than the literal meaning of any form of utterance, they are usually overt in cooperative communication, both speaker and hearer know that they are made and can acknowledge this, if necessary. Now consider example (4) from Harris (1999: 127)

- (4) a. Choosy mothers choose Jiff.
- b. >> Good mothers choose Jiff.
- c. > All good mothers choose Jiff.
- d. => If X does not choose Jiff, X is not a good mother.

Here (4b) is a conventional implicature, the information that good mothers and choosy can be said to be a part of the conventional meaning of the words in (4). (4c) is a conversational implicature, since it follows from one of Grice's maxims of Quantity. If X wanted to say "Some mothers" he should have said so. (4d) is a logical entailment from (4a).

This advertisement has been designed in such a way that the audience is very likely to draw these inferences. However, the copywriter can always deny the fact that he actually meant all this, i.e. that he wanted the audience to understand this advertisement in the particular way from (4a) to (4d). Therefore, such inferences can be called covert.

1.1.5 Inferencing vs. Decoding in Communication

How do people communicate with each other ? How is the understanding between them achieved ? Sperber and Wilson (1986) proposed that verbal communication involves both coding and inferential processes. According to the code model, communication is achieved by encoding and decoding messages, while in the inferential model, it is achieved by production and interpreting evidence. Inferential and decoding processes are quite different.

"An inferential process starts from a set of premises and results in a set of conclusions, which follow logical form, or at least warranted by, the premises. A decoding process starts from a signal and results in the recovery of a message, which is associated to the signal by an underlying code. In general, conclusions are not associated to their premises by a code, and signals do not warrant the messages they convey (1986:13)."

Sperber and Wilson (1986) argue that the code model of verbal communication is only a hypothesis. Its main merit is explanatory: utterances do succeed in communicating thoughts, and the hypothesis that they encode thoughts might explain how it is done. However, its main defect is that it is descriptively inadequate: comprehension involves more than the decoding of a linguistic signal. The authors argue that there are two different ways of conveying information. One way is to provide direct evidence for the information to be conveyed. This should not be regarded as a form of communication: any state of affairs provides direct evidence for a variety of assumptions without necessarily communicating them. Another way of conveying information is to provide direct evidence of one's intention to convey it. This method is clearly a form of communication. Sperber and Wilson (1986) call it inferential

communication: it is inferential in the sense that the audience infers the communicator's intention from evidence provided for this precise purpose. The inferential model provides a reasonable description of human communication. However, it must be developed on the explanatory level.

Sperber and Wilson (1986) suggest that Grice's analysis of meaning can be used as a point of departure for an inferential model of communication. Grice proposed the following analysis of what is for an individual *S* to mean something by an utterance *x* (where "utterance" refers not just to linguistic utterances but to any form of communicative behaviour): "S meant something by *x*" is roughly equivalent to "S intended the utterance of *x* to produce some effect in an audience by means of the recognition of this intention" (Grice 1957:58). Strawson (1969:155) reformulated Grice's analysis of meaning in the following way:

"To mean something by an utterance *x*, an individual *S* must intend:

- i. *S*'s utterance of *x* to produce a certain response '*r*' in a certain audience *A*;
- ii. *A* to recognize *S*'s intention (a);
- iii. *A*'s recognition of *S*'s intention (a) to function as at least part of *A*'s reason for *A*'s responses. (quoted in Sperber and Wilson 1995:21)

Sperber and Wilson (1986) explain that since communication can succeed without intention (a) being fulfilled, intention (a) is not an intention to communicate at all. It is an intention to inform i.e. an informative intention. Intention (b) is the true communicative intention: that is, the intention to have one's informative intention recognized. the

authors propose a modified version of Grice's analysis, highlighting the difference between the informative and communicative intentions. According to them, "Communication involves producing a certain stimulus intending there by informative intention (to inform the audience of something) and communicative intention (to inform the audience of one's informative intention)" (ibid: 2a). The communicative intention is itself a second-order informative intention: the former is fulfilled once the first-order informative intention is recognized. However, a communicative intention can be fulfilled without the corresponding informative intention being fulfilled.

Sperber and Wilson (1986) argue that true communication must be wholly overt, and it should be distinguished from covert forms of information transmission. Either your behavior makes it clear that you are communicating, or else you are not truly communicating at all. Then the question is how to modify the analysis of inferential communication to include this requirement of overt ness.

The idea that communicative intentions must be overt can be worked out in another way using the notion of mutual knowledge. This solution involves the assumption that a true communicative intention is not just an intention to inform the audience of the communicator's informative intention, but an intention to make the informative intention mutually known to the communicator and the audience.

Paul Grice (1975) made an attempt to develop the inferential model into an adequate explanatory account of communication. He suggested that communication is governed by a cooperative principle and maxims of conversation. Grice's fundamental idea is that the communicator is trying to meet certain standards. From the knowledge of these standards,

observation of the communicator's behaviour, and the context it is possible to infer the communicator's specific intention.

"Our talk exchanges.... are characteristically, to some degree at least, cooperative efforts; and each participant recognizes in them, to some extent, a common purpose or set of purposes, or at least a mutually accepted direction ... at each stage, some possible conversational moves would be excluded as conversationally unsuitable. We might then formulate a rough general principle which participants will be expected to observe, namely: Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk change in which you are engaged." (Grice 1975:45)

This general principle, which according to Grice all speakers are expected to follow was called "the cooperative principle". Furthermore, the standards for conducting cooperative communication were claimed by Grice to be of several different types. Grice called these standard maxims and grouped them under categories.

Quantity,

- i. Make your contribution as informative as required (for the current purpose of the exchange).
- ii. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required. (Grice 1975:45).

Quality,

Super maxim: Try to make your contribution on that is true.

- i. Do not say what you believe to be false.
- ii. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence. (ibid : 46).

Relation,

- i. Be relevant. (ibid 46)

and Manner,

Super maxim: Be perspicuous.

- i. Avoid obscurity of expression.
- ii. Avoid ambiguity.
- iii. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
- iv. Be orderly. (ibid: 46).

These maxims make it possible to explain how the incomplete and ambiguous representation of a thought in the utterance can express a complete and unambiguous thought. From the variety of thoughts the hearer can eliminate any that are incompatible with the assumption that the speaker is obeying the cooperative principle and maxims. Hence, the maxims and the inferences they give rise to make it possible to convey unambiguous thoughts by uttering ambiguous sentences. Grice's approach to verbal communication also makes it possible to explain how utterances can convey implicit thoughts.

1.1.6 Conventional Implicature

The term "implicature" was introduced by Grice (1975, 1978) in order to explain speaker's and hearer's cooperative use of inference. Grice argued that the predictability of inference formation could be explained by the cooperative principle and the maxims.

In the linguistic literature there are different definitions of implicature. According to Gazdar (1979:38), "implicature is proposition that is implied by the utterance of a sentence in a context even though the proposition is not a part of or an entailment of what was actually said".

This would appear to include presuppositions. Heim (1992: 184) states that "implicatures are the inferences that are blessed by mutuality and are not truth-conditional entailments", proposing the formula:

WHAT IS MEANT - WHAT IS SAID = WHAT IS IMPLICATED

Grice (1975) himself distinguished between two classes of implicatures: conversational and conventional. In conventional implicatures the conventional meaning of the words used determines what is implicated, besides helping to determine what is said.

- i. He is an Englishman, therefore he is brave.
- ii. → Englishmen are brave.

By inserting "therefore" the speaker implicates that being brave is a consequence of being an Englishman.

1.1.7 Conversational Implicature

The concept of conversational implicature explains how it is possible for speakers to mean and for hearers to understand more than is literally said. The hearer understands the speaker's intended meaning by generating conversational implicature. According to Grice, the maxims and the inferences they give rise to make it possible to convey an unambiguous thought by uttering an ambiguous sentence.

Grice (1975) divided conversational implicatures into 3 groups, based on the way in which they are derived in accordance with the cooperative principle: by "filling-in", through "clash" between different maxims, and through flouting, i.e. by blatantly failing to fulfill the cooperative principle in a way that is obvious for both participants in the conversation. These types can be exemplified as follows:

i. Inferences Through Filling-in

In the first group, implicatures are generated by "filling -in" with contextually appropriate inferences automatically, without any obvious violation of the cooperative principle, as in (2)

2. A : Where are the children ?
B : I hear noise in the yard.
> The children are (probably) in the yard.

B's answer is clear (maxim of Manner) and true (Maxim of quality) and even though at face value it may not seem to be relevant, A has no reason to assume that B is being uncooperative, so he automatically "fills in" that B thinks that the children are in the yard.

ii. Inferences Through Maxim-clash

In the second group a maxim appears to be violated, but this can be explained by the supposition it clashes with another maxim which may be more important as is the case in (3)

3. A : Where does Nisha live ?
B : Somewhere in the west of Nepal.
> I don't know where exactly.

B's answer is less informative than A expects, and thus B violates the maxim of Quantity. However, to say something more would be to violate the maxim of Quality so B implicates that he does not know in where exactly in Nepal Nisha lives.

iii. Inferences through Flouting

Examples of inferences derived though flouting the maxims can be found in conversations (4) and (5).

4. A: Stop criticizing the prime minister. He knows what he is doing.
B : Yes, he is a real Einstein.
> The prime minister is not smart at all.

Here B flouts the maxim of quality since it is obvious for the audience that he says something he does not believe. For the purpose of irony he states the opposite of what he believes, and does this in a way that is manifest for both. In this way, A can derive what B really thinks about the prime minister by drawing likely inferences.

5. A: Where were you last night ?
B : Mom, stop treating me like a kid !
> I don't want to answer the question.

In (5) the maxim of relation is flouted: B blatantly refuses to give a relevant answer to the question, thus, B implicates that A' s question is not appropriate at all.

Grice describes how conversational implicatures are "worked out" by the audience in the following way:

"He has said that p, there is no reason to suppose that he is not observing the maxims, or at least the CP; he could not be doing this unless he thought that q; he knows (and he knows that I know that he knows) that I can see that the supposition that he thinks the q is required; he intends me to think, or is willing to allow me to think, that q; and so he has implicated that q (Grice 1975:50)."

1.1.8 Types of Inferences

1. Overt inference: An advertising inference can be regarded as overt if the copy-writer makes it mutually manifest that s/he wished to communicate it and recognizes his responsibility for it.

2. Covert inference: An advertising inference can be regarded as covert if the copy writer wishes to make certain inferences manifest to the hearer, i.e. s/he wishes the hearer to draw them, but s/he does not want to be held responsible for having done so, and therefore masks his communicative intention.
3. Flouting inference: Flouting inference is a blatant violation of cooperative principle, which is made/ manifest for both speaker and hearer forcing the hearer to cover up the violation with appropriate for the case inferences in a more conscious way than in silent type.
4. Silent inference: The inference which is made without clear violation of the cooperative principle, or at least there is no violation recognized as such by the audience. In this case the audience will draw inferences to the most appropriate meaning of the utterance more or less automatically. (Melchenko, 2003)

The researcher analyzed the TV commercials on the basis of the types of inferences discussed above.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are some research works carried out on advertisements in the Department of English Language Education, T.U. However, no any research has yet been carried out on inferences in advertising especially in T.V commercials. But there are some related researches carried out by the foreign scholars. They are as follows.

Melchenko (2003) has carried out a research entitled "Inferences in Advertising: A Study of Swedish and Russian TV Commercials". The findings of this study are:

- a. In overt communication, conventional inferences and silent inferences were more common than flouting inferences in both Swedish and Russian TV commercials.
- b. In the case of covert communication Russian TV commercials employed more conventional inferences and silent inference than flouting inferences. In Swedish commercials, the situation was reverse: more flouting than conversational and silent inferences.
- c. Flouting inferences in general, i.e. both overt and covert, were more common in Swedish than in Russian commercials.

Babaii and Ansary (2003) carried out a research on "The discourse Structure of and Sociopolitical Structures on TV Commercials". This study was an attempt to examine the macro textual or discourse structure of TV commercials and the way they were socio-politically constricted. The findings of this study are:

- a. Use of simple, personal, and colloquial style and a familiar vocabulary.
- b. Use of Phonological devices such as rhymes and alliteration to enhance memorability and amusement.
- c. Sheer repetition: 1) Intra-textual, the citation of brand name and/or an attribute of a product and (2) inter-textual, repetition of the same slogan in different ads for a single product.
- d. Abundant use of superlatives and hyperboles in characterizing a product.

Chapagain (2005) studied distinctive features of language used in advertisements descriptively. In his M.Ed. thesis entitled "The Language in English Newspaper Advertisements", he analyzed the language of advertisements in terms of characteristic features especially related to vocabulary, structure, and functions. The study included every kind of newspaper advertisements namely classified advertisements, display advertisements, etc. published in different newspapers.

He came with the following conclusion

- i. Verb less constructions are found to be used the highest among all the constructions and non-finite constructions are found to be least.
- ii. Imperative constructions are found in all news papers advertise.
- iii. Among the four different newspapers, TRN, TNYT are found to follow the general rule of plasticization where as other two are found not to follow it.

Shrestha (2005) in his M.Ed. thesis entitled "The Language of Product Advertisements in English Newspapers" studied product advertisements descriptively. The main objectives of this study were to find out the non-linguistic forms of product advertisements in print media, to record a list of vocabulary and language features used in the product advertisements and to compare the language of English advertisements published in the Nepalese newspapers and magazines with those published in the British newspapers and magazines.

Finally he has concluded that

- i. Product advertising had three forms - image advertising, direct response advertising and display advertising.

- ii. Get, help, take, do, have, work, save, use, give and call were the most frequently used verbs in product.
- iii. 57 percent of the sentences in the sample advertisements were elliptical.

Though, a number of research works have been conducted in advertising, nobody in our department has carried out a research on the inferences in advertising particularly on Nepali TV commercials. Thus, the researcher is interested in carrying out this research.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study were as follows:

- a. To determine the inferences in Nepali TV commercials after Grice's approach.
- b. To analyze the features of Nepali TV commercials in terms of structures, nouns, adjectives, etc.
- c. To find out what sorts of people are used in Nepali TV commercials.
- d. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study is significant to all the stakeholders and practitioners involved in the field of English language teaching especially in the field of Semantics and Pragmatics. It is also significant to those who are involved in the mass media and particularly in the making of TV commercials. The future researchers who are interested in conducting researches on TV commercials can also be benefited by this study.

CHAPTER-II

METHODOLOGY

The methodology which was adopted in carrying out the study is described below:

2.1 Sources of Data

The data for the research were collected from both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary sources of Data

All the TV commercials which were telecasted from the main Nepali national channels e.g. Nepal Television, Kantipur Television Network, Nepal 1 Television and Image channel were the primary sources of data.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The secondary sources were various books, journals, reports, articles, etc. Some of them were Grice (1975), Harris (1977, 1999) Levinson (1983), Leech (1969), Kumar (1999), Palmer (1996), Davis (1991), Lyons (1997), Babaii and Ansary (2003), Melchenko (2003) Bhattarai (2005), NELTA journals, Young Vocies in ELT journals, etc.

2.2 Population of the Study

The total population of the study was all TV commercials telecasted from all Nepali national TV channels.

2.3 Sample Population

Sample population of the study consists of the 30 TV commercials telecasted from Nepal Television, Kantipur Television, Network, Nepal 1 Television and Image Television. Out of 30 commercials 8 were taken from NTV, 8 from KTV, 7 from Nepal 1 TV and 7 from Image TV.

2.4 Sampling Procedure

Initially, two hours of Nepali TV commercials were recorded on a video camera. They were divided into different strata on the basis of TV channels they were telecasted from and the required number (8-8 commercials from NTV and KTV, 7-7 commercials from Nepal 1 and Image TV) of commercials were selected by using simple random sampling procedure.

2.5 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used a video camera, a computer and a television as the tools for data collection.

2.6 Process of Data Collection

At first, the commercials were recorded in primetime (between 18:00 to 20:00) from Nepal TV, Kantipur TV, Nepal 1 TV and Image TV. The recording was made in August 2006. Then a corpus of 30 Nepali TV commercials were collected.

2.7 Limitations of the Study

The study has the following limitations:

1. The study was limited to only 30 Nepali TV commercials.
2. This study did not include a semiotic analysis of the visual meaning of TV commercials. Only the contextual information that seemed to be relevant for working out the particular inferences was included.
3. Only inferences that could be regarded as intended by the advertisers were considered.
4. Only the commercials having spoken language were considered in which the speech must be directed to the audience.

5. Commercials, which advertise rather a place of purchase, a price or discounts than a product itself were not considered.
6. The analysis was done after Grice's cooperative principle.

CHAPTER-III

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This section deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data collected from primary sources. The main focus of this study was to determine the inferences in Nepali TV commercials after Grice's (1975) approach and the typology developed by Melchenko (2003). For this purpose the researcher chose 30 commercials and tried to find out the likely inferences that the audience can draw. The commercials along with the likely inferences are presented below.

1. Name : **Close up**

Product : *Toothpaste*

Context : A group of youngsters are playing snooker. There comes a situation in which everybody starts laughing. A boy laughs very shyly covering his mouth with his hands but another boy laughs freely without any hesitation.

Male voice

Jaba h sne mauk udacha
 sabai sangai maj le h sdacha
 taba fatfate h so kina udacha
 duni usko dib n cha
 jo maj le h scha ga cha

Context : Girls go towards him and stand around the boy who uses close up and laughs without hesitation.

Male voice : tapa m jag ch 'confidence' maj le h sna

Inferences :

1. Close up keeps your mouth fresh longer than other toothpaste (S)
2. There are places in the mouth which are difficult to reach.
Only close up can clean in the places which are difficult to reach
(C)
3. Close up is like winning a game (Flouting: Quality and manner)
4. Close up is an intelligent product that gives you freshness (C)
5. Close up gives you a shiny smile (C)
6. The person who uses close up can laugh confidently (O)
7. Close up builds up confidence (O)
8. If you use close up, you can attract girls. (Flouting: Relation)

2. Name : **ROWA**

Product : *Television*

Context : A well furnished room where a famous Nepali actress is with a set of television.

Female voice : dinvari sutingm besta hunchu
ghara farkiyo eklo hunchu
eklopanko sathi mero 'ROWA'

Context : The pictures of different models of TV are shown on the screen.

Inferences

1. TV is a good friend of loneliness. (O)
2. TV removes tiredness.(C)
3. Only Rowa contains these qualities. (S)
4. A famous actress is a trust worthy person, she knows what is the best. (Flouting: Quality)

5. Famous people choose Rowa because it is good. (O)
6. If you use Rowa, you will be as happy as the famous actress. (C)

3. Name : **Godrej**

Product : *Mehandi*

Context : A school boy in uniform is talking with his mother which is overheard by his father.

Boy's voice : Mummy mero school ko barsikotsab ma tapa matrai aunus hai. buwa lai sabai sathiharu 'uncle uncle' vanchan.

Context : A man puts Godrej mehandi in his hair.

Male voice: Seto kap ile dinchi arulai pani hair ni godrej katnus, lag unus, jawan dekhinus

Inferences

1. White hair represents old age (O)
2. Young people with white hair lose prestige. (C)
3. Black hair makes people look young. (O)
4. Hair dyed black with Godrej preserves prestige at young age (C)
5. Godrej is good. (Flouting: Quality)

4. Name : **RMC Rajesh**

Product : *Zinc Plate*

Context : There are two zinc plates. When it rains on one plate it makes holes on it but the other plate remains the same.

Male voice: RMC Rajes ko utkrista utp dan

Rajesh jast p t atut bisw s

Inferences

1. Zinc plate is used on the roof to be safe from the rain. (O)
2. Common Zinc plate gets damaged by rain (C)
3. Only original zinc plate lasts for a long time. (C)
4. RMC Rajesh zinc plate is original. (S)

5. Name : **Coirtuff**

Product : *Matress*

Context : There are three mattresses in different colours.

Male voice : Nepal m upalabdha ekmatra ISO 9001 pr pta dasan
tikau, aaramdayi dasana coirtutt dasana.

Inferences

1. An ISO certified product is qualitative. (O)
2. Only coirtuff has got ISO certification in Nepal (O)
3. Coirtuff is longlasting mattress. (O)
4. Coirtuff is comfortable. (O).

6. Name : **Real**

Product : *Mango Juice*

Context : One little girl is drinking juice from a packet.

Voice: sw d esto fal kh e jasto

pandhra rupiy m 'Real mango'

juice p yo vane aru kina kh ne

Inferences

1. Fruit is good for health. (O)
2. Real has the quality of fruit (O)

3. Real does not cost much (C)
4. It is difficult to get juice in 15 rupees (C)
5. Real mango juice is real mango (Flouting: Quality)

7. Name: **Cocacola**

Product : *Cold drink*

Context : A man and some policemen enter a restaurant where there are many people.

Male voice : by p r ta nikai cha ni

Male voice : mitho mitho kh n chana saheb

Male voice : ke cha

M.V.: masaled r c umin

Context : A worker is frying chowmin very nicely.

Male voice: usle arupani dincha sar

Male voice: uniharu fai m gchan

Male voice: dekhnu vo

Male voice: aru ke ke m gchan

Male voice: ciso 'cocacola'

Context : All the people are drinking cocacola and their mouths are watering.

Male voice : kh na je hol c hinchha 'cocacola'

Inference

1. Restaurant business flourishes if you sell cocacola. (C)
2. Everybody likes cocacola. (O)
3. Cocacola is a cold drink. (O)
4. You need cocacola whatever you eat (Flouting):

8. Name: **Family**

Product : *Mustard oil*

Context : All the family members enjoy meal and they praise her cooking.

Female voice; sw dista parik r femili ko mith s

Male voice: garba ko v s fnopanko mith s

family sudhdha toriko tel

Inferences

1. Daughter - in - law prepares food in a family (O)
2. Everybody likes delicious food. (O)
3. Family mustard oil makes food delicious. (C)
4. If you use family oil, you feel proud of it. (Silent)
5. Family gives feeling of nearness. (Silent)

9. Name : **Baidyanatha**

Product : *Chyawanprash*

Context : A mother is feeding chyawan prash to her child.

Female voice: sabai bachch ekn s h dainan jo hunchan' all rounder'
unale kh nchan Baidyan th chyawanpr sh

Female voice : maj esto tapa sadhai ag di

Inferences

1. All individuals are different. (O)
2. A mother should take care of all aspects of her children. (O)
3. If you want to make your child allrounder, feed him/her Baidyanath Chyawanprash (S)
4. If you eat Baidyanath, you will always go forward (C)

5. It makes a child all rounder (Flouting: quality)

10. Name : **Tictic**

Product : *Cracker*

Context : A mother puts a packet of 'Tictic' into her son's bag as he sefs out to go to school.

Voice: kurumkurum jhurumjhurum ke ho

yo py ro kh j tictic

Junsukai bet jah pani hol

Kh na milne ke ho tictic

jahile pani jah pani thikthik

Inferences

1. Snacks should be tasty (C)
2. Snacks is suitable to take any time and at anyplace (O)
3. Tictic is tasty (O)
4. Tictic can be eaten anytime anywhere. (S)
5. Tictic is especially good for children. (F: Relation)

11. Name : **Magic**

Product : *Slippers*

Context : A boy and a girl are sitting joining their back.

Voice: thari thari ranga s rai tikne sabako mana danga

aba harek p il m j du Magic ko

Voice : Magic is the best.

Context: Pictures of Magic slippers are shown on the screen.

Inferences

1. Magic slippers are available in many colours and in many sizes (O)
2. Magic slippers bring magic in every step (O)
3. Everybody prefers the best things. (C)
4. Magic slippers are the best slippers (C).
5. Everybody prefers magic slippers. (C)

12. Name : **Soaltee**

Product : *Noodles*

Context: Family members are gathered to have breakfast

Voice: b b ko c han eut cha
 m ko icch eut cha
 chor ko harsa beglai cha
 g le ko harsa beglai cha

Context : Packets of soaltee noodles are shown.

Inferences

1. Every individual has different wishes. (O)
2. We have the same choice at the time of eating if we get soaltee noodles. (C)
3. Soaltee noodles is tasty (Flouting)
4. Everybody likes soaltee, because it is tastier than others. (Fouting)

13. Name : **Daunne**

Product : **Cement**

Context : Two strong men are breaking a wall with hammers. They can't break it. There is thunder when they hit the wall.

Voice: d unne cement le banko ho sajilai kah vatk una sakinch ra.

Voice: nirm n jagatm eut biswasilo n m nepal ambuja 'cement' ko
utkrista prastuti.

Inferences

1. Strong building is not breakable. (O)
2. A building is strong. if you make by using Daunne cement (O)
3. Daunne cement is the best cement of all. (C)
4. Building built up with Daunne cement is not breakable. (Flouting :
Quality)
5. Daunne cement is as powerful as thunder. (Flouting)

14. Name : **Shikhar**

Product : *Shoes*

Context : A famous Nepali comedian who is wearing new black shoes,
walks on the road.

Male voice : Deepak ji, kat p tim ?

Child voice: Deepak ankali kat p tim

Male voice: ja kina sabaile p tim vanirahek chan

Male voice : eti r mro jutt lagaepachi vandainan ta

Male voice: shikhar 'shoes' kam lko 'style'

Male voice : ma patim jana th leko hoina 'shikhar' 'shoes' nai r mro

Context : pictures of different kinds of shoes are shown on the screen.

Inferences

1. You should wear quality shoes if you go to the party. (O)
2. If you wear quality shoes, people think you are going to party. (C)

3. A famous comedian is a trustworthy person, because he knows what is the best (Flouting: quality)
4. Famous people choose Shikhar shoes because it is good. (O)
5. If you wear Shikhar shoes, you will be as happy as a famous comedian.(Flouting)

15. Name : **Konka**
Product : **Television**

Context : Pictures of AC, DVD, Rice cooker and TV are shown on the screen.

Child voice: b b ko l gi konk e si (AC)
m mu ko l gi r is kukar (Rice kooker)
didi l i DVD
Konka TV h mi sabail i

Mal voice: ameriki lag ni tath j p ni teknoloji ma nirmit konka sarbatra upalabdha cha.

Context : Pictures of television are shown on the screen.

Inferences

1. Konka has all electronic products. (O)
2. Konka TV is for all. (O)
3. America invests only in best products (Flouting Quality)
4. Japanese technology is the best. (Flouting)
5. Konka is the best (C)

16. Name: **Soktim**
Product : **CTC Tea**

Context : Scenery of green beautiful tea garden

Male voice: Nepal kai pahilo bag nko d n dar ciy
Nepal ciya bikas nigamko ek utkrista k d ciy

Context : Different packets of tea are shown.

Inferences:

1. Soktim is the first granule tea in Nepal (O).
2. Nepal Tea Development Corporation produces quality tea (C).
4. Soktim is the production of NIDC (O).
5. Soktim is a quality tea. (Flouting: Quality)
5. Tea should be strong (S).
6. Soktim is strong granula tea (C).

17. Name : **Himalayan Spring**

Product : *Drinking water*

Context : A beautiful place with crystal water in the sea.

Voice: ISO 9001 dw r pram nit nepalko ek matra surkshit ebam sudha
pune p ni

Context: Pictures of bottles and jars filled with water are shown on the screen.

Inferences

1. An ISO certified product is good. (O)
2. Himalayan spring water is an ISO certified product. (O)
3. Water is our life. (S)
4. Drinking water should be pure and safe. (S)
5. Himalayan spring water is pure and safe to drink. (C)

18. Name : **Dhara**

Product : *Mustard Oil*

Context : Some kids are taking part in a race. A picture of kid's heart is shown. Some girls are exercising. A heart is shown on the chest of a girl as well.

Male voice: Swasthapanm nirvar hunchan jindagik umangaharu
sw stha mutuko l gi Dhara
purnat y sudhda toriko tel

Inferences

1. Dhara oil makes our heart healthy. (Flouting Quality)
2. No chemical mixture is in Dhara. (S)
3. Dhara oil makes us healthy. (O)
4. Our health is depended on Dhara oil. (Covert: flouting)

19. Name : **Rumpum**

Product : *Nooldes*

Context : Some men, women and kids are dancing with a packet of Rumpum noodles in the hands of each.

Male voice; Sabaiko ghar m ehi v s.

Sabail i man parne ehi sw d

Context : A famous Nepali actress enters with a bunch of flowers and starts dancing.

Female voice: har gharm khusi b dne hardam

Male voice : s thm rumpum khusiy li hardam

Inferences

1. You will be happy if you get Rumpum. (O).
2. Every one likes its taste. (O)
3. Rumpum brings happiness in every family. (Flouting : Quality)
4. A famous actress is a trustworthy person. (S)

5. She knows what is the best. (Flouting: quality)
6. Famous people choose Rumpum Noodles because it is good. (O)
7. If you eat Rumpum, you will be as happy as a famous actress. (C)

20. Name : **Zoom**

Product : *Chocolate*

Context : A girl is licking zoom chocolate

Voice: Zoom fun big fun

mero best chocolate

sw dilo chocolate

Inferences

1. Children like chocolate. (O)
2. Chocolate is tasty. (C)
3. Zoom is tasty. (O)
4. Children like zoom because it is tasty. (C)
5. Zoom brings fun in children. (Flouting: Quality)

21. Name : **New Fair and Lovely**

Product : *Fairness Cream*

Context : There is a model context, A judge is sitting behind a transparent glass through which he observes the faces of models. The judge disqualifies a model when she arrives there. She wipes out the glass with her scarf.

Female voice : d g dhabb hunai sakdaina

Male voice: She is perfect.

Context : Different packets of New Fair and Lovely are shown with a slogan "sign of flawless skin",

Inferences

1. Only fair girls can be good models. (O)
2. Fair and Lovely makes you win in a model context. (C)
3. Fair and Lovely makes your skin flawless. (O)
4. A girl looks like a superstar if she uses fair and lovely. (Flouting: Quality)
- With Fair and Lovely you will be a winner. (C)

22. Name : **Jagadamba**

Product : *Water pipe*

Context : People of different ages enjoy the shower

Male Voice: timi hau jiban timi ni hau sah r

timi pahic n hau bisw sko

timi bard n hau h mro jibanko

Male voice: bisw s yuga yugako

Context : Water pipes are shown on the screen.

Inferences

1. Water is life. (O)
2. Life needs pure drinking water. (C)
3. Pure water can be supplied by good pipes. (O)
4. Jagadamba water pipes are good. (C)
5. Jagadamba pipes last for ages. (Silent)
6. Jagadamba pipes are reliable. (Flouting)

23. Name : **Fitrite**

Product : *Shoes*

Context : A famous Nepali pop singer wears **fitrite** shoes and sings.

Voice: different looks different style

ghumfir m fitrite jogging m fitrite

n cg n m fitrite

p il ma p il m fitrite

Slogan : Fitrite the rite walk.

Context: Different models of fitrite shoes are shown.

Inferences

1. Fitrite is suitable in jogging, singing and dancing everywhere. (O)
2. If you wear fitrite, your walk will be right. (Silent)
3. A famous singer is a trustworthy person, he knows what is the best (Flouting)
4. Famous people choose fitrite, because it is good.
5. If you wear fitrite, you will feel as comfortable as a famous singer. (C)

24. Name : **Red Toothpaste**

Product : *Toothpaste*

Content : A famous telefilm actress gives a hard substance to a child to eat. The child says that he can't take as he suffers from toothache.

Male voice: d tko dukh i taipani s dh ran 'paste'

Female voice: lau aba yo 'Red toothpaste' timurle dukh ib ta r khcha
t dh

Context: Red toothpaste destroying germs is shown on the screen.

Inference

1. A famous actress is like a doctor, for she knows everything to get rid of any problems. (Flouting : Quality)
2. Red toothpaste removes toothache. (Flouting)

3. Simple toothpaste can't fight with germs. (S)
4. Only Red toothpaste can fight and kill germs. (C)

25. Name : **Panchakanya**

Product : *TMT Iron Rod*

Context : Five young girls (kanyas) are dancing.

Voice: pahilo TMT chad utp dak

saktis li gunstariya sadaiba

bisw silo surkshit

r stra nirm n m agrasar

Inferences

1. The first product is good. (O)
2. Panchakanya TMT Iron Rod is the first iron rod in Nepal. (O)
3. Panchakanya is good iron rod in Nepal. (C)
4. It is strong iron rod. (S)
5. It builds up the nation. (Flouting)

26. Name : **Honeytus**

Product: *Cough drops*

Context: A singer is about to sing a song in a concert.

Voice: ma ja japani khaskhas

Voice: Khokiko s dharan golile garcha tapa bar honeytus

Context: The singer takes one candy of Honeytus and starts singing.

Everybody cheers to him.

Inferences

1. A singer can't sing properly without clear throat. (O)
2. General cough tablets harm your throat. (O)

3. Dabur honeytus clears the throat. (C)
4. Dabus honeytus is good for famous singers. (Flouting)
5. If you take Dabur honeytus, you can be a good singer. (Flouting).

27. Name : **Fem**

Product: *Hair Remover Cream*

Context: A girl is driving a car. A 'squeezing tube' of Fem cream is shown.

Female vocie: aba nay squeezing tube m esle sarirko ro l i surakskit
sanga nik lcha minet mai ani l mo samaya samma feri unab ta
rokcha.

Context: A girl uses Fem cream and removes her hair. She reaches a
temple and hugs her boy friend.

Slogan" So easy just squeeze it.

Inferences

1. Hair makes your body unattractive. (O)
2. Fem removes hair in no time. (O)
3. Fem makes girls attractive. (C)
4. You look sexy, if you use Fem hair remover. (Flouting)

28. Name : **Jolly**

Product : *Drinks*

Context : Boys and girls enjoy drinking Jolly. Girls are fascinated by the
boys' style of drinking.

Voice: Fuel for the living

jolly jolly

Inferences

1. Drinks bring closeness in colleagues. (O)
2. If you drink jolly, you can attract girls, easily. (C)
3. Jolly helps you to fall in love. (Flouting Relevance)
4. Jolly provides everything for your living. (Flouting : Quality)

29. Name : **Kwiks Cheese Balls**

Product : *Cheese balls*

Context : Kids and youngsters are dancing and playing

Male voice : b l panko sw d japani ustai t j b ki cha eutai bacpan ko
y d 'kwiks cheese balls.'

Context: They eat kwiks cheese balls and packets are shown.

Inferences

1. Children like cheese balls. (C)
2. All cheese balls are not good. (C)
3. Only kwiks cheese balls is good. (C)
4. Kwiks cheese balls reminds of childhood happiness. (O)
5. All children like kwiks cheese balls. (Flouting: Quality)

30. Name : **Pepsodent**

Product: *Toothpaste*

Context : A beautiful girl drinks coffee with her friends.

Female voice: sumadhur musk n

ko c hadaina timisanga coffee piuna. Jati dherai coffee uti d nt ko seto
pan g yab ani s thiharu pani g yab

Context: Packets of pepsodent are shown.

Female voice: pepsodent ko prayog pachi dui hapt mai p nhelopang yab huncha.

Inferences

1. Coffee destroys whiteness of teeth. (O)
2. If your teeth are yellow, your friends leave you. (O)
3. If you use common toothpaste, it doesn't whiten your teeth. (C)
4. Only pepsodent toothpaste helps you regain whiteness of your teeth. (Flouting: Quality)
5. Pepsodent helps girls to be lovely. (Flouting: Relation)

The analyzed data can be summarized in the following tables.

Table 1
No. of Commercials and the Inferences Found

| Inferences | No of commercials |
|------------|-------------------|
| Covert | 28 |
| Overt | 29 |
| Silent | 14 |
| Flouting | 26 |

Table 2
No. of Inferences Found

| Inferences | No. of Inferences | Percentage |
|------------|-------------------|------------|
| Covert | 43 | 29.05 |
| Overt | 54 | 36.48 |
| Silent | 15 | 10.13 |
| Flouting | 36 | 24.32 |

CHAPTER-IV

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the study and conclusions are discussed in this chapter. Some pedagogical implications of findings and some recommendations for further research in this area will also be suggested.

4.1 Findings of the Research

1. All the inferences after Grice's principle i.e. covert, overt, silent, flouting inferences were found in Nepal TV commercials.
2. Most of the commercials which have flouting inferences violate the cooperative principle of Grice. These inferences found to be violating the factual truth to the benefit of the product.
3. Nepali TV commercials employ a greater number of covert and overt inferences in comparison to silent and flouting inferences. Thus, it was found that the advertiser is responsible only for the explicitly asserted claim but not for the implicitly conveyed information and inferences it gives rise to.
4. The main features of Nepalese TV commercials in this period were found puns and play with words, parodies and ironies, references to other ads, dominants of the image over the text, use of glamour, and incorporation of other discourses into advertising.
5. Sentences in the advertisements were comparatively shorter and these was maximum use of comparative and superlative degree of adjectives.
6. Most of the TV commercials have widely used celebrities such as movie stars (actors and actress), singers, players, comedians etc. In

one of the Nepali TV commercials, the slogan of the product is" The choice of Rajesh Hamal (a famous Nepali movie star).

7. There are two state owned TV channels and four private TV channels. All TV channels are found to have telecasted the same commercials.
8. There are many commercials in Nepali TV that are wholly or partially in English. Most of the TV commercials telecasted in Nepali channels are found to be translated versions of Hindi commercials and they largely reflect Indian society so that some commercials do not match our Nepalese context.
9. Though there are different bodies to regulate business it was found that they didn't observe the language of commercials. Due to this misleading messages are transferred to the audience.

4.2 Recommendations

1. There should be a proper authority to check the language and pictures of commercials so that they can not mislead the audience.
2. The copywriter should be aware of the fact that their simple mistake in word choice compels the audience to generalize wrong inferences.
3. The commercials that violate the factual truth to the benefit of the product should not be telecasted as they are directly attached with daily life of the audience.

4. As it was found that most of the commercials were translated from Hindi commercials, such trend should be changed because they do not match to our society.
5. The teachers of mass media, semantics and pragmatics should be well known about the inferences that can be drawn by the audience and they should provide such kind of information to the students.

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Appendix

A. Commercials telecasted from Nepal television

1. Close up Toothpaste
2. ROWA Television
3. Godrej Mehandi
4. RMC Rajesh Zinc Plate
5. Coirtuff Mattress
6. Real Mango Juice
7. Cocacola Cold Drink
8. Family Mustard oil

B. Commercial telecasted form Kantipur Television Network

1. Tictic Cracker
2. Magic Slippers
3. Soaltee Noodles
4. Daunne Cement
5. Shikhar Shoes
6. Konka Television
7. Soktim CTC Tea
8. Himalayan Spring Drinking water

C. Commercial telecasted from Nepal 1 Television

1. Baidyanath Chyawanparash
2. Dhara Mustard Oil
3. Rumpum Noodles
4. zoom Chocolate
5. New Fair and Lovely Fairness Cream
6. Jagadamba Water Pipe
7. Fitrite Shoes

D. Commercial telecasted from Image Television

1. Red Toothpaste
2. Panchakanya TMT Iron Rod
3. Honeytus Cough drops
4. Fem Hair Remover Cream
5. Jolly Drinks
6. Kwiks Cheese Balls
7. Pepsodent Toothpaste