



**NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

FACULTY OF HUMAN SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

**A FORENSIC LINGUISTIC INVESTIGATION OF THE FEATURES OF THREAT TEXT
MESSAGES IN THE WINDHOEK HIGH COURT FROM 2014 - 2019**

BY

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**THESIS PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ENGLISH AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS
AT THE
NAMIBIA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (NUST)**

SUPERVISOR: DR NIKLAAS FREDERICKS

19 March 2021

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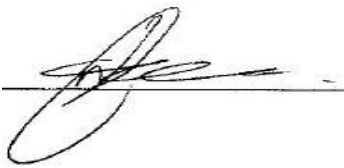
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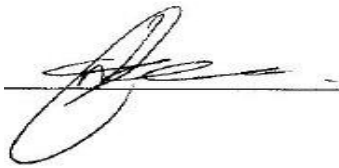
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Dedication

Firstly, I would like to thank the Almighty God for giving me the strength, knowledge, wisdom and willpower to complete this thesis. I dedicate this thesis to my beloved mother who kept on encouraging me that the sky is the limit and this has helped me to reach where I am today. I dedicate this thesis to my pillar of strength and “credit card”, who is my amazing husband, Hillary, whose sacrificial care is unparalleled towards myself and our children, Ethan, Pearl and Michelle, who are indeed a treasure from the Lord. Last but not least, I dedicate this thesis to all my family members and friends, who constantly encouraged me to do the best. I thank you all.

Acknowledgements

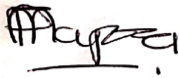
I would like to express my utmost appreciation to my supervisor, Dr Niklaas Fredericks, as I recognise his support and guidance during my research and for having the attitude and substance of a genius. He continuously and convincingly conveyed a spirit of adventure with regards to research. This thesis wouldn't have been possible without his guidance and continued support.

In addition, a big thank you to Prof. Haileleul Zeleke Woldemariam, for his guidance and support as my English and Research Methodology course facilitator. This thesis wouldn't have been completed without his effort and cooperation.

Lastly, but not least, a great big thank you to the staff of the Office of Judiciary staff at the High Court of Namibia, Windhoek, for allowing me to collect data at their institution.

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Abstract

The study of forensic linguistics contributes to the development of language when applied to threat text messages. Forensic linguistics involves the application of linguistic insights, knowledge and methods to language, judicial procedures, the forensic context of law, crime investigation, and trial (Olsson and Luchjenbroers, 2013). The present study investigated the features of threat text messages in the Windhoek High Court from 2014 - 2019 through the forensic linguistics lens. Permission was obtained from the Office of the Judiciary located in Windhoek. The study employed the speech acts theory as a framework for analysis. The speech acts theory assumes three aspects: the locutionary, illocutionary and the perlocutionary speech acts. The text selection criteria procedures were used to establish the merit of data from the threat text messages documents. Qualitative research methods were used to organise and analyse the data. The study found out that threat text messages can be analysed through forensic linguistics to reveal hidden criminal messages. The study also revealed that phonetic acts can be used to transcribe threat text messages. This helps in conveying and preventing the distortion of messages from one courtroom to another. The same message can be read in the exact same way as it was sent in a phonetic transcription. The study recommends that a similar study can be conducted by using a different theory other than the speech acts. Theories such as feminism, interactionism and the same morphological theories could generate different results that can enhance the study of language.

Key words: Forensic linguistics, threat text messages, locutionary, illocutionary and the perlocutionary speech acts

Abbreviations

FL: Forensic Linguistics

SAT: Speech Acts Theory

NUST: Namibia University of Science and Technology

TM: Text Message

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Historically, growth in forensic linguistics has been slow. Tiersma (2007) contends that early forensic research commenced in different disciplines (linguistics, psychology, sociology, law and anthropology). A variety of topics such as forensic phonetics, handwriting analysis and the linguist's function as a court specialist, in relation to the developed world of Europe, Australia and North America, has been quite pronounced. Research since the nineties has grown, emanating from all the above disciplines, thereby resulting in forensic linguistics as a cross-and multi-disciplinary field, having an updated bibliography that is currently at significant proportions if compared to earlier works. Studies by various researchers such as Coulthard and Johnson (2007); Grant (2008) and in particular Nini (2017), define a malicious forensic text as "one often threat, abuse or defamation, constituting evidence for a forensic case. Analysis of these texts is typically by forensic linguists in real cases of extortion, blackmail, ransom, threat, abuse, stalking and similar criminal activities" (p. 1).

Research on threat text messages which include ransom demands, abusive texts, defaming texts or extortion letters, are restricted chiefly to case studies. It can be noted that the register corpus of threat text messages is still missing (McMenamin, 2002; Kniffka, 2007; Olsson, 2003). Two contributing factors can be identified in relation to the practical lack of studies on the register regarding threat text messages. Firstly, such texts are problematic to access, thereby creating challenges to the analysis of large corpora of such texts. The other factor is that it could be possible that threat text messages are not considered generally as being regulated in their form and structure by any society, therefore likely not to present linguistic features that are common and characterising their register.

The Namibian judicial system is faced with numerous cases involving malicious text messages that can be regarded as threats. The current legislation (as at the end of 2020) does not explicitly reference on the issue, and it is still regarded as a grey area within the system. Notable cases have been brought before the Namibian courts (as will be illustrated in the findings and analysis of the thesis), which have illustrated the lack of clarity with regards to the treatment of threatening messages. It is against this background that this thesis determined the linguistic features associated with threat text messages as presented in selected cases in the High Court of Namibia over the period of 2014 to 2019.

The threat message analysis deliberated on the Speech Acts Theory. The background details the implication of the speech acts in judicial terms. It assumes that previous statements should not be weighed in a best interest's assessment. In passing a judgement related to the Speech Acts Theory, language use in sentences may not determine the final opinion in making a judicial argument. As reflected in threat texts in the Namibian context, the misinterpretation of lexical, sentences and the discourse can also be misinterpreted. The study employed the Speech Acts Theory to understand linguistic features as addressed in the objectives.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Carter (2010) notes that studies have been carried out around the world, where English language threats have been studied with particular focus on pronoun use and sentence types. However, it became apparent during the literature survey that such studies have not been conducted in Namibia. The subtle threat carried in messages of malice may be overridden if scrutiny is limited. Failure to understand and interpret the linguistic features in threat texts between the addressor and the addressee is always a problem. The complexity of linguistic features such as action verbs in the conveying of messages of illocutionary speech acts demands linguistic interpretation knowledge so as to understand threat texts. The failure to understand the linguistic messages communicated between the addressor and the addressee is a challenge when wrongly used. It was against this situational background setting that the present study aimed to investigate the linguistic feature of threat messages.

1.3 Research objectives

The central aim of the study was on understanding forensic linguistic features of threat text messages in the Windhoek High Court of Namibian. From the broad aim, the micro-objectives of the study were to:

- Evaluate the locutionary lexical items used by different threat message writers,
- Determine the illocutionary aspects commonly types of sentences used to threaten others,
and
- Establish the affecting perlocutionary discourse factors that are associated with threatening text messages.

1.4 Significance of the study

This study provides information to court interpreters for them to have a better method of conveying the linguistic messages between the addressor and the addressee as presented in court texts. Law students can reference the present study based on the linguistic aspects analysed. The study also benefits researchers and higher education institutions across disciplinary boundaries. According to the

International Association of Forensic Linguistics, FL aims at the improvement of the presentation of linguistic evidence and ethics of expert testimony, thereby promoting research into practice, as well as legal translation and interpreting (Grant & Perkins, 2012).

The research investigation also serves a purpose to various key stakeholders within the judiciary system of Namibia. These include the judges, magistrates, prosecutors, lawyers and other solicitors associated with the legal justice system of the country. Lawmakers within the legislative branch of the system can also benefit in the implementation and amendment of constitutional laws regulating the country. Societal benefits also accrue to members of the public. This is resultant of the improvement(s) in the overall justice system of the country. Consequently, mistrials are minimised and the margin of error in judgement is inadvertently reduced as well. This creates a positive portrayal of the country as it is deemed democratic in terms of the application of fair laws in accordance with international benchmark standards.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

The study was bounded by the Speech Act Theory because it encompasses key forensic linguistics elements associated with the discourse between addressor and addressee. The study also focused on threat text messages only, which originated within the Windhoek High Court from 2014 to 2019. The period of the research was six months (having commenced in April 2019, to November 2020) as the author undertook a thorough investigation of the problem studied.

1.6 Limitations of the study

Numerous notable limitations related to the undertaken research can be identified. Firstly, the data collected was constrained by most of it being outlined in local vernacular languages such as Oshiwambo, Otjiherero, Damara-Nama and Afrikaans. As a consequence, translation into the official language of English was required, and this needed specialist linguistics experts in the particular area of the language domain. In relation to the threat messages, some could be classified as ‘bluffs’ and thus diluting the impact of the ‘authentic’ threat message. It can be noted that some of the data can be classified in the same way as deceptive or untruthful. However, the study aimed to illustrate an intent portrayed by a threat message, and not necessarily the harmful action executed thereafter.

From the court transcripts analysed, there was not much differentiation between threatening and non-threat messages. Therefore, results were mainly based on the researcher’s interpretation of the level of threat shown within the message itself. Since the research was a qualitative one, it contained a limited amount of linguistic data and associated comparative models.

1.7 Definition of technical terms

Speech acts: are the utterances of the speaker, conveying meaning and make listeners do specific things (Austin, 1965). An utterance is an action, particularly with regards to its intention, purpose or effect.

Threat messages: expressing or suggesting a threat of harm, danger, etc., in the form of a message (Coombs, 2007).

Forensic linguistics: considering linguistic knowledge, insights and methods and employing them to the law context of forensic, investigation, trial, punishment and rehabilitation (Lindroos, 2012).

Linguistics: the systematic or scientific study of language. Linguistics is considered a science on the grounds that it studies the rules scientifically, as well as the principles and systems of human languages (Cook & Cook, 1993).

Illocutionary acts: acts enacted by a speaker through the utterance of certain words, for instance, the acts of threatening or of promising. They are linguistic acts in which one states, denies or asks (Searle, 1976).

Locutionary acts: these are acts of producing meaningful utterance, the use of spoken language that go before silence and then followed by silence or a change of speaker- also referred to as a locution on an utterance act (Kissine, 2008).

Perlocutionary acts: These are speech acts that produce an impression, whether intended or not, realised in an addressee by the utterance of a speaker, for instance, convincing, scaring and persuading (Kissine, 2008).

Discourse: a unit of language longer than a single sentence, and involves a verbal interchange of ideas (Wodak, 2011).

CHAPTER TWO: RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focusses on research work conducted previously, which is related to linguistic features of threat messages. It also overly bears on how the application of forensic linguistics is implemented in addressing language use. The literature review is guided by the research objectives, which acted as borderline parameters related to previous literary works and studies undertaken in associated scholarly works. The literature review is informed by the three objectives from the speech acts theory: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary.

2.1.1 An overview of threats

Shen and Dillard (2014) note that a threat is mainly related with dread, fear, terror, apprehension and anxiety. This sense of threat is, according to Pichon, de Gelder, and Grezes (2009), undoubtedly, a changed sensitivity, with adaptive value and neural substrates. Threats are *prima facie* indicators of risk when uttered or expressed, even though not everything that is alleged as threatening or as a threat is based on an intentional message of threat (Surface, 2011; Rick, Mania, Gaertner, McDonald, & Lamoreaux, 2010; Smith & Morra, 1994). Threats reveal an intricate relationship to physical harm. Threats are generally comprehended from a forensic perspective as a risk pointer of possibly terrorist behaviour or violently criminal (Meloy et al., 2012). Meloy et al. (2011, p. 166) indicate that, “Most threat writers do not undertake subsequent action on their threats. Threats may change (increase or decrease), or have no relationship to subsequent violence”. The relationship between threats and actual violent action varies from one context to another.

Salguerio (2010) notes that “threats are a trope recognised since historic times, reflecting a basic speech act (perclusio), even though ‘these threats may not necessarily, or even, typically, be verbal in context’” (p. 215). Although discursive and transcribable texts are in nature non-verbal, the preferred outcome features and contingency of these threats appear likely to be linguistically expressed. It can also be noted that, with the abundant and anonymising characteristics of modern media technology, the transfer of threats is becoming more effectual, and the prospective for social status consequences greatly expanded as a result of potential mass-communication features of such media.

2.1.2 Make-up (structure) and themes associated with threats

Taking into consideration an angle of communication or pragmatics connotations, threats are clear and varied speech acts. Limberg (2009) states that “from a speaker-orientation, as well as functional perspective, a verbal threat is composed of a linguistic strategy that is implemented to manipulate or even

coerce the addressee into (not) engaging into something that possesses undesirable outcome for him/her” (p. 178). According to the categorisation of speech acts by Searle (1975), promises and threats are regarded as commissives - illocutionary acts meant to commit the issuer to a particular action course. Threats may aim to achieve an entirely influential goal (for instance, demand or request compliance), or the threats may strive to evoke fear and terrorise in the provision of a satisfaction and motive of arousal. A number of scholars, in typical agreement, assent that threats comprise of:

- (a) applicability and consequences for the recipient(s),
- (b) possessing negative valence for the recipient, and
- (c) Assessment by the recipient(s) in regard to the preparatory or conditions of credibility.

Salgueiro (2010) indicates that threats are usually directive, instead of being commissive acts, that is, acts meant to impact a recipient and not essentially require the issuer to a certain action course. However, threat assessment gurus normally envisage violence and threats as stirred primarily by either expressive or instrumental motives, implying that some threats provide minimal tangible instrumental function. The issuer may also propose indirect control instead of direct control over the result of the threat. When categorising threats, in accordance to the speech act, the main implicit or explicit features considered include:

- (i) intentionality,
- (ii) negative valence,
- (iii) implicit or explicit issuer control,
- (iv) issuer’s preferred outcome,
- (v) contingency,
- (vi) credibility and willingness, and
- (vii) subjunctive mood.

As Kissine (2008) noted that, at most threats are usually understood from a pragmatic approach as forms of expressions directing to gain compliance or sometimes caused by a target agent or beneficiary. However, in some scenarios it is as result of the proximal motive as a result of an expression from nature. It has to be noted that researches of this area usually focus in distinguishing threats from promises, prophecies, warnings, advice and anger.

In a bid to understand the types and causes, a study by Schoeneman et al. (2011) was of the idea that approach to traditional psychology to threatening behaviour should at always understand one who threatens and the causes of the threats, the state of mind, prior actions before the violence to the speaker is usually determined by the context of the threats. A notable interest by researcher has shown that there is a link between the characteristics of linguistic communications features and the outcome of the threats. In support of such a verdict a notable research by Van Brunt (2015) eluded that written messages carries a lot of threats and several pointer to the claim noted the following;

- (a) Focus and fixation – target specification,
- (b) Hierarchical thematic content - narrative construction of the writer as a superior status protagonist,
- (c) Time imperative and action - illustration of progression towards action through chronemic and spatial cues,
- (d) Pre-attack planning – explicit or concealed (subtle) signals related to plan details of threatened action, and
- (e) Injustice collecting - signals of a scorecard of having been wronged.

The nature of the system is qualitative.

An interesting study by Spitzberg and Cupach (2014) holds the view that, threats are complex in nature. This is because every day messaging with threats usually carries false positives as they are usually passive. As a result of that, the default in such messaging usually result to direct -influence trials. This is driven from the fact that, failure to perform an act is usually considered as an iconic symbol of speech act effectiveness. There is always a gap between the act and the harm enacted by the speech. Consequently, although threats demonstrate a very high rate of false positives, they usually indicate a major diagnostic and perhaps even predictive data to relate to likelihood intention of aggression.

2.1.3 Threat messaging- a computational linguistics approach

Chung and Pennebaker (2011) identified different approaches that are computational to the analysis of threat text messages. They identified various differing categories of the approach, key being:

- (a) word pattern analysis of threat text messages and topic analysis which analyses the co-occurrence of word patterns in text classes of interest, and

(b) strategies of word count identifying psychologically salient classes to which words belong, and compiling word counts for these categories.

Both analysis types have been successful in the prediction of an assortment of textual properties. Moreover, Hancock et al. (2010) add one more approach referred to as social language processing (SLP). This SLP shares characteristics with the word-counting approach and may be viewed as building on it, while adding aspects of the machine learning paradigm. Also, SLP is deemed as a method of text classification in accordance to a particular social construct, such as, classification of messages of threat, predicting whether they will lead to a physical approach of the victim by the threatener, or to violence against the victim. SLP comprises of three stages, namely:

- (i) identification of linguistic features,
- (ii) extraction of linguistic features, and
- (iii) development of statistical classifier.

Gales (2010) notes that various text features have been identified by the threat literature, of differing complexity levels that may credibly contribute in a threat assessment classifier, either to predict approach or violence. A corpus-based approach may be implemented focusing on features of appraisal, and linguistic features expressing or revealing the evaluative stance of the author towards the subject. Meloy (2011) also recognised several features that are consistently found to forecast approach. Although focusing on non-text features, an identification of different features and communicative elements that might possibly be identified automatically, inclusive of request for help, entitled reciprocity and grandiosity. Narcissism and grandiosity open a new text domain which could be of importance. Relating to threat analysis, it could be observed as a combination of two approaches, namely, text-oriented analysis and author-oriented analysis. The psychological profile of the author is a significant factor, as well as the message content. A third component may be added to this, which is the recognition of a specific kind of relationship between the author and addressee.

Meloy (2011) notes that, it is entirely possible in two out of these components that the critical data is not encoded in the message, as well as that extra-textual features such as that provided by an author profile may prove important. The multi-modal feature of the evidence is one respect in which the problem of threat analysis is different from many other text classification problems.

2.1.4 Sub-areas of forensic linguistics

Coulthard and Grant (2017) note that, there has been over the past three decades tremendous and notable progression in the rate at which forensic linguistics has been applied in the judiciary. This area of forensic linguistics can be divided into the following:

Forensic authorship analysis involves an integral position within Forensic Sciences (McMenamin, 2002). It is an inherently interdisciplinary field between the disciplines of linguistics and law (Kredens, 2000). Essentially, linguists may focus on two tasks, namely, sociolinguistic profiling or authorship attribution. According to Couldard (2004) sociolinguistic profiling is typically requested when the police do not possess strong hypotheses about the author's identity. The linguist will be asked to look for linguistic clues, namely, the age, gender, social and regional background of the writer. As a result, authorship attribution is requested when there are one or more disputed texts and one or more potential authors. It is important to note that, forensic authorship analysis focuses on linguistic patterning at all levels: syntax, semantics, lexicogrammar and discourse, as well as orthography, punctuation and layout (Couldard & Grant 2017). Collectively, these linguistic features constitute the distinctive idiosyncrasies of the individual author on which any authorship attribution is based.

Sousa-Silva et al. (2011) indicate that a forensic authorship analyst is usually provided, not only with the text(s) of the unknown or questioned authorship, but also with a set of texts written by the suspect(s). The task for the linguist, then, is first to analyse the questioned text(s) for distinctive features and then to search for their (non-)occurrence in the texts of known authorship, and, on that basis, to exclude or include the author. Texts that are disputed can be suicidal notes, threat letters and wills.

Sousa-Silva et al. (2011) further contend that forensic linguists are also commissioned to provide evidence in cases of disputed meaning, usually single words or short phrases. Linguists have been involved in clarifying meanings in legal contracts, in aiding courts to decide if particular phrases constitute libel, slander or defamation, or if stretches of language constitute a threat or are evidence of hate crime. Forensic linguistic evidence has also been given in cybercrime cases. It subsumes defamation, threats, hate crimes, libel, as well as identity theft, fraud, violation of intellectual property rights and electronic vandalism.

2.1.5 Language differentiation in authorship attribution

Olsson (2008) makes an application of variation directly to a forensic context when discussing inter-author variation as well as intra-author variation. The intra-author variation focuses on the ways in which an author's text is different from another text written by the same author, whereas inter-author variation

focuses on the way texts vary amongst different writers or authors. Additionally, Olsson (2008) further discusses the eight causes of intra-author variation that are relevant when choosing particular texts for analysis, which are:

- (i) genre,
- (ii) text type,
- (iii) fiction compared to non-fiction,
- (iv) private compared to public texts,
- (v) lapse of time,
- (vi) disguise,
- (vii) changes in circumstance, and
- (ix) sociometric parameters.

For the progression of forensic language analysis, the two key procedures and techniques involve expert analysis by linguists and phoneticians. According to Chaski (1997), the main procedures adopted are:

- (i) Authorship analysis (written language) - focusing on sociolinguistic profiling and comparative authorship analysis.
- (ii) Meaning analysis (written and spoken language) - focusing on sociolinguistic profiling and comparative authorship analysis.
- (ii) Meaning analysis (written and spoken language) - involving determination of meaning and corpus linguistics.
- (iii) Speaker analysis - focusing on speaker comparison, speaker profiling, and automatic speaker verification and recognition.
- (iv) Other techniques and procedures - such as resolution of disputed utterances, transcription, deception and authentication detection.

In the global criminal justice system (Namibia inclusive), expert sociolinguistic profiling of writing specimens of unknown authors is being used to reduce the pool of suspects in an investigation. When implementing forensic language analysis, the following key areas are noted:

- (i) regulation and expertise,
- (ii) understanding limitations,
- (iii) expressing conclusions, and
- (iv) technical limitations.

Attribution authorship is the scholarship of inferring the author's characteristics from the document's characteristics produced by that same author (Kotze, 2010). Establishing who wrote or said something which is to be used as evidence becomes the key task. Attribution is enabled by the average number of syllables per word, measuring word length average, type-token ratio (a measure of lexical variety) and determiner/article frequency (McMenamin, 2010). Moreover, syntactic boundaries, punctuation in terms of overall density, and the measurement of words that are unique in a text, impact the solving of the task. Several studies in the past two decades stressed the importance of taking the relative frequency of various syntactic markers into consideration (Kredens, 2000; Chaski, 2005). Generally, it becomes effortless to eliminate someone as the author other than pinpointing someone with certainty.

Grant & Baker (2001) contend that doubt exists on what institutes a reliable marker of authorship marker and identification of one, particularly in the context of forensic linguistics where small samples and short texts are the custom despite the long history of authorship attribution. Rudman (1998) indicates that, at minimum, a thousand style markers exist in stylometrics research (although the figure is believed to be higher). It has to be noted that, style markers can be categorised as word-based, character-based, sentence-based, document based, syntactic or structural. As a result, function word usage such as conjunctions, common adverbs, auxiliary verbs, pronouns and prepositions are considered as key examples of style markers whilst it is also important to note that sentence length, punctuation and word collocations are also crucial in the same context.

Nevertheless, a study by Baayen et al. (2000) observed that in common terms style makers sometimes can be sensitive and depends on the genres and the topic especially when the corpus is small. It has to be noted that key characteristics of style makers usually play an important role in stating the key content or structure of the threat messaging. Most importantly, characteristics such as language variability (dialectal or idiolect) and text variance are common. As a result, most key characteristics usually are identified as function words, punctuation and spelling whilst the key and frequency of used words and lexis remain important.

2.1.6 Forensic text types

A study by Littlejohn & Mehta (2012) alludes that, any type of text is a forensic text be it written document, video or audio recording as it is usually used by the police or investigation purposes. It is important to note that, the investigative linguist can suggest to analyse a variety of documents in the process. It has to be noted that the type of the texts is at most including the emergency calls in which some threats are inked to hate mails and unnecessary demands with an aim to victimise the victim. As a result, the honest or untrustworthiness of the call should at always be measured to eliminate a joke for instance.

Interestingly, the same variation usually applies to suicide notes or letters. Finally, it is important to note that statements sometimes provide some clues or pointers on the innocence or guilt of a person who is convicted, for instance if death row inmate decides to utter their last words such as: “Well, I don’t have anything to say. I am just sorry about what I did to Mr Peters. That’s all.”

Interestingly, implicit or explicit death commotion statements usually den or confirm the commitment of a crime. This however, leaves the idea of innocence behind which might not be the case. Whilst it is important to consider that witnesses may not be considered serious as they deemed to be criticising the law enforcement as corrupt. Consequently, text messaging for authorship credibility can be analysed in case where the perpetrator is suspected of sending text messages from the victim’s phone pretending as if it was written by the victim. In this case, forensic linguist utilises the stylistic features in the messages. Apparently, statistical analysis of a function data base of thousands of text messages from the corps sample may facilitate analysis. Most importantly, the main question is that how to determine the point at which a style changes within the texts becomes evidence to rise a claim.

This has to be accompanied by the compilation of a sociolinguistic profile of the purported author in terms of age, origin, gender, as well as the educational, professional and social background. It is also important for the messages at hand to be linked by means of coherent and cohesive devices to specify the sequence in which they were sent. Consistent or inconsistent dialectal features may include, for instance, the use of personal pronouns (my/myself v me/myself).

Features of crucial stylistics are inclusive of the formation of word clusters (for example, ‘want2go’) and their average length as well as character (single words v phrases/clauses). Word length average, length of texts, spacing, punctuation, and so forth play a crucial role as well. One should also consider phrases and individual words that can be presented in a variety of ways (for example, ‘av’, ‘hav’ and ‘ave’ for ‘have’), and also alphanumeric, alternative lexical choices - morphological, orthographic/phonic

reduction, as in: 4u2 fone gr8t! r u goin? or letter replacive, orthographic (punctuation-related, homophonic and, upper/lower case).

However, one should bear in mind that a person's texting or writing style is not always consistent as it might change, for instance, due to changes in life circumstances, addressee relationships or the text type. Moreover, a language feature which appears in a small sample cannot be treated as a 'constant' for variation in larger samples. In addition, mobile phone texts sometimes use mixed styles (Olsson, 2009, p. 57). On numerous occasions, thorough linguistic analyses of the SMS messages sent from a victim's phone have led to the capture of the perpetrator due to certain idiosyncratic features, such as spacing, non-contraction of positive verbs, using "I'm"/"Im" or owing to inconsistencies in texting styles (e.g., "cu" vs "cya", "my" vs "me", "Im not" vs "aint") (Amos, 2008).

There are two types of author variation: *within* and *across* texts. The former, so-called intra-author variation, makes reference to the ways in which one author's texts are different from each other. This may include text type, depending on genre, variation in vocabulary, private v public texts, fiction v non-fiction. Nevertheless, one has to consider such factors as time lapses between two communications, possible disguise, change in personal circumstances (for instance, language of trauma), cultural changes that may influence, for example, the texting language), and so forth. Moreover, all authors' exhibit variation in genre, text type, and the like, and that variation in short texts can be extreme. Inter-author variation is concerned with approaches in which different authors vary from each other as a result of differing social backgrounds, geographical origin, levels of education, different levels and types of profession or occupation, and so on. There exists also the short text stability problem: in short text analysis, low inter-author variation and high intra-author variation are usually found when the texts are of the similar type (Littlejohn & Mehta, 2012).

2.2 Previous studies conducted in Namibia on forensic linguistics

The aspect of forensic linguistics as a discipline is still developing in the Namibian legal field. In a bid to contextualise the term was developed and employed in the academics by Professor Jan Svartvik's (1968) in his book *The Evans statements: A case for forensic linguistics*. This contextualisation was utilised for the first time.

It must be noticed that, Namibia's application has been moderately low when contrasted with the created world. With much proof, Australian etymologists have been viewed as exceptionally evaluated as far as the use of socio-phonetics to the extent ahead of schedule as the 1980s. Whilst it is significant that Australia, Europe and New Zealand had used legal language specialists into a space of scholarly

exploration. In any case the way that, scientific language specialists helps in legal disputes to give some proof for the situation through a phonetic investigation of authoritative records. Among different abilities, they can distinguish creators dependent on the language utilization in an assertion, or report and to give interpretation and lawful understanding in a court (Docrat et al., 2009).

Namibia's top tertiary establishments, the University of Namibia and Namibia University of Science and Technology, don't offer 'Legal Linguistics' as an independent program, however it is imbued in course, for example, 'English and Applied Linguistics' and 'Criminal Justice (Policing)' and 'Law Studies'. The frontier linkage among Namibia and South Africa has impacted the previous' advancement in this field, impact that of the last mentioned. In Namibia, Forensic phonetics is for the most part a space of examination that is interdisciplinary. It mostly addresses language use in the country's legal framework. This is corresponding to understanding or interpretation, and perceiving the worth added by measurable etymologists as master observers.

Studies embraced in Namibia in the use of scientific etymology incorporate Harupe (2019), entitled A legal semantics investigation of the communicated in court language utilized in robbery and thievery cases at the Windhoek Magistrate's Court. This is one of the moderately scarcely any scholastic works relating to the field that is promptly available for examination and conversation. Restricted exploration has been directed inside this field, and this has gone about as a persuasive factor towards the current analyst undertaking a concentrate in this specific point.

Moeketsi (1999, as referred to in Harupe, 2019), wails over importance misfortune in court interpretations through such strategies as lexical improvement and estimate, which court translators regularly resort to. At times, the creator contends, there is through and through adulteration of source data by translators because of the limitations emerging from absence of direct etymological counterparts between various dialects bringing about the chance of premature delivery of equity. The second similitude between the Namibian, Zimbabwean and South African court frameworks is that the predominance of English in the general set of laws leaves out the likely utility of African dialects in lawful practice. An examination concentrate by Fernandez (1993), researched what language strategy in the law educational program meant for South Africa's general set of laws. The language arrangement saw by Fernandez (1993) in South Africa is like Namibia's in two ways, basically which in the two frameworks, English involves a pre-famous situation in the general set of laws, and that the strength of English in the overall set of laws excludes the expected convenience of African dialects in legitimate practice.

2.2.1 Commonly used locutionary lexical items by different threat message writers

Threatening messages can be classified in accordance to particular linguistics features. These messages can be categorised as either authentic or real threats, latent threats or bluffs. According to Chung and Pennebaker (2011), an authentic or real threat is one that is believed to be true by a speaker or writer, therefore linguistic markers of honesty would likely appear in such a communication of threat. One area in which text analyses have informed psychologists of future behaviour is in the letters of suicidal and written literature as well as non-suicidal individuals.

Post et al. (2009) note that studying the characteristics of messages that are threatening can be undertaken from research on organisations involved as terrorist and their communication systems, due to the rarity of interviews with such radical organisations. According to a text examination by Pennebaker and Chung (2008), a comparison of fifty-eight translated al-Qaeda texts was made with those of other terrorist groups from a corpus created by Smith (2004). The communication from al-Qaeda texts illustrated far more hostility, which was evidenced by greater usage of anger words and third-person pronouns. Embracement of exclusive words (such as but, except, exclude, without) reflects cognitive complexity in thinking as applied for threatening communication purposes.

Handelman and Lester (2007) note that, a bluff, in contrast to a real threat, may contain deception markers, given that it is one considered and believed by the speaker or writer to be false. In relation to suicide threats, completers make more references to social connections and positive emotions, and less references to religion and death than did attempters (bluffers). A latent can be defined as the overt and explicit planning of an aggressive action, while at the same time concealing the action plan from the target (Hogenraad & Garagozav, 2008). Power motives are identifiable through the usage of such words as ‘ambition, conservatism, invade, legitimate and recommend’. Affiliation motives can be recognised by such terms as dad, courteous, indifference, thoughtful and mate, and before times of confrontation these decrease in relation to power motive words.

According to Barrclough and Pallis (1975, pp. 55-61), with relation to suicide notes, some posts indicate clinical depression as illustrated by the language used by the addressor of the threat message. Some of the suicide note authors pass through different episodes of depression and their resultant notes depict emotional exhaustion. The authors normally use present simple tense to express their emotions. Examples of such messages include “they all hate me...”, “I have no reason to live...”, “I am basically the black sheep in my family...”, “I hate this life...”, and “I am never loved...”. Joiner (2010) also indicates that

emotional messaging is also used as a subtle threat, in some cases, even overtly, as the addressor, tries to convey his/her message. Gumperz (1982) notes that the most prominent expression of an emotion state is that of the “fear of death”. Despite the fact that fear as an emotion can be depicted in negative connotations, the fear of death adds to it a positive angle. This is achieved by an instinct of self-preservation inherent in the expression regarding the fear of death. Some examples of the expressions of a fear of death and hesitation can be identified in the following: “I don’t know what I am feeling but am scared to die; “Don’t kill me God”. The language used by addressors in most suicide notes shows an unwillingness to continue living, a final decision to die, and a lack of interest in life (Brown & Yule, 1983).

A locutionary act can be considered as a greater amount of expression of specific words in a specific language. Austin (1965) noticed that a locutionary act is one when the speaker produces specific commotion or expresses words in legitimate request and says something that should be reasonable, reference, and which means in them. In this example, phonetics and language structure assume a significant part. Austin (1965) further notes that a locutionary act, that is, the genuine expression and its obvious apparent importance, made out of, phatic, rhetic acts, and phonetic, compare to the syntactic, verbal, and semantic parts of any significant expression.

The idea of locutionary act, according to Austin (1965) involves:

- a) Performance of the act of uttering certain noises (a phonetic act).
- b) Performance of the act of uttering certain vocables or words (a phatic act), and
- c) Performance of the act of using that sentence or its constituents with a certain more or less definite ‘sense’ and a more or less definite ‘reference’, which together are equivalent to ‘meaning’ (rhetic act).

From the above division, it follows that the locutionary act comprises of three sub-acts, namely, rhetic, phonetic and phatic (although this was criticised by Austin’s followers).

Nordquist (2019) notes the division of locutionary acts into two basic types: propositional acts and utterance acts. An utterance act in a speech act is a speech act consisting of the verbal employment of units of expression such as words and sentences. Utterance acts refer to those acts in which something is said (or a sound is made) that may be meaningless. Searle (1975) refined the definition of locutionary acts by explaining that they should be meaningful and/or seek to persuade. Locutionary acts, therefore, should not simply be meaningless bits of speech, but should be purposeful, either seeking to bolster an argument, express an opinion, or cause someone to take action.

Austin, in a 1975 updated version of his earlier book *“How to do things with words”*, further polished the conception associated with locutionary acts. In providing an explanation for his theory, Austin, indicated that locutionary acts, in and of themselves, did indeed have meaning, stating that “In performing a locutionary act, we shall also be performing such an act as:

Asking or answering a question;

Providing some information or an assurance or a warning;

Announcement of a verdict or an intention;

Making an appointment, an appeal, or a criticism; and

Providing a description, or making an identification.”

By definition, locutionary acts have meaning, such as asking questions, providing information, announcing a verdict or even describing something. The meaningful utterances made by humans when communicating to persuade others to their viewpoint, their needs and wants are the locutionary acts.

2.2.2 Determination of the illocutionary common types of sentences used to threaten others

Fraser (1998) deduced the conclusion that there is a plethora of syntactic patterns common to threatening utterances in relation to syntax that are adopted in threatening texts, thus it may be probably impossible or difficult in the determination whether a text is threatening by the language used alone. These conclusions are reinforced by Kaplan (2016), and Solan and Tiersma (2005), who highlight context importance in the determination of the illocutionary/perlocutionary threatening status of an utterance. Gales (2010, 2011) carried out studies, which largely confirmed linguistically exploration of a sample of threatening letters in relation to their lexicogrammatical expressions of linguistic stance (Bieber, 2006). Generalised conclusions illustrate that threatening texts showed an incidence of modals. The study also indicated that threatening texts were more probable than non-threatening texts to express deontic/volitional meaning aimed at controlling the addressee.

As a consequence, modal usage, notably in prototypical syntactic threatening patterns, for example, “if you do not do this, I will...”, can be concluded as the prototypical realisation of a threatening act. Napier and Mardigian (2003) divided threatening texts into three categories, namely:

1. direct/specific: the threat is specific and particular with regard to all the circumstances in which the harmful action will be carried out,

2. conditional: the threat is presented as a condition with a request for the recipient to carry out an action, and
3. indirect: the threat is unconditional and not precise regarding its circumstances.

Albeit this fundamental scientific classification is like an underlying register variety examination, the outcomes depended on explore insight, and not on semantic rules (McMenamin, 2002; Kniffka, 2007; Olsson, 2003).

McMenamin (2002, p. 92) further explains that quantifiable semantics can be applied as the examination of a very capable's point of view as indicated by phrases, conditions, ramifications of words, areas comparing to individual, and furthermore business correspondence and legal (for example in wills, arrangements, artistic robbery, or occurrences of copyright infringement) whether or not in oral, printed rendition or electronic construction, and continues to communicate that, "Key investigation districts in logical semantics are the comprehension of words, phrases, sentences, messages, dimness in message and laws, and interpretation of importance in spoken talk." Therefore, legitimate semantics can be used in the assessment of sabotaging messages in a correspondence. As per accentuation examination of giving and taking messages, Pennebaker (1999) states that, "focusing in on explicit word classes or words, syntax use can be applied in various examinations of investigation, far reaching of energetic, scholarly, fundamental assessments, and connection parts of individuals' verbal and created language" (p.1297). Therefore, it becomes less complex in the confirmation of the peril level of explicit report.

Dangers are made for different reasons including outrage or ugliness. Dangers can either be legitimate or unlawful. As indicated by Fraser (1998), a danger is a revelation or assurance of expectation or to incur discipline, misfortune, or torment on another, or to harm one more by the commission of some unlawful demonstration. It can likewise be treated as a danger, particularly, any hazard of such nature and degree as to disrupt the brain of the individual on whom it works, and to detract from his/her demonstrations that free and willful activity which alone establishes assent. In both the legitimate and unlawful dangers, notwithstanding, there is a shared characteristic. Aggressive intentions comprise a purposeful demonstration, an illocutionary demonstration of utilizing language to communicate something specific, that is, to accomplish an ideal exchange of data. Fraser (1998) characterizes the illocutionary demonstration of undermining as occurring when a speaker shows deliberate articulation through an expression:

C1 - The goal of the speaker is to by and by submit a demonstration (or be answerable for achieving the commission of the demonstration).

C2 - The conviction of the speaker is that this demonstration will bring about a negative condition of the world for the recipient.

C3 - The aim of the speaker is to scare the recipient.

Yamanka (1995) states that in each danger shows the expectation of sending dread into the recipient. Some level of dread that isn't really miserable fear. For speakers to effectively give a danger, they should have the aim to communicate three things through their expression:

- a) An express goal to play out a demonstration,
- b) Overt conviction that the condition of the world coming about because of that act is troublesome to the recipient, and
- c) Clear and explicit goal to threaten the recipient.

Assuming there is attributing of these variables to the speaker's expression, it tends to be presumed that a fruitful danger was made. Since playing out an illocutionary act, a demonstration of correspondence relies just upon the speaker communicating the imperative mentalities which characterize the demonstration, and execution doesn't reference the recipient, a danger is fruitful free of the recipient's convictions.

The position, taken here stays as an undeniable contrast to that taken by Story (1995) who wrote in the article dynamic, "Regardless, because explicit circumstance and language association is naturally and in the end erratic, it is amazingly if not unfathomably difficult to construct a setting independent significance of risk". Thusly, it might be seen that it is conceivable to get a setting free meaning of a danger, yet in every practical sense, unfathomable, to pick with assertion when a risk has been made.

Thinker J.R. Searle formulated a process for ordering discourse acts and proffered that there are just five places of illocutionary that speakers can accomplish on recommendations in an expression as proposed via Searle as follows:

- (I) Directive - a discussion among first and second individual, and the speaker attempts to cause the listener to accomplish something, with so much words as ask, order, solicitation, and request,
- (ii) Commissive - the speaker submits him/herself to future game-plan with action words, like reject, guarantee, swear and ensure,
- (iii) Representatives - the speaker declares a suggestion to be valid, utilizing such action words as accept, insist, close, deny, state, and report,
- (iv) Declarative - the outer status or state of an item, circumstance or setting is changed by the speaker, exclusively by making the expression, and
- (v) Expressive - the speaker communicates a situation or a mentality, utilizing action words for example, much obliged, compliment, apologize and acclaim.

The utilization of dangers being illocutionary or perlocutionary discourse acts isn't so clear (Nicoloff, 1989). Though illocution has been, in different occurrences, elucidated as far as thoughts like expectation, show, constitutive guideline or standard, perlocution is by and large treated as related with the simply normal or causal, and dangers appear to imply perlocutionary highlights in a fundamental, or constitutive, as opposed to a just common yet unexpected way. The illocutionary point of dangers is to adjust the beneficiary's future direct. That is important for their illocutionary power as orders bringing about no specific issues for the Speech Act Theory. Hence, the speaker's goal of summoning a conduct reaction in the beneficiary is consubstantial to dangers that are mandates, comprehensive of, commissives; without a doubt which, it is hard to learn why an expectation to impact the collector in alternate ways ought to not moreover be consubstantial to specific illocutionary powers (Salgueiro, 2010)

2.2.3 Perlocutionary factors that are associated with discourse in threatening text messages

Pestian et al. (2010, 2012) completed broad exploration researching the outcome of feeling highlights on the distinguishing proof of compromising text through examination of etymological provisions. The investigates predominantly focussed on those emotive provisions that have been displayed to assume a part in the clinical evaluation of the addressor.

Bak et al. (2014) demonstrate that three corpora can be clarified on different condition level to recognize compromising texts utilizing etymological provisions. The primary level spotlights on feeling highlights where twelve feelings on a proviso level were recognized. These were: data, pride, love, dread, pardoning, sadness, culpability, distress, serenity, guidance, joy, appreciation and confidence. Negative feeling provisions can likewise be recognized, as works dependent on Pestian et al. (2012) have

illustrated, use 'fault', 'outrage' and 'misuse' notwithstanding the positive feelings. A few conditions can contain more than one feeling, accordingly, the comment highlights are not in every case fundamentally unrelated.

The talk level goes past what morphology and language structure can clarify. Etymological provisions can be applied at a degree of extraction of compromising data by investigating the most successive lexical terms. This includes the extraction of note length, intellectual cycles, tenses (future, past, present), refutation, signs, normal sentence length, relativity, intensifiers, action words and modifiers (Gregory, 1999). Semantic components, which further develop the order exactness considerably, are normally the length of a note, amount or number of action words and things just as charm provisions and relativity. Corresponding to self-destruction notes, Gregory (1999) fights that these are more prominent long on the grounds that the creator needs to impart however much data as could reasonably be expected, because of their inclination that they won't have the opportunity to pass on this at a future period. Jones and Benell (2007) affirm that an individual who is self-destructive is under a higher drive and consequently bound to allude to a bigger number of items (things). Ogilvie et al. (1966) likewise recognized a high recurrence of passionate charm in certifiable self-destruction notes, and other etymological elements can likewise be distinguished.

Hufford and Heasley (1983, p. 250) was of the likelihood that a perlocutionary is the exhibit that is finished by a speaker when making an articulation causing a particular effect in the audience and other". A perlocutionary act is similarly the exhibition of offering someone. Perlocutionary act implies with the effect the articulation has on the examinations or exercises of the other person. A perlocutionary act is explicit to the states of issuance, and is along these lines not expectedly refined just by communicating that specific articulation, and consolidates that heap of effects, arranged or inadvertent, consistently unclear, that some particular articulation in a specific or certain situation causes.

Perlocution is primarily seen as related in the simply causal or normal and dangers appear to imply perlocutionary highlights in a fundamental, or constitutive, instead of an only regular however unexpected way. Especially, certain standard and evidently ordinary perlocutionary acts - making the recipient feel threatened, alarmed and so forth - seem to shape part of what a danger is (Nicoloff, 1989). This inclination to see dangers as a component of nature inspires echoes of the traditional legend of the common agreement, of a guarantee that denotes the finish of a pre-social - the pre-semantic normal condition of the ceaseless, all-onto-all contention inescapable hazard: however it is a halfway view

overstating the differentiations among dangers and guarantees. With respect to and guarantees, contemplations of whether perlocution is fundamental for dangers however not to guarantees, it should be borne as a primary concern that all Searlean orders, by definition, are pointed toward fostering specific impacts on the collector. In this way, the speaker's intention(s) of conduct reaction inspiration in the collector is consubstantial to the two dangers and guarantees that are mandates just as commissives; without a doubt which, it is hard to perceive any reason why an aim to impact the beneficiary in alternate ways ought not moreover be consubstantial to Speech Act powers (Ardal, 1968).

According to the perlocutionary act in the Speech Act Theory, the announcement that while delivering a declaration communicator has two boss points – to be accepted and to be perceived – can be acknowledged with no contention. Since few out of every odd demonstration of correspondence is a demonstration of affirmation, they are expressions by which the speaker doesn't fundamentally plan to make show any series of expectations wherein the listener could accept or not. Leaving to the side the undeniable instances of non-decisive sentences (Wilson and Sperber, 1988), they are additionally open demonstrations whose primary drive is to bring out a compelling state in the listener.

2.2.4 Deliberation of the Speech Act Theory

Smith (2015) characterizes the Speech Act Theory as a gadget that is utilized to interfere with a discourse in scriptural settings. Smith (2015) distinguishes a book of scriptures section as an illustration that utilized the Speech Acts Theory to build the show of a scene. The hypothesis of discourse acts can likewise be applied to examines in various settings. Cohen and Krifka (2014) utilized the hypothesis to address standout quantifiers and meta-discourse acts. Issues tended to in the review were instinct in demonstrating discourse acts and meta-discourse acts. In this example, the displaying can be likewise assessed while dissecting danger texts. In any case, Gordon (2013) subtleties the ramifications of the discourse acts in legal terms and expects that past assertions ought not be given load in a wellbeing's evaluation. In passing a judgment identified with the Speech Acts Theory, language use in sentences may not decide the last assessment in posing a legal viewpoint. In opposition to insightful moral origin where foul language isn't suggested, Bianchi (2006, as referred to in MacKinnon, 1987) distinguishes sexual entertainment as the subjection of ladies. Then again, Langton and Hornsby (1998) express that erotic entertainment works can be fathomed as illocutionary acts designated at quieting ladies or subjecting ladies. In a similar setting, ladies in Namibia face a similar subjection when they make an endeavor to utilize language in the court framework. Because of the antiquated practice of verse in friendly settings, De Geynesford (2010) excuses Austin's case that the expression of a line in verse couldn't be not kidding. They didn't out appropriately excuse Austin's case yet proceeded to acknowledge the end that the

expression of a sentence in verse couldn't be a performative expression. As taken after in danger messages in the Namibian setting, the confusion of lexical sentences and the talk can likewise be misconstrued. The current review utilized the Speech Acts Theory to comprehend semantic components as tended to in the targets.

2.2.5 Calibre of threat messages

Different messages of dangers have been analyzed in Austin and Searle's Speech Act Theory, just as in Grice's (1975) sayings. A portion of these dangers incorporate 'Give me your cash, or I'll shoot', 'I'll get you one day', and 'Contact that and you'll kick the bucket.' However, it very well may be noticed that an absence of nitty gritty investigation and study on dangers and the discourse demonstration of such messages, has brought about restricted development inside this discipline. Coulthard and Johnson (2007) recognized what they alluded to as 'pernicious legal text', it being a piece of composed proof in a legal case including misuse, danger, maligning, or a blend of the abovementioned. Award (2008) battles that these texts are commonly examined by scientific etymologists in genuine instances of coercion, deliver, blackmail, following, danger, misuse, and comparable crimes. By and by, disregarding the centrality inside the criminological phonetics field, restricted explores have been done around here. While note that, the term register has been clarified as an etymological with variety related with a particular circumstance of utilization (Biber and Conrad, 2009).

Dangers are a particular type of commissive illocutionary discourse act (Fraser, 1998). Searle (1979), proposes that a danger can be additionally separated from other commissives like guarantees, since:

- (a) The recipient is scared by the danger.
- (b) Just an aim is communicated by the speaker of a danger and not a pledge to play out a demonstration.

Fraser (1998) finds that comparable to the language of compromising texts, that it is most likely outlandish or hard to decide if the language alone would deliver a text undermining, despite the fact that there are various syntactic examples that are normal to expressions of undermining. These ends are built up by Solan and Tiersma (2005), and by Kaplan (2016). The last features the meaning of the conditions deciding addressor and recipient undermining status expressions. The obsession with the plan to submit a demonstration and on the terrorizing proposed by Solan and Tiersma (2005) and Fraser (1998) was generally affirmed according to an etymological point of view by Gales (2010 and 2011) in an examination and investigation of an example of undermining letters for the lexicogrammatical

articulations of phonetic position (Biber, 2006). Napier and Mardigian (2003) allocated messages of compromising into three classifications, in particular:

1. direct/explicit: the danger is obviously explicit on every one of the conditions where destructive activity will be completed,
2. Contingent: the danger is given as a condition a solicitation for the beneficiary to complete an activity, and
3. Circuitous: the danger is unqualified and not explicit with respect to its conditions.

Albeit this starter scientific categorization identifies with an underlying register variety examination, Naspier and Mardigian's (2003) results depended on insightful experience and not phonetic standards. As indicated by Mcmenamin (2002), Kniffka (2007), and Olsson (2003), studies with respect to different types of MFTs, for example, recover requests, oppressive texts, slandering texts, or blackmail letters, have primarily been examined in a few legal etymology considers. Similarly, texts relating to instances of maligning have been expansively examined according to a realistic viewpoint (Tiersma, 1987; Shuy, 2010). By and large, notwithstanding, a register investigation of a corpus of MFTs is still unaccounted for.

2.3 Research gap

It tends to be expressed that little examination has been finished with respect to this review region in this specific field. Accordingly, this review is a venturing stone for future scientists. Concerning the Namibian setting, scientific semantics has had restricted application inside the nearby legal executive framework. Both the legitimate structure and Namibia's policing framework has been very conventional in their methodology towards wrongdoing examinations and addressing. Thus, the utilization of semantic components, with specific reference to danger messages will be of need in overcoming any issues at present existing locally. This exploration plans to make attention to the importance of semantic properties towards the improvement of the logical legal sciences field inside Namibia. The explanation that scientific semantic investigations have not effectively prospered in Namibia is the severe legitimate states of getting to characterized information.

2.4 Theoretical structure: Speech Act Theory

This concentrate principally applied the hypothesis of The Speech Act Theory which directed the examination. This hypothesis is additionally called the Language Act or Linguistic Act. It was proper for this exploration in light of the fact that any etymology correspondence accepts Linguistics Acts. The

hypothesis clarifies how utterers use language in accomplishing expected activities just as how listeners set up the planned significance based on what was conveyed.

2.4.1 Proponents of the Speech Act Theory

The Speech Act Theory was at first advanced as the 'Illocutionary Hypothesis' which was hence insinuated as the 'Performative Hypothesis' during the 1940s and 1950s (Abrams et al., 2005). John Langshaw Austin bestowed one more picture in separating significance, being portrayed in a relationship among phonetic shows associated with words/sentences, a situation where the speaker truly follows his/her connected points, and says something to the audience. Austin attempted to depict the Total Speech Act in the outright talk situation, and advised against mutilation of complexities of importance, explicitly, by reducing significance to clarifying significance.

The Speech Act Theory was introduced by Oxford intellectual J.L. Austin in 'How to completely finish words' and further made by American intellectual John Rogers Searle. It thinks about how much articulations are said to perform locutionary acts, illocutionary acts or conceivably perlocutionary acts. Various realists and language experts focus on Speech Act Theory as a method of bettering handle human correspondence (Kemmerling, 2002). Austin divided his semantic exhibition into three unmistakable classes, specifically:

(I) Locutionary act - the exhibition of saying something. It has a significance and it makes a reasonable totally to pass on or express.

(ii) Illocutionary act - it is continued as an exhibition of saying something or as a show of conflicted with to saying something. The illocutionary articulation has a particular force of it. It is educated with explicit tones, viewpoints, opinions or sentiments. There will be an objective of the speaker or others in illocutionary articulation. It is ordinarily used as a notification tone in everyday presence.

(iii) Perlocutionary act - it commonly makes a sensation of extensive ramifications for the group. The outcomes potentially as thought, personalities, opinions or sentiments. The effect upon the beneficiary is the central charactership of perlocutionary articulations.

Scholar J.R. Searle defined a method for arranging talk acts. There are only five spots of illocution that speakers can achieve on proposals in an articulation as proposed through Searle as follows:

(I) Directive - a conversation among first and second individual, and the speaker endeavors to make the audience achieve something, with such a lot of words as ask, request, sales, and solicitation,

- (ii) Commissive - the speaker submits him/herself to future technique with activity words, as deny, ensure, swear and guarantee,
- (iii) Representatives - the speaker pronounces a suggestion to be substantial, using such activity words as acknowledge, confirm, wrap up, deny, state, and report,
- (iv) Declarative - the speaker changes the external status or condition of an article, situation or setting only by making the articulation, and
- (v) Expressive - the speaker conveys a circumstance or an attitude, using activity words for instance, much appreciated, salute, apologize and praise.

2.4.2 Application of the Speech Act Theory

Discourse acts can be applied to various talks from comprehensive examination. Vanderveken (1994) takes note of that scholars and etymologists contend that discourse acts are not disengaged moves in correspondence, yet show up in more comprehensive worldwide units, characterized as discussions or talks. It very well may be contended that a discussion is made of successions of discourse act (in spite of the fact that there are protests for the most part raised via Searle (1992) in his suspicious contention). Moeschler (2001) noticed that assorted examination has been utilized broadly inside the talk investigation worldview, essentially because of the practical properties related with discourse goes about as units of importance which have been sent out to discourse goes about as units of correspondence and talk. This has brought about numerous ramifications or materialness for the depiction of discourse acts inside talk examination.

The main concern is that the conversational design is additionally useful and isn't just grounded on an electorate progression. Taking a traditional talk model (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), talk classes (trade, move and act) are characterized practically. All talk constituents get a correspondence work, that is, intelligent significance. As per Deleuze and Guattari (2005), subjectification (socialization) is made conceivable by the discourse act. Language and an assertion state unequivocally what ought to be held. All in all, punctuation and language requests are an incredible marker prior to being a grammatical marker. Being social accepts language and it is plausible that it will be coordinated by indications of essential kinds like judgment, performative words and order (Gatens, 1995) that incite or send impacts and they have suggestions that are practical related. The importance and coerciveness of the request word relies on its socially acknowledged importance. That is, a discourse act surmises social oblivious inside

the aggregate collection of articulation. Request word is useful and forms specific socially characterized activities, and changes the social circumstance with explanations that adequately accomplish them.

A discourse act is an expression serving a capacity in correspondence. Searle (1975) states that, aside from the performative part of expressions, a discourse act has numerous different measurements. Language is frequently used to perform goes about just as to get things done and not just portray or advise things. People have an extensive decision of semantic articulations, which they make as successful as could be expected. Various elements decide the decision of language, and these incorporate customs, connections between speakers, culture, the sort of circumstance and gatherings of people. Criminological semantics is along these lines applied in this hypothesis, when inside a specific class there are contrasts, consequently, the addressor or recipient can confuse the message. Austin recognizes two primary discourse goes about as either constatives or performatives. For an activity to be embraced, performatives are utilized, which is somewhat unfortunate or well suited. Then again, for an assertion to be made, constatives are utilized, which could be valid or bogus. Two kinds of felicity conditions, as per Austin, can be distinguished. The first identifies with regulative conditions, on that are worried about 'how cheerfully or how well a demonstration is performed'. The second identifies with constitutive conditions, which are fundamental in effectively playing out a discourse act.

2.4.3 Critique and Evaluation of the Speech Act Theory

An investigation of the Speech Act Theory might be examined from different points or measurements. Initially, irregularities can be noted inside Searle's utilization of specific ideas in the Speech Act Theory. Kemmerling (2002) takes note of that three unavoidable results follow from the detachment among significance and correspondence which is valid in Speech Act Theory. Initially, in case there is detachment of importance from correspondence, as Searle does with regards to Speech Act Theory, the relationship of the game which clarifies the chance of the thought constitutive principles won't work. Language is certainly not a private endeavour, however is utilized accurately as indicated by certain measures partook in like manner. It very well may be noticed that there are basic standards, called constitutive principles, for the fruitful exhibition of a discourse act. In this manner, without the working of the fundamental standards and conditions which are characterizing ideas in Speech Act Theory, if not the hypothesis won't endure.

The subsequent factor identifies with the thought of illocutionary power showing indistinguishability among importance and correspondence. In Speech Act Theory, the speaker endeavors to play out a strict illocutionary act which is communicated by the sentence that is utilized with regards to expressions

(Abrams et al., 2005). It is now underestimated that there is a significant sentence, so there is oneself reference of the sentence in an exacting discourse act. Also, there is the power measurement including the goal of the speaker. Illocutionary power, all in all, draws out a practical component in the presentation of the illocutionary act. Since the statement of a demeanor (aim, conviction, wish, want) adds up to significance something as well as speaking with the listener. By keeping a nearby connection among's significance and correspondence, which means isn't being clarified in Grecian terms. When a discourse act is performed, it infers that the speaker has passed on what s/he intends to the listener and the listener additionally gets what the speaker implies, suggesting the speaker has conveyed. In significance examination, Speech Act Theory doesn't recognize locutionary and illocutionary acts since they are very much the same. Then again, perlocutionary is seen as a totally unique discourse act-that of specifically affecting the listener. Correspondence, in this sense, prevails with regards to passing on what one method as opposed to delivering outcomes on the crowd as Searle keeps up with.

Irregularities can likewise be ascribed to the Speech Act Theory comparable to ideas of strict sentence importance, foundation of significance and the connection to the Principle of Expressability. Discourse acts likewise present the issue of planning to expressions. Inside the Speech Act Theory system, it isn't legitimate at all to keep a severe distance among significance and correspondence as Searle does. The Principle of Expressability has its restrictions - it doesn't give any helpful understanding into the idea of talk. Comparable to the issue of sequencing rules in talk, it very well may be brought up that Searle and the discussion experts neglected to resolve this issue from the Speech Act Theory point of view. The planning of illocutionary powers to expressions doesn't add to any knowledge into the idea of talk.

2.4.4 Development of Speech Act Theory

The term 'discourse act' makes reference to the speaker's point in articulating a suggestion; the aim behind their conduct (Cameron-Faulkner, 2019). The term starts from the spearheading work of the thinker J.L. Austin. Austin (1962) tested the fundamental precepts of intelligent positivism: the case that all significant expressions can be classified through truth restrictive investigation. Austin asserted that every expression comprised of three aspects, which were all performed all the while in its creation, in particular:

(a) The locutionary act - the creation of an expression (for instance, the actual demonstration of composed or communicated in language, the development of the expression, and the disambiguation of the expression inside talk),

(b) The illocutionary act - the motivation behind plan of the speaker in delivering the sentence (for instance, saying 'sorry', kidding, denying and promising). Illocutionary parts of expressions are regularly alluded to as their illocutionary power, and

(c) The perlocutionary act - the impact of the expression on the listener, whether or not the impact is deliberate or non-purposeful.

Levison (1983) takes note of that at first every one of the three features was viewed as a kind of discourse act, but in contemporary writing, illocutionary act is the thing that is known as discourse act. Other than recognizing constructions of discourse acts, Austin additionally designed a fundamental discourse act characterization which he asserted was, partially, work in progress. While some discourse act groupings seemed strong, Austin discovered others very testing to characterize and uphold. Accordingly, the framework made by his previous understudy, John Searle, is usually utilized in present day considers in phonetic. Utilizing Searle's methodology (Searle, 1976; Searle and Vanderveken, 1985), discourse acts are grouped and coordinated by their situation in the four measurements expressed:

(I) illocutionary point, (ii) course of fit among word and universes, (iii) communicated mental state, (iv) propositional content.

Five classes of discourse acts make up the scientific categorization marked relying upon the illocutionary point and these are as per the following:

(I) Representatives, for instance, explanations, claims, statements,

(ii) Directives, for instance, orders, demands, orders,

(iii) Commissives, for instance, guarantees, offers, dangers,

(iv) Expressives, for instance, saying thanks to, applauding, accusing, and

(v) Declaratives, for instance, official regular represents model employing and terminating, openings of establishments, selections

This specific hypothesis was utilized to give a rule corresponding to how the exploration examination was thusly organized.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

3.1 Introduction

The previous section focused on an overview regarding literature of associated scholarly works. In the present chapter, the researcher presents the methodological approach that was used in this study. The chapter first explains the research design and its features while showing the relevance of such a design to the study.

3.2 Research design

The study's qualitative analysis employed content analysis in order to evaluate, determine and establish the linguistic features from different threat text messages in the Windhoek High Court archives. The reason for selecting the qualitative research design was the flexibility that it gives to the researcher. Qualitative research seeks to paint a holistic picture, mostly through narrative and descriptive information that portrays the researcher's interpretation and understating of a social or cultural phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Normally, because it takes place in natural settings, a qualitative research design gives the researcher an impetus to identify new phenomena in the study for example new theories, new outlooks and new concepts. Moreover, qualitative research allows for the understanding of the subjects' perspectives, and finds the meaning of their experiences (Brinkman & Kvale, 2008). This entails after data collection and the gathering of data quality from the study, the researcher came to a conclusion and provided insights for the observations. The samples were gathered from the archives of the Windhoek High Court through the office of the Registrar.

3.3 Research setting

This study was carried out at the Windhoek High Court of Namibia. Most cases handled at the Namibian High Court are cases transferred from regional Lower Courts, for example, Katutura Magistrate Court, Luderitz Street Court, Rundu Magistrate Court, and other lower regional judiciary courts of the country.

3.4 Text selection criteria on threat text messages

Text selection criteria was used to identify and choose the appropriate documents as data for the study. A study by Napier & Mardigian (2003) pointed that threat message selection can be viewed as a technique involving the identification and separation of text messages involving perceived harm or malice towards a recipient. It has to be noted that, such messaging causes fear and trepidation towards the potential receiver. As a result, the researcher gathered the primary data from the Windhoek High

Court Archives for the period starting 2014 to 2019. In this study context, the researcher explained to the archivist an overview of the thesis requirements with regards to the key parameters guiding the investigation. The latter then advised the researcher on the detailed process pertaining to the retrieval of relevant court documents of threat text messages. This aided the researcher to locate the actual data suitable for in-depth analysis pertaining to the thesis.

The selection of text was specifically based on a theme of threat as a method that is used to violate a victim in mobile communication. The threat can be identified as instilling fear, disempowering, rendering the victim useless and reducing the victim's self-confidence through self-doubt. This information was obtained by the researcher in court records with different threat message themes. These records were kept and stored in a file specifically created for such records.

3.5 Content analysis checklist in applied linguistics

The present study demonstrated the analysis of threat messages using Speech Act Theory. This was done following a content analysis checklist that was developed to interpret the text as data. The data selection methods used for this analysis only required text messages which were sourced from the Chief Legal Officer of the court. This method is aptly named as a text selection criterion based on themes of threats bordering on thematic analysis, (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

The data collection tool used was content analysis checklist. Content analysis checklist makes use of inferences by specifically and objectively identifying the different characteristics of messages, (Stemler, 2001). Apparently, Hancock (1998) once defined content analysis as it entails putting verbal and behavioural data of verbal in a classified, summarised and tabular manner. Moreover, Heish and Shannon (2005) stated that content analysis is done through the concentration on the communicative features of language in terms of content or contexts of the text. The data used utilised in the analysis was in print and electronic form taken from threat text messages. Heish and Shannon added further that content analysis is about the subjective interpretation of patterns in language and the subsequent contextualisation. The appropriate research methods for data collection and instrumentation were therefore carefully considered (Anderson, 2003).

Moreover, Ariola (2006) also states that the essence of the content analysis lies in further explaining a particular phenomenon through giving detailed knowledge and information on a particular topic. It is also done to make some unfamiliar principles and concepts clear. Sets of threat messages were collected using ethical means from the Office of the Judiciary. The annexures were attached after the data were collected through ethical means.

3.6 Data analysis

The sets of threat messages were analysed individually and then grouping parts of messages according to the content analysis checklist discussed above. The qualitative data were explained illustratively together with the appropriate application of the Speech Acts Theory. The sets of threat messages were in the form of written texts. The data were then subjected to thematic analysis based on themes and patterns from the study which were complimented by a content analysis checklist, that is, lexical analysis, syntactic analysis and discursive factors affecting text messages.

3.7 Ethical issues

The researcher applied for the ethical clearance from the Namibia University of Science and Technology, Faculty of Human Sciences, Research and publication committee to adhere to the ethical clearance policy accordingly. Permission was also sought from the Chief Legal Officer at the Office of the Judiciary at the Windhoek High Court to be allowed to use data. The researcher assured the Chief Legal Officer that the confidentiality of the cases would be observed. In this study, ethical consideration came in the form of ensuring there is anonymity of text messages of the individuals, organisations and institutions involved. The study had no research participants however, it used only threat text messages. Informed consent was not sought because the study had no human participants. The study involved the linguistic features of threat text messages in relation to words, sentences and discourse. To certify ethical consideration, the researcher coded the data with letters and numbers for the purpose of numbering only where the actual names of the participants remain anonymous. The case numbers of the reports were also not included, but the researcher used numbers for the assignment of numbers to the cases.

3.8 Data protection measures

The data analysed belong to a no risk category as indicated by the Office of the Judiciary. They were collected through ethical means, therefore, the data were installed in a protected USB device. Once the data were copied into a secure computer with a strong security password, the USB device was destroyed immediately. This was so because when a USB device has been security protected, it will no longer be edited, unless it is removed by the Office of the Judiciary computer who installed the data.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the methodology applicable to the study. The qualitative research design was used in relation to the research objectives. The chapter also analysed the data and presented the study findings thematically. The study used the text selection criteria to collect the data. This detailed analysis focused on locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary speech acts as contained in threat text messages. The data were analysed following the main objective of the study and the three sub-objectives. The main aim of the study was to understand forensic linguistic features of threat text messages in the Windhoek High Court of Namibian. From the broad aim, the micro-objectives of the study were to:

- Evaluate the locutionary lexical items used by different threat message writers,
- Determine the Illocutionary commonly used types of sentences to threaten others, and
- Establish the affecting perlocutionary discourse factors that are associated with threatening text messages.

4.2 Analysis of locutionary lexical utterances

This section of the study analyses the data for objective one. The locutionary acts address two sub-themes. These were analysed individually as related to the identified examples from the texts obtained from the threat messages. Two sub-themes were analysed according to the following arrangement, phonetic and phatic acts.

4.2.1 Analysis of phonetic acts

Lexical items that emanate from the utterances of noises of the addressee and the addressor were identified in the threat messages. Gales (2010) asserts that the characteristics of a linguistic nature can become encrypted in the addressee's mind as markers of threatening language. An addressor's articulation of a message can have influence on threat perception, thereby making particular phonetic aspects of speech to be classified as threat markers. An addressee can knowingly or unknowingly create perceptions of unidentified addressors based on message articulation.

The nature of the study data is regarded as no risk. However, it still needs to be kept confidential from one courtroom to another. Despite this, court documents are transcribed mainly for security reasons. This includes conveying information as accurate as possible. Transcribed documents can be read in exactly

the same way as they were sent because language specialists working in the courtrooms are trained to read them. The phonetic transcriptions below are examples of how information can be transcribed. The following are examples of phonetic acts transcribed according to the The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) standards. The IPA is a phonetic alphabetic notation stemming from the Latin script. It was founded in the late 19th century as a standardised representation of speech sounds in written form (Anderson, Tresoldi, Chacon, Fehn, Walworth, Forkel, & List, 2018).

Part A

Phonetic transcription

Message 1 Example:

maj firz ar ɣetɪŋ ðə bɛst əv mi

Message 2 Example:

Mma aj hop aj don't əfend ju baj æskɪŋ ju ðɪs

Message 3 Example:

du ju stɪl hav səm kəjnd əv lɔjəlti təwɔrdz mi

Message 4 Example:

kæn aj trəst ju ən evəri wɔrd ju se ən dʒizəs kraɪst majti nem

Message 5 Example:

Ju wn't bi wið indi enimər nomater haw ju re traj jst het mi ɡajz

Message 6 Example:

aj dnt wnt tu spend mər tajm wið ju

Message 7 Example:

aj won't baðər ju pls

Message 8 Example:

No jus liv

Message Example 9:

aj kæn du ɔl θɪŋz ən mærdər

Message 10 Example:

i'm æŋɡri ju no ðæt

Message 11 Example:

i'm frəstretəd kaz ju don't want mi bæκ

Part B

English untranscribed text

Message 12 Example:

My **fears** are getting the best of me.

Message 13 Example:

Mma, I hope I don't **offend** u by asking u this.

Message 14 Example:

Do u still hav some kind of **loyalty** towards me?

Message 15 Example:

Can I **trust** u n every word u say in Jesus Christ mighty name?

Message 16 Example:

U wn't be with **Indi** anymore nomater how u 're try jst hate me guys

Message 17 Example:

I dnt wnt to **spend more time** with u

Message 18 Example:

I won't **bother** u. Pls

Message 19 Example:

No, jus **leave**.

Message 20 Example:

I can do all things n **murder**.

Message 21 Example:

I'm **angry** u know that.

Message 22 Example:

I'm **frustrated** coz u don't want me back.

The above texts are recognised as phonetic transcriptions. In Part A they are the phonetic acts and Part B is the English version of the same words that were transcribed. The lexical items include nouns, verbs and other parts of speech.

Phonetic transcription (also referred to as phonetic script or phonetic notation) is the visual representation of speech sounds (or phones) by means of symbols (Saadoon, 2018). When utterances are performed, they are represented by symbols. In this case these are English words but for the purpose of conveying the messages in the courtrooms they are transcribed to make sure that the information is not distorted (Fraser, 2003). Another primary reason is for security purposes. The other reason for using phonetic transcribed texts in the courtrooms is that judges and magistrates in Namibia are of different linguistic backgrounds. Their mediator is the trained court linguist who interprets and translates court documents.

4.2.2 Analysis of phatic acts.

Coupland et al (1992, citing Malinowski, 1923) defined phatic communion as a type of speech in which union ties are created by a simple exchange of words. Phatic words and utterances can thus be regarded to contribute to the solidarity and well-being between interlocutors. The application of phatic communion in the social context can be perceived from the following perspectives:

- (a) In phatic communion, language primarily serves as an action mode and not necessarily for thoughts transmission,
- (b) Different phatic communion types (gossip, greetings) have a common element, whereby the whole situation of exchange is mainly created by '*what occurs linguistically*',
- (c) The simple meaning of words is nearly unnecessary. The linguistic expressions used then fulfil a social function, and
- (d) This social function might be inclusive of overcoming tension and creating a sociable atmosphere amongst variable.

The following examples show how the addressor greets the addressee in a manner that is casual to start a conversation by greetings which are not necessarily for thoughts transmission, but through the linguistic expressions used to fulfil a social function and creating a sociable atmosphere.

Message 23 Example:

WHATS UP G?

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 24 Example:

Gofaone?

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Baby?

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 25 Example:

Read

Are you well?

Message 26 Example:

Mma, o robetse?

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Translated in English as, mother, she is asleep

Message 26 Example, was written in the Tswana language. The translation of the words “Mma, o robetse” into the English language means “mother, she is asleep”. This text message implies a phatic manner to begin a conversation. All the examples above are related to the phatic aspect of the locutionary speech act. The speech act is a common utterance when using text messages to communicate. The one that says “What’s Up G” is only intended to sustain contact. Another example above is an utterance which says “Baby?”; the addressor implies to check the addressee or to resume their discussions from the previous day.

4.2.3 Meaningful utterances

Austin in a 1975 updated version of his book “How to do things with words”, further propagated the idea of locutionary acts. Locutionary acts provide information, ask questions, describe something, or even announce a verdict. They are the meaningful utterances humans make to communicate their needs and wants to persuade others to their point of view.

As can be seen from the following utterances

Asking or answering a question;

Message 27 Example:

If I say I promise, will u believe me? Do u trust I shall neva eva hurt u again?

Providing some information or an assurance or a warning;

Message 28 Example:

Ist promise u wnt use those thns to ruin my life cauz I knw of guyz who can do dat out of anger n frustration

Message 29 Example:

I seek forgiveness n its visible n obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then.

Announcing a verdict or an intention;

Message 30 Example:

I dnt wnt to spend more time wth u

Message 31 Example:

I seek forgiveness n its visible n obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then.

Making an appeal, criticism or an appointment;

Message 32 Example: I'm in a taxi. Is bafana around coz I hope to sleep there coz I want to be by you all day.

Message 33 Example: Hope u wl not come late n expect to go bk vry late cauz I hv to attend the service at 7 n go to da lib later

Message 34 Example: Mma, I hope I don't offend u by asking u this. Do u still hav some kind of loyalty towards me?

Message 35 Example: Can I trust u n every word u say in Jesus Christ mighty name?

Message 36 Example: I'm still very awake, also lying naked just thinking of you. Ur tenderness, kisses n luv u

4.2.4 Analysis of meaningful utterances

In a way of summary, locutionary acts from Message 27 Example to Message 36 Example were extracted from the study text. The example that says, *'If I say I promise, will u believe me? Do u trust I shall neva eva hurt u again?'*, refers to asking or answering a question. Another description comes from the concept of providing relevant information or an assurance or a warning. This concept refers to examples Message 28 Example and Message 29 Example. These read as, *'Jst promise u wnt use those thns to ruin my life cauz I knw of guyz who can do dat out of anger n frustration'* and the other one reads as, *'I seek forgiveness n its visible n obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then'*. Announcing a verdict or an intention is the other concept discussed with the example Message 30 Example and Message 31 Example that reads as, *'I dnt wnt to spend more time wth u'* and, *'I seek forgiveness n its visible n obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then'*. The analysed threat messages are relevant to the study because they demonstrate different aspects of the meaningful utterances.

4.2.5 Summary of the section

Locutionary acts are regarded as the meaningful utterances that humans make to communicate their needs and wants to influence or persuade others to their point of view. This section examined two aspects the locutionary speech acts found in the data. These were the phonetic and phatic aspects of the speech act. The phonetic aspect analysed and transcribed the data from common English language utterances to IPA transcriptions. The second aspect was the phatic aspect which assumes that greeting has the purpose of sustaining contact. The two aspects fully deliberated on the objective of the study which was to evaluate the locutionary speech acts.

In addition, locutionary acts by definition have meaning, such as information provision, enquiry through asking questions, providing descriptions, or even announcing a verdict. They are the meaningful

utterances humans make to communicate their needs and wants to persuade others to their viewpoint. In other words, the objective was met. The study identified the lexical items and analysed them as relevant. Nouns, verbs and other parts of speech were analysed. The next objective analyses the Illocutionary commonly used types of sentences to threaten others

4.3 Illocutionary commonly used types of sentences to threaten others

This objective discusses Illocutionary acts commonly used types of sentences to threaten others. There are three types of illocutionary acts found in the study data. These are assertiveness, directives and commissives. These were analysed below under each type.

4.3.1 Assertive illocutionary acts

Assertive illocutionary acts utter the asserting, reporting, explaining, showing something, suggesting, and refusing (Sembiring & Ambalegin, 2019). This act represents a state of affairs. Below are examples of the data collected on assertiveness.

Message 37 Example

Even if you will not tell all that and at least if you do not state things that will have me arrested you can just say I was not there I was at Owamboland. Jonas should tell if he did that, Please man.

Message 38 Example

I dnt wnt to spend more time with u
Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 39 Example

Not yet. I'll do so my queen
Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 40 Example

Boroko mma. I'll try to sleep now. Wake me when you see this. Luv u.
Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

4.3.2 Analysis of Assertive illocutionary acts

The examples above are all assertive illocutionary acts. The extract Message 37 Example that says, *'Even if you will not tell all that and at least if you do not state things that will have me arrested you can just say I was not there I was at Owamboland. Jonas should tell if he did that, Please man'*, which makes a suggestive utterance that informs denial of wrong doing. The speaker claims that they can evade committing an offence while referring to a timeline that will be difficult to trace. The speaker claims absence from where the likely crime supposed took place. The next example, Message 38 Example that says, *'i dn't wnt to spend more time wth u'* is an utterance that shows refusal of a continued conversation.

4.3.3 Directive illocutionary act

The directive illocutionary act refers to an illocutionary act that makes hearers to do something (Hutajulu & Herman, 2019). Examples of directives in illocutionary acts collected from the data are below.

Message 41 Example

Are you well? I mean I just forgot to tell you, those people are given witness fees if they are far away without transport or if you are in Windhoek but you do not have taxi money, Shivolo will transport you to and from court.

Message 42 Example

However Shivolo and the state will present you a statement that they wrote so that you testify to that effect but you should tell them that you said so because you were afraid because people were saying if Jonas gets out he will kill me. It is not what you intended to go and testify in court at all.

4.3.4 Analysis of directive illocutionary acts

Above are the examples on directive illocutionary acts. The extract Message 41 Example that says, '*Are you well? I mean I just forgot to tell you, those people are given witness fees if they are far away without transport or if you are in Windhoek but you do not have taxi money, Shivolo will transport you to and from court*', is an utterance that is trying to make the addressee to agree on coming to court knowing that he/she will be given witness fees. The next example, Message 42 Example that says, '*However Shivolo and the state will present you a statement that they wrote so that you testify to that effect but you should tell them that you said so because you were afraid because people were saying if Jonas get out he will kill me. It is not what you intended to go and testify in court at all*', and this makes a suggestive utterance that informs the addressee to make false claims. The addressor is trying to put to the addressee what to say in his favour.

4.3.5 Commissive

This refers to an illocutionary act for getting the speaker (i.e. the one performing the speech act) to do something is referred to as a commissivesness illocutionary act, for example, promising, threatening, intending to (Farah, 2021). Below are the examples of commissivesness illocutionary acts found in the text data.

Message 43 Example

Truly speaking I am not begging you will come and see for yourself if you just tell the court that you know nothing you went to collect your documents that you forgot at Owamboland, we did not have any problems so I will be granted bail and indeed heaven knows! I will give you a good amount of money. I want to get out man. It is many years. Please have mercy on me; let us agree my apology for those please do not get angry. \ \ \ . ✓

Message 44 Example

Kandina if I get out of here by the grace of God you too will not suffer anymore I have a very kind boss now if I do not get out and they do not grant me bail he will go and fetch my mother to come and visit me. \ \ \ .

Message 45 Example

I seek forgiveness n its visible n obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then.

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 46 Example

I'm angry u know that. I'm frustrated coz u don't want me back. I can do all those things n murder. But will it bring u back? Will it make u want me again? Will it make me a better man? All I want is u in a honest n just way. Don't fear me Banyana please.

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

4.3.6 Analysis of comissivesness

The examples above are all comissivesness illocutionary acts. The extract Message 43 Example that says, *'Truly speaking I am not begging you will come and see for yourself if you just tell the court that you know nothing you went to collect your documents that you forgot at Owamboland, we did not have any problems so I will be granted bail and indeed heaven knows! I will give you a good amount of money. I want to get out man. It is many years. Please have mercy on me; let us agree my apology for those please do not get angry'*, makes a promising utterance that informs the promises to the addressee by the addressor. The addressor is convincing the addressee to do something in return that the addressor will

give the addressee money. The addressor intends to threaten the addressee in extract Message 45 Example, *'I seek forgiveness n its visible and obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then'*, thus claims absence from where the likely crime is supposed to have taken place. The next example, Message 46 Example that says *'I'm angry u know that. I'm frustrated coz u don't want me back. I can do all those things n murder. But will it bring u back? Will it make u want me again? Will it make me a better man? All I want is u in a honest n just way. Don't fear me Banyana please'*, is an utterance that shows the planning to do the specified threat.

4.3.7 Summary of the section

This section discussed and analysed objective two. Three illocutionary acts were identified, namely, assertiveness, directives and commissives. The section discussed these three with examples from the text. The first act discussed was the assertiveness which focused on utterances made on refusal and suggestions. It represents a state of affairs on threat text messages. The second act discussed was the directives which made the addressee to do something in the addressor's favour by means of threatening text messages. The commissivesness was the last one to be discussed under this section whereby it focused on getting the speaker to do something, for example sending the threatening text message to the addressee. The next objective analyses the perlocutionary discourse factors that are associated with threatening text messages whereby a speech act has an effect on a listener.

4.4 Perlocutionary discourse factors that are associated with threatening text messages

The previous speech act about the illocutionary utterances related more to the speaker, in this context the perlocutionary act discusses around the listener. Bak et al. (2014) indicate that three corpora can be annotated on various clause level to identify threatening text using linguistic features. The first level focuses on sentiment features where the study data focused on nine emotions on a clause level were identified. These were; fear, guilt, hopelessness, information, instruction, forgiveness, peacefulness, pride and love.

4.4.1 Sentiments features of the perlocutionary acts

Perlocutionary acts always have a 'perlocutionary effect' which is the consequence or effect that a speech act has on a listener. This could have an effect on the listener's thoughts or emotions. When the study relates to the examples given below, the addressor intends to cause emotional pain to harm the addressee (Mufiah & Rahman, 2019). The following are the emotions on a clause level that were identified in the data.

Sentiment features of fear

The examples Message 47 Example and Message 48 Example below are the characteristics of fear which could affect the listener's thoughts or emotions. Fear in itself is an emotion which is induced by supposed danger or threat text messages (Dickerson, Gruenewald, & Kemeny, 2004).

Message 47 Example

You see first he will lead you and tell you that when he is going to ask you, you should reply as such and in that they want to send me to jail, please man, and Let us agree, I am begging you my friend. If you state that they will not ask you many questions, but they should ask you whether you think Jonas would have done that or whether he did not? You just say I do not know, I would not know I was not there, unless you ask him. W.A. 1

Message 48 Example

I don't know how to explain mma. My fears are getting the best of me.
Anyway, u r awake now? Eat something.
Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Sentiment feature of guilt

Example TM49 below is the characteristic of guilt which could affect the listener's thoughts or emotions as it is related closely to the concept of remorse and shame. Guilt can be referred to as an emotional experience that normally occurs when a person believes or realises that they might have compromised their own morals of approach and bear significant responsibility for that violation (Wohl, Branscombe, & Klar, 2006).

Message 49 Example

No, since I was arrested I did not go there but it is my fault, I am the one who prevented him he would have come. It is only me who kept stopping him saying he should just wait.

Sentiment features of hopelessness

The sentiment features of hopelessness were identified in the data, and these were Message 50 Example and Message 51 Example. In these two examples below, it shows us that hopelessness can be an emotion which is characterised by lack of hope, confidence and passion. These examples is clearly illustrated when the addressor is pleading with the addressee in their discourse (Crawford, 2000).

Message 50 Example

Yes my friend thank you. I am only relying on you, honestly man, if you testify against me there is no way they will let me go but if you do not speak (Incomplete)

Message 51 Example

My dearest Kandina where will I go, I badly need money so that I can show those cowards of the likes of Kapiye so I can go start working for my boss he is there in Windhoek but I do not wish to leave Commander he will go on pension soon I would like to see that when he leaves for Ovamboland the house will be transferred into my name so that I pay the water and electricity the rest of Claudia and the likes I will chase them out, now when I go out I will stay inside the house paying for a room, for now.

Sentiment features of information

Message 52 Example below is the characteristic of sentiment features of information which was identified in the data. In the example below, it shows us that information can be referred as knowledge

communicated or received regarding certain news (Buckland, 1991). In this instance, the addressor was giving such information to the addressee.

Message 52 Example

Do not see me in a bad light you will not be asked many questions by the lawyer. Statements of when you go to Ovamboland will you come back, what, what. The statement they are having is old. It does not (Incomplete)

Sentiment features of instruction

The sentiment features of instruction were identified in the data, these were Message 53 Example, Message 54 Example and Message 55 Example. In these three examples below, detailed information on how the addressee should react were collected from the data (Skehan, Willis & Willis, 1996).

Message 53 Example

Then they will just begin asking you whether you did not have a problem with Jonas and you just say I was just calling his phone number to inform him that the reason I did not come was because I did not get transport and I was told by Petrus or Ndungulu about the incident, so be it! They will not ask you many questions. After they asked you about leaving the children with Nangula, did you inform her that you were going to Owamboland? You just say I did not tell her because I did not expect to stay long.

Message 54 Example

I meant that amongst all the old ones none is working, thus save that one.

Message 55 Example

Yes, tell Shivololo that you did not get transport money, you are far, you are unemployed and they get money from government and they are chopping it, they are not using it as it is suppose to be used.

Sentiment features of forgiveness

Forgiveness is another sentiment feature which was found in the data as an individual voluntary internal process of letting go of feelings and anger towards someone (Worthington, 2007). In this case, the addressor intends to cause emotional pain to the addressee with the threatening text message he sent.

Message 56 Example

I seek forgiveness n its visible n obvious u seek another soul by ur side. I'll do what I have to do then.

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Sentiment features of pride

The sentiment feature of pride was identified in the data, and this was evidenced through Message 57 Example. In the example below, it shows us that pride can be an emotion which is characterised by a positive emotional response or attitude to the addressee by the addressor's perceived value. Pride may also be one's ability or achievements (Tracy & Robins, 2007).

Message 57 Example

I dnt wnt to spend more time with u

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Sentiment features of love

Message 58 Example and Message 59 Example below were gathered in the data as the characteristics of the sentiment features of love. Love can be identified as an intense feeling of deep affection or the act of caring and giving to someone else (Greenberg & Goldman (2008).

Message 58 Example

Thank you my queen. I'm experiencing confusing thots, thots that question my existence n love.

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 59 Example

Boroko mma. I'll try to sleep now. Wake me when you see this. Luv u.

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Sentiment features of peacefulness

The sentiment feature of peacefulness was identified in the data, and this was evidenced through Message 60 Example. In the example below, it shows us peacefulness does not involve war or violence, can be an emotion which is characterised by lack of hope, confidence and passion (Sorabji, 2000). The example is clearly shown when the addressor in the text message is trying to make peace with the addressee by avoiding conflict.

It's ok, can we talk abt smthn else

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

Message 60 Example

Sentiment features of hopefulness

The example of Message 61 Example below was the sentiment feature of hopefulness which is characterised by the feeling of the addressor having hope that he can still gain his trust from the addressee (Ritchie, 2001).

Message 61 Example

If I say I promise, will u believe me? Do u trust I shall neva eva hurt u again? Or u say u do trust me in fear of what u think I might do?

Source Extraction: Physical (2), Physical (1)

4.4.2 Analysis of perlocutionary emotional utterances by the addressor to the addressee

The sentiment features where the study data focused on were nine emotions on a clause level which were identified. These were; fear, guilt, hopelessness, information, instruction, forgiveness, peacefulness, pride and love. On the other hand, perlocutionary acts always have a 'perlocutionary effect' which is the consequence or effect that a speech act has on a listener. This could affect the thoughts or emotions of the listener. When the study relates to the examples given above, the addressor intends to cause emotional pain to harm the addressee.

4.5 Summary of the section

The examples above are all perlocutionary acts. The extract Message 47 Example, that says, *'You see first he will lead you and tell you that when he is going to ask you, you should reply as such and in that they want to send me to jail, please man, and let us agree I am begging you my friend. If you state that that they will not ask you many questions, but they should ask you whether you think Jonas would have done that or whether he did not? You just say I do not know, I would not know I was not there, unless you ask him'*, could instil fear on the addressee's thoughts. The above data also found different sentiment features where the study data focused on nine emotions on a clause level which were identified. The nine emotions were fear, guilt, hopelessness, information, instruction, forgiveness, peacefulness, pride and love.

4.6 Discussion

A forensic linguistics inquiry can be conducted for various reasons. Among other things is author identification and it ensures authenticity and ensure correct interpretation (Coulthard, Johnson, & Wright, 2016). The present study was a forensic inquiry that investigated features of threat text messages in the Windhoek High Court from 2014-2019. Findings from the study found out that threat text messages can be analysed through forensic linguistics techniques and procedures to reveal hidden criminal messages. One of the procedures performed was the transcription of threat messages using phonetic symbols for them to become phonetic transcriptions. This ensures the conveying of the threat text messages into hidden text. A phonetically transcribed text contains codes that cannot be easily read. On the other hand, it prevents the distortion of messages from one courtroom to another. The same message can be read in the exact same way as it was sent in a phonetic transcription. In the Namibian context, phonetically transcribed court documents are vehicles of conveying texts authentically without making changes in pronunciation. In a separate study that investigated orthography, Sipra (2013), argues against the phonetic standardisation of the spellings of a dialect of the Urdu language because of differences in the

orthography of the same language. The relevance of the aforementioned study is that the Namibian situation presents a danger because of the interference of over 30 indigenous languages which tend to influence the variety of both the written and spoken English language. These may become the vehicle for change in pronunciation, therefore it is necessary to always refer back to earlier phonetically transcribed court documents to study the changes.

The study also found out that the male gender mostly uses harsh, heavy, abusive, insulting and violent language when writing threat text messages. They use all forms of perlocutionary speech acts to threaten, instil fear and plant hopelessness to their victim. The female gender is the one who is always the victim. The present study agrees with the idea of a Chinese philosopher who wrote in the 3rd century named Lao Tzu. He opined that *Watch your thoughts; for they become words. Watch your words; for they become actions. Watch your actions* (Waley, 2013). The study of forensic linguistics allows the analysis of threat text messages to try and understand how language can be used to harm other people.

4.7 Summary of the chapter

This section summarises Chapter Four. There three objectives of the study were discussed and analysed under the locutionary, illocutionary and the perlocutionary speech acts. These objectives were subcategorised under sub-objectives for each speech act, the locutionary addressed the phonetic and the phatic aspects of the acts. The illocutionary analysed five subcategories which are assertiveness, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations. Lastly, perlocutionary was analysed with examples from the study's courtroom data. The subcategories of the perlocutionary speech acts are fear, guilt, hopelessness, information, instruction, forgiveness, peacefulness, pride and love. The chapter ended with a discussion section where comparisons between the present study and other studies by scholars cited in the literature review were compared and contrasted.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the conclusions and recommendations following the study findings in relation to the three objectives. The conclusion is a summary of the data analysed and the study findings discussed in the study. In this section, recommendations were made in relation to the study objectives.

5.2 Conclusion

Communication between the addressor and the addressee is best achieved when there are two individuals involved. The study concluded that speech acts can be used to analyse threat text messages obtained from the courtroom. It is apparent that language can identify issues such as the phonetic aspects that can be transcribed. Information in the court documents can be shared from one court to another without the information getting distorted. Phonetic transcriptions can resolve the gap between a plain text and a transcribed text to avoid the loss of pronunciation. This means that the same text can be read in exactly the same way when it is argued in the next court.

The study further revealed that women suffer greatly from text abuse. The illocutionary speech act revealed that the addressor used an assertive act to deny wrongdoing. The addressor could also use the directive aspect of the speech act to agree while knowing that he wants to incriminate the addressee. This strategy was used to further victimise the female member through using violent language. The commissive aspect of the speech act was used to threaten the victim to withdraw the case. In addition to that, the addressor used language to extort money by threatening the victim.

The perlocutionary speech act was used to analyse how the victim was put through fear, guilt, hopelessness, information, instruction, forgiveness, peacefulness, pride and love by the addressor. The female gender suffers the most even though the communication was just in the form of text messages. In reality, the addressor took advantage of the female gender who can be abused emotionally. Abusive words were used to inflict emotional pain on the female victim. The other two most devastating actions performed by the addressor were to instil fear and guilt as a way to threaten the victim. In the end, the woman was left broken and for dead. In the end, the study also concluded that words are powerful tools that can be used for good and bad, and in this instance, they were used to destroy a life, as well as to arouse emotions, to victimise and abuse a woman. Considering the state of women abuse in Namibia, the male gender is almost always the perpetrator. They stalk and physically attack women, and eventually kill them. Those victims that do not die are left with irreparable scars of emotional damage that can never be healed.

5.3 Recommendations

The study's findings are relevant to the Namibian context based on the language use that reflects on the linguists working in the court system. The following recommendations emanate from the study findings. The suggestions made are as follows:

- The threat text messages study can be repeated using a different theory, for example feminism or Russian formalism or document analysis.
- The results of the study can be presented to other linguists working in the court as a reflection of similar court cases.
- The manner in which the court interpreter intermediates can be studied, especially when the interpreters' languages have no written orthography.
- Judgement texts that are read out by the judge can also be studied, that is, the language of law used by the judge when passing out a judgement and its relationship to the speech acts theory.
- Theories of sociolinguistics can be applied to analyse threat text messages.
- It is violent language use that leads to the victimisation of women in Namibia, therefore, violent language in the courtroom can be studied.
- A reverse study can be conducted to analyse threat text messages from the abuser's perspective, especially to investigate the reasons why the female gender uses harsh and abusive language to victimise men.

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APPENDIX



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

HIGH COURT OF NAMIBIA

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25 Schönlein Street
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Windhoek West
WINDHOEK
NAMIBIA

Our Ref:

Your Ref:

05 February 2020

Professor Rewai Makamani
The Chairperson: Departmental Higher Degrees Committee
Namibia University of Science and Technology
Windhoek

**RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FROM THE HIGH COURT OF NAMIBIA
GRANTED TO MRS MELLANIA KATSVARA**

The above matter refers,

This is to certify that **Ms Mellania Katsvara** has attended to my office on 17 December 2019 and was granted permission to access the court criminal files to collect data for purposes of her research.

Yours sincerely

Mrs Lotta N. Ambunda-Nashilundo
CHIEF LEGAL OFFICER
HIGH AND SUPREME COURT OF NAMIBIA



All correspondence must be addressed to the Executive Director

FACULTY RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (F-REC)

DECISION: ETHICS APPROVAL

Ref: S008/2020
Student no.: 215072790

Issue Date: 05 May 2020

RESEARCH TOPIC

Title: A forensic linguistic investigation of the features of threat text messages in the Windhoek High Court from 2014-2019

Researcher: Mellania Katsvara
Tel: +264 81 602 0323
E-mail: maiethan2@gmail.com

Supervisor: Dr Niklaas Fredericks
E-mail: nfredericks@nust.na

Dear Ms Katsvara,

The Faculty of Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee (F-REC) of the Namibia University of Science and Technology reviewed your application for the above-mentioned research. The research as set out in the application has been approved.

We would like to point out that you, as principal investigator, are obliged to:

- maintain the ethical integrity of your research,
- adhere to the Research policy and ethical guidelines of NUST, and
- remain within the scope of your research proposal and supporting evidence as submitted to the F-REC.

Should any aspect of your research change from the information as presented to the F-REC, which could have an effect on the possibility of harm to any research subject, you are under the obligation to report it immediately to your supervisor or F-REC as applicable in writing. Should there be any uncertainty in this regard, you have to consult with the F-REC.

We wish you success with your research, and trust that it will make a positive contribution to the quest for knowledge at NUST.

Sincerely,



Dr Hennie J Bruyns
Chairperson: FREC
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