

## Exploring Dysfunctional Communication in *Seascape* through Theory of Ironic Speech Acts

Author: **Sumbal Javed Butt**

Corresponding Author: **Saima Khan**

Govt. College and University Lahore

### Abstract:

*This research investigates the complex phenomenon of ironic speech acts and their role in creating dysfunctional communication in Seascape by Edward Albee. By analyzing the intricate layers of linguistic facade, this study employs the theory of ironic speech acts to uncover meaning within fragmented and paradoxical dialogue. The findings reveal that the interplay between spoken words, their intended meanings, and the inherent contradictions generate a dynamic tension that permeates the characters' interactions. Furthermore, the study demonstrates how speech acts are utilized as tools of power, enabling characters to engage in verbal battles that underscore their conflicts. A detailed examination of the play highlights the significance of ironic utterances as conscious counterfactual expressions, which opens up multiple interpretations of a single reality. This multifaceted approach to analyzing irony in Albee's work provides deeper insights into the use of language as a mechanism for both connection and division among characters.*

### Introduction:

but we communicate and fail to communicate basically by language. (Edward Albee: Interview with the author) (Biggsby 282)

This research project aims to examine the labyrinths of dysfunctional communication in Edward Albee's play, *Seascape* (1975). It argues that in Albee's theatrical world, the seemingly dysfunctional articulation among characters conveys a hidden layer of intelligent discourse. This paradoxical phenomenon becomes evident as we delve into the intricate phenomenon of ironic speech acts. The selected play presents the most nuanced form of communication that transcends conventional expectations and invites the reader to explore profound complexity of human interaction.

Edward Albee, a prolific American playwright, has captivated audiences for decades. Born on March 12, 1928, in Washington, D.C., he is a three-time Pulitzer Prize winner. His most famous work, *"Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?"* remains a cornerstone of American theater. His craft mostly deals with the provocative exploration of human relationships and the darker facets of human nature. From *Who is afraid of Virginia Wolf?* to *The Zoo story*, Albee's dramas unravel the complexities of communication. His keen understanding of the power of language and its limitations shines through his dialogues. He excels in crafting characters who are both enigmatic and deeply relatable, drawing audiences into their inner turmoil and existential crises.

### THEORY OF IRONIC SPEECH ACTS

"Language is a tool. We use it to do things. But unlike all the other instruments we have evolved to deal with our world, only language can take itself as an object. We can talk about talking, or refer indirectly to our own acts of speech, a peculiar activity that has been described by an ancient Zen metaphor as 'The hand trying to grasp itself'." (1)

In the above quote, Elizabeth has pointed out the unique nature of language as a tool of communication and expression. It draws attention to the fact that unlike other tools and instruments that we use to interact with the world, language has the distinctive ability to refer to itself. It is self-referential. This means that we can use language to talk about language, discuss our own acts of speaking, and even analyze the process of communication itself. However, the reference to the Zen metaphor, "The hand trying to grasp itself," highlights the idea that language's self-referential

nature can be paradoxical or challenging to fully capture, much like trying to physically grasp one's own hand.

This concept is closely related to speech act theory, a branch of linguistics and philosophy of language developed by philosophers like J.L. Austin and later expanded upon by John Searle. Speech act theory examines not just the words people use but also the actions they perform when they speak. In other words, it looks at language not only as a means of conveying information but as a means of performing various types of actions or functions in the social context.

When we use language to discuss language, we engage in a form of self-reference. We are not just communicating information; we are also examining the very means by which we communicate. In speech act theory, this self-reference often involves discussing the intentions, functions, and effects of speech acts. This self-referential aspect of language can lead to complex, circular, or recursive discussions, much like the hand trying to grasp itself which creates challenging and potentially paradoxical situations. Furthermore, these actions, carried out through speech, have been a subject of deep philosophical and linguistic inquiry, leading to the development of speech act theory.

Since, as Clark maintains, "Speech acts are actually about how to do things with utterances" (Clark 126) they become the means by which we accomplish tasks, shape social interactions, and bring about real-world consequences. Speech acts emphasize the performative nature of language and the power it wields in influencing our actions and relationships.

For example, when we examine actions like issuing commands or making promises, we realize they extend beyond mere words; they involve verbal actions that go beyond the surface of the utterance. In these cases, the spoken words become the vehicles for carrying out real-world actions. In essence, when one orders someone to do something or makes a promise, the power of language goes beyond speech; it becomes an integral part of the action itself, shaping how we interact with the world and influencing the course of events. The historical origin and evolution of speech acts also illustrate these basic assumptions.

"The debate and discovery of speech act theory is rooted in the doctrine of "logical positivism" which states that unless a sentence at least in principle can be verified i.e., tested for its truth and falsity, it was, strictly speaking, meaningless. This conclusion leads to the foundations of philosophical investigations in 1921 by Wittgenstein with the slogan "meaning in use" and the insistence that utterances are only explicable in relation to the activities, or language games in which they play a role. Following him, Austin launched his theory of speech acts which replaces the view of truth conditions as central to language understanding. It focuses on the utterances that constitute some act in addition to the mere act of uttering e.g., promising; ordering, nominating etc." (Levinson 227).

Logical positivism, a philosophical movement in the early 20th century, emphasized empiricism and the verification principle. It argued that unless a sentence could be verified through empirical evidence and tested for its truth and falsity, it was considered meaningless. This strict criterion of meaningfulness posed significant challenges to language and philosophy.

In 1921, Ludwig Wittgenstein, a key figure in the development of modern philosophy, introduced the idea of "meaning in use." He argued that the meaning of a word or sentence is closely tied to how it is used in specific contexts and language games. In other words, understanding the meaning of language is contingent on the activities or language games in which it participates.

Building on Wittgenstein's ideas, J.L. Austin introduced speech act theory which was a significant departure from the logical positivist notion that the truth conditions of sentences were central to

language understanding. Austin's theory shifted the focus from merely analyzing the truth or falsity of statements to examining the various acts performed through language. He emphasized that utterances go beyond mere communication of information and serve as vehicles for actions such as promising, ordering, nominating, and more. This shift marked the transition from logical positivism to a more pragmatic and action-oriented perspective in the study of language, emphasizing the significance of speech act theory in shaping modern linguistic and philosophical inquiry.

Hence, the debate about how language has the capacity to perform along with its ability to describe started. Later, in 1970, Searle came with his definition and explanation of speech acts.

According to Searle,

So uttering a sentence and meaning it is a matter of (a) intending to get the hearer to know (recognize, be aware of) that certain states of affairs specified by certain of the rules obtain; (b) intending to get the hearer to know (recognize, be aware of) these things by getting him to recognize intention (a); and (c) intending to get him to recognize intention (a) virtue of his knowledge of the conventional rules for the sentence uttered. (Cohen 545) So, the basic principle of speech act theory according to Searle is that “speaking a language is engaging in a (highly complex) rule-governed form of behavior”. (12)

According to the above quote, Searle asserts that when we utter a sentence and intend to convey a certain meaning, it involves several layers of intentions. These intentions can be categorized into three key components.

First, the speaker intends to make the hearer aware of specific states of affairs or facts. In other words, the speaker aims to communicate certain information.

Second, the speaker intends to make the hearer recognize that the speaker has the intention as mentioned above. In essence, the speaker wants the listener to understand that the speaker intends to convey specific information.

And lastly, the speaker intends to make the hearer recognize the intention by virtue of their knowledge of the common rules governing the sentence uttered. This means that the speaker relies on the shared understanding of linguistic rules and conventions to communicate effectively.

Therefore, speech act theory goes beyond the mere analysis of sentences as isolated linguistic units. It delves into the pragmatic and communicative aspects of language, focusing on how language is employed to accomplish various social actions, such as making requests, giving orders, making promises, and expressing desires. This theory emphasizes that successful communication requires not only linguistic competence but also an understanding of the speaker's intentions, the context, and the conventional rules that govern language use.

There are primarily three types of speech acts which are locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. Bantas Hercules has further explained the speech acts.

He writes, “Austin’s theories define three distinct speech acts: first, locutionary acts are statements of fact or descriptions of the world. An example of a locutionary speech act is ‘the mug is blue’. Second, illocutionary speech acts involve an action such as promise, an order or a question, for example ‘Are you hungry?’ or ‘Get out of bed’. Third perlocutionary speech acts involve the manipulation of the audience of the speech act into agreeing with the speaker or being in some way influenced. Examples of perlocutionary speech acts include leading questions in a trial and much of the rhetoric in any speech to a political gathering.” (27)

Searle's categorization is a valuable framework for understanding different dimensions of speech acts. It highlights that communication is not just about conveying information (locutionary acts) but also about conveying intentions (illocutionary acts) and considering how the audience responds or is influenced by the speech (perlocutionary acts). It underscores the complexity of human communication, where understanding and interpreting speech involve not only the words themselves but also the underlying intentions and impact on the audience.

The main focus of this paper is on illocutionary speech acts and their four basic kinds i.e., assertives, commissives, directives and expressives. These illocutionary acts represent distinct categories of communicative intentions, shedding light on the diverse ways in which language is used to achieve specific goals. Searle's taxonomy divides these acts into five primary categories: assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Each of these categories represents a different type of speech act with its unique purpose and function, contributing to our deeper understanding of the complexity of human communication.

“Searle declared that there are five such illocutionary points and presented a taxonomy that he labeled assertives (descriptive statements that can be either true or false), directives (utterances with the purpose of making the hearer to do something; e.g. commands, requests), commissives (the speaker undertakes to act according to what he or she has expressed; e.g. in the case of promises), expressives (utterances that express the psychological state or feelings of the speaker; e.g. apologies, congratulations) and declarations (statements that “change the world”; e.g. marriage, baptism)”. (Smith 9)

However, it is not possible to create ironic declaratives as no sincerity condition can be applied to them.

According to Wallace Martin, Austin believes that “literary language is parasitic upon ordinary language and therefore literature can be conceived as an imitation of speech acts” (182-183).

So, literature can be viewed as an imitation of speech acts. By imitating speech acts, literature can capture the nuances of human expression, depict characters, convey emotions, and engage readers on a deeper level. This imitation of speech acts allows literature to serve as a medium for exploring the subtleties of human communication and portraying the richness of human experience. This imitation of speech acts operates in a system of speaker and hearer. According to T. A. Van Dijk, There is a speaker-system (the author), a hearer-system (the reader/s) and a transmitted message (literary context) constructed with the rules of a semiotic system. Such communication taking place between the author and the reader/s is generally considered as literary communication. Literary texts are in fact written forms of communication. They can be viewed as speech acts or at least an imitation of speech acts. (37)

So, literary communication involves an author, readers, and a message constructed through a semiotic system. It highlights how literary texts serve as written forms of communication, mirroring or imitating speech acts to convey intricate ideas and emotions. In literature, the author's narrative and character's dialogues often parallel the functions of spoken language.

A functioning relationship also exists between irony and speech acts. Irony, a versatile literary device, plays a vital role in emphasizing the divergence between the overt, literal meaning of a statement and the underlying, implied meaning, often achieved through techniques like hyperbole and understatement. The manipulation of text, including the use of repetition, serves to reveal contrasting or contradictory meanings, making irony a fundamental tool in literature. In the context of speech acts, the interplay of intentions and expressions adds an intriguing layer to literary works.

The deliberate performance of illocutionary acts, such as making promises, giving orders, or expressing emotions, can be layered with irony, exposing the incongruity between the stated intention and its actual effect. This interweaving of irony and speech acts in literature creates a rich tapestry where the complexity of human communication, the tension between what is said and what is meant, and the multifaceted nuances of expression are explored in compelling ways.

According to Searle, “Ironic speech acts are the indirect speech acts that communicate their covert negatives as using seemingly normal speech acts as a vehicle. Knowledge of the social system, manners, principles governing conversations, shared background and knowledge of speech acts all contribute to our awareness of irony. Even in the minimal form of irony like sarcasm, there is a place for, a necessity for, these different kinds of knowledge of linguistic and social facts. Social and linguistic norms set up the structure of irony since they provide a set of expectations which can conveniently be invoked so that they then, in turn, later can be negated” (Amante 80).

Searle emphasizes that irony operates as indirect speech acts, often employing seemingly normal or straightforward speech acts as a cover for conveying covert or hidden meanings. To fully comprehend and appreciate irony, individuals need to possess a deep understanding of the social system, manners, principles governing conversations, and shared background knowledge. This awareness of both linguistic and social factors is crucial, even in cases of minimal irony, such as sarcasm.

This shared social and linguistic knowledge helps to locate the suggested meaning. So, there are certain underlying conditions which are propositional conditions, preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions and essential conditions. And irony operates by overtly negating one or more conditions. Searle uses the term ‘output’ to cover conditions for intelligible speaking and ‘input’ to mean conditions of understanding.

“Output and input conditions include mandatory requirements which ensure that the communication channel is open. Output conditions for irony differ because irony is a transparently counterfactual speech act: the speaker expects the audience to recognize the counterfactual nature of his utterance. To this end, the speaker must provide clues in his ironic speech act” (Searle 57).

According to Searle, irony is a form of communication that requires not only the speaker's skill in conveying the intended meaning but also the listener's ability to interpret that meaning. To maintain the openness of the communication channel, speakers use output conditions, such as cues and contextual elements, to guide listeners in recognizing the counterfactual nature of their utterance. In this way, irony operates as a collaborative act where both the speaker and the listener play crucial roles in conveying and comprehending the intended message.

However, preparatory condition is to be met for irony to function.

“In sincerity condition, the speaker believes that the sincerity rule for the illocution in which proposition P occurs does not obtain” (Amante 88).

A vital element within this framework is the concept of the "sincerity condition," which analyses the speaker's beliefs regarding the honesty and truthfulness of their speech acts. This condition plays a fundamental role in understanding how speakers convey meaning that often goes beyond the surface of their words, particularly in contexts of indirect communication like irony or sarcasm. And the essential conditions as Searle writes are,

“The utterance of irony counts as an attempt by the speaker to produce in the hearer or audience the knowledge that the speaker intends to about the utterance of either P or P', or both together, to raise the question of the truth or falsity of either P or P' by means of the audience's recognition of

this intention. The speaker intends this recognition to be achieved by virtue of the audience's knowledge of the meaning of P and P' and their knowledge of the rules of the speech acts purportedly performed". (126-127)

In the above extract, John Searle outlines the key conditions involved in using irony as a form of speech act. It highlights that when writers employ irony, they intend to convey not only the literal statement but also an implied, often contrasting meaning. The act of irony is meant to provoke questions in the audience about the truth or falsity of both the literal statement and the intended meaning. This is only effective if the audience recognizes the speaker's intention to convey both layers. The audience's understanding is based on their knowledge of the meanings of these statements (P and P') and their familiarity with the rules governing speech acts. Irony, therefore, relies on the audience's ability to discern the underlying message and the questions it poses, making it a sophisticated and context-dependent form of communication.

Ironic acts typically entail two propositions, P and P', which are connected through inferences marked by formal opposition or opposing semantic relationships. The theory of ironic speech acts states that

"These acts entail at least two propositions P and P', referentially linked by inferences i.e. formal opposition to the other through negation or through some opposing semantic relationship such as complementarity, anatomy, contradiction or converseness and lexical reference items i.e. through exaggeration of some kind" (Amante 82).

So, by the interplay of these propositions, ironic connotations will be highlighted. This interplay allows ironic expressions to convey subtle, layered messages that engage the audience in deciphering the intended, often opposite, significance behind the words.

#### *Seascape*

*Seascape* revolves around an old couple, Nancy and Charlie, who has a strange encounter with a non-human couple, Leslie and Sarah, on a beach that unravels complexities about their relationship and dysfunctional communication. In the beginning of the play, when Nancy and Charlie are discussing about their childhood fantasies and their current desires, ironic implications emerge.

CHARLIE. (Chuckles a little, resigned) what do you want to do?

NANCY. Nor have you! Not this long way to let loose. All the wisdom-by accident, some of it-all the wisdom and the . . . unfettering. My God, Charlie: See Everything Twice!

CHARLIE. (Settling back) What do you want to do?

NANCY. You are not going to live forever, to coin a phrase. Nor am I, I suppose, come to think of it, though it would be nice. Nor do I imagine we'll have the satisfaction of doing it together-head on with a bus, or into a mountain with a jet, or buried in a snow slide, if we ever got to the Alps. No, I suppose I'll do the tag without you. Selfish, aren't you- right to the end.

CHARLIE. (Feeling for her hand, taking it) what do you want to do?

NANCY. (Wistful) If you get badly sick, I'll poison myself. (Waits for reaction, gets none)  
And you?

CHARLIE. (Yawning) Yes, if you get badly sick, I'll poison myself too.

NANCY. Yes, but then if I did take the poison, you'd get well again, and there I'd be, laid out, all for a false alarm. I think the only thing to do something.

CHARLIE. (Nice) What do you want to do? (Albee 11-12)

Now Searle argues that

“Every utterance has an illocutionary force indicating device (IFID), which shows the speaker’s intention behind the utterance. In English, the IFID can be either explicit and include “word order, stress, intonation contour, punctuation, the mood of the verb, and the so-called performative verbs” or implicit, in the case of which the context makes the force of the utterance clear enough and there is no need to use a specific IFID”. (30)

In the above dialogue, Nancy expresses a desire for adventure and excitement. Her words, "See Everything Twice," allude to her yearning for novelty and a break from the ordinary routine. This is proposition P. However, as the conversation unfolds, it becomes apparent that Nancy and Charlie share an underlying reluctance to act on this desire for adventure. While they discuss extreme measures like poisoning themselves in the event of severe illness, these statements are not meant to be taken seriously. Rather, they serve as exaggerated expressions of their dissatisfaction with their current situation. This is proposition P'. Since P' is counterfactual to P, ironic implications become evident. Therefore, the above illocution is an ironic speech act.

The ironic implications in this illocution are twofold: verbal Irony and situational irony. The exaggerated and dramatic statements about poisoning themselves in response to illness are a form of verbal irony. The characters express extreme actions that are not to be taken at face value. The irony here lies in the stark contrast between the seriousness of the proposed actions and the characters' actual intentions.

There is also situational irony at play. The characters express a desire for adventure and change, yet their conversation is taking place in a seemingly mundane and uneventful situation that is sitting on the beach. The irony is in the juxtaposition between their expressed desires for excitement and their passive resigned behavior. So, these ironic implications highlight the tension between the characters' yearning for something different and their reluctance to take action. It's a commentary on the irony of unfulfilled aspirations and the often-exaggerated ways in which people express their discontent.

As the play progresses, Nancy accuses her husband of cheating which is followed by Charlie’s denial. However, the conversation reveals ironic implications.

CHARLIE. (Softly, with a timid smile) I’ve never been with another woman.

NANCY. (A little laugh) Well, I know.

CHARLIE. (Laughs) I think one time when you and I were making love-when we were nearly there, I remember I pretended it was a week or so before, one surprising time, we’d had, something we’d hit upon by accident, or decided to do finally: I pretended it was the time before, and it was quite good that way.

NANCY. (Some wonder) You pretended I was me.

CHARLIE. (Apology) Yes.

NANCY. (Laughs delightfully: thinks) Well: perhaps I was. (Pause) So much goes, Charlie, we shouldn’t give up until we have to. (Gentle) Why don’t you go down?

CHARLIE. (Smiles, shakes his head) No.

NANCY. It’s something I have never done. You could teach me. You could take my hand: we could have two big stones, and we could go down together. (Albee 24-25)

The above conversation presents ironic propositions. Proposition P relates to the fact that Charlie has never been with another woman. This information is revealed with a timid smile, and it sets the initial expectation that this discussion might lead to a deeper, potentially intimate conversation about their relationship. However, the expressive illocutionary force presents proposition P' which

reveals the insincere implications on Charlie's part. Here the ironic twist is that instead of delving into a deep and meaningful conversation about their relationship, Charlie's revelation takes an unexpected turn. He shared an anecdote where he pretended that Nancy was someone else during an intimate encounter, introducing an element of imaginative role-play. The use of imaginative role play in this context allows Charlie to broach the sensitive subject of his infidelity without directly stating it. By framing it within a playful and imaginative scenario, he avoids the harshness of a direct confession. This also reveals the complexity of their relationship, as they navigate difficult topics with humor.

Further, while talking to the couple of lizards about general emotions and philosophical debates, Charlie opens up about the necessity of change once again. However, he seems to project his own fears on the couple of lizards thus, unraveling ironic implications.

SARAH. Leslie's extremely proud of his tail: it's very large and sturdy and . . .

NANCY. Well, I'm sure: yes.

LESLIE. (Eyeing Charlie) You don't have a tail.

CHARLIE. (Rather proud) No, I don't.

LESLIE. What happened to it?

CHARLIE. It fell off. Mutate or perish. Let your tail drop off, change your spots, or may be just your point of view. The dinosaurs knew a thing or two, but all that was about it . . . great, enormous creatures, big as a diesel engine. (To Leslie) whatever that may be-leviathans! . . . with a brain the size of a lychee nut: couldn't cope: couldn't figure it all out: went down.

LESLIE. (Quite disgusted) What are you talking about?

CHARLIE. Just running on, and trying to make a point. And do you know what happened once? Kind of the crowning moment of it all for me? It was when some slimy . . . creature poked his head out of the muck, looked around, and decided to spend some time up here . . . came up into the air and decided to stay? And as time went on, he split apart and evolved and became tigers and gazelles and porcupines and Nancy here . . .

LESLIE. (Annoyed) I don't believe a word of this.

CHARLIE. Oh, you'd better, for he went back under, too, part of what he became didn't fancy it up on land, and went back down there, and turned into porpoises and sharks, and manta rays, and whales . . . and you. (Albee 122-124)

In the above assertive and expressive illocutionary acts, Charlie's assertion and explanation about his tail falling off and the concept of change and evolution represent his fear and anxiety regarding change, evolution, and the passage of time in various aspects of life, including sexual relations. This is proposition P. Leslie's disbelief and rejection of Charlie's explanation, along with his exasperated response, represent Proposition P'. Proposition P' reflects the disbelief and resistance on the part of the lizards, who symbolize change and evolution in the context of the play. They are not ready to accept or understand the human perspective on these matters. The sheer assertion on Charlie's part to indulge in philosophical debate about change is ironical and provides illocutionary force. While Charlie attempts to explain his fears and anxieties about change and evolution, the lizards' inability to comprehend his perspective mirrors the communication challenges between the human couple.

As the play reaches its conclusion, Charlie compels the lizard couple to return to their original location. This peculiar encounter with the lizards serves as a symbolic reflection of the characters'



deep-seated fears and apprehensions regarding the concept of change during this stage of their lives.

LESLIE. (Cold) Are you alright?

CHARLIE. Yes: yes, I am.

LESLIE. (Attempts a quite half a joke) it's . . . rather quite . . . dangerous up here.

CHARLIE. (Looks him in the eye) Everywhere.

LESLIE. Well, I think we'll go back down now.

NANCY. (Hand out; a quiet, intense application) No!

LESLIE. Oh, yes, I think we must.

NANCY. No you mustn't.

SARAH. (As comfort) Leslie says we must. (Leslie puts his paw out)

NANCY. NO! (Charlie takes it)

LESLIE. This is how we do it. Isn't it?

SARAH. (Watching tentative) Such a wonderful thing to want to do.

LESLIE. (Tight, formal) Thank you very much.

NANCY. No.

CHARLIE. (Eyes averted) You are welcome.

NANCY. No!

LESLIE. (Sighs) Well, (Leslie and Sarah start moving up to the upstage about to exit)

SARAH. It's alright, it's all right.

NANCY. You'll have to come back . . . sooner or later. You don't have any choice. Don't you know that? You'll have to come back up.

LESLIE. (Sad smile) Do we?

NANCY. Yes. (Albee 132-134)

Now in the above assertive and expressive illocutionary speech acts, the contradiction between the beliefs of characters gives rise to ironic implications.

Charlie, through his persistence and desire to return to their original location, symbolizes the human inclination toward safety, familiarity, and the avoidance of change. His insistence on going back down reflects a reluctance to embrace the unknown and the unpredictable aspects of life. This persistence is ironic, as it contradicts his earlier philosophical musings about change. This is proposition P. Nancy's protest against going back down and her assertion that they will have to come back eventually represent an ironic twist. Earlier in the play, Nancy was the one advocating for change and exploring new experiences. Her current resistance and the assertion that they'll have to return signify the human tendency to initially invite change and then retreat is P'. The discrepancy between the two gives rise to ironic implications.

The irony in this dialogue lies in the characters' changing attitudes and behaviors. They initially seemed open to change and adventure, as symbolized by their interaction with the lizards, who represent change and adaptation. However, when confronted with the prospect of embracing change fully, they exhibit resistance and a desire to return to the familiar.

The recurring motif of change is prevalent throughout the play, and it is not limited to the characters' attitudes but also extends to their perceptions of the world. The encounter with the lizard couple, representing change and adaptation, serves as a projection of the characters' own fears and anxieties related to change. The lizards symbolize the potential for evolution and transformation, but they also signify the inherent resistance to such change itself.

Through these musings on change, the play also explores the dysfunctional communication between the couple who cope with their anxieties by projecting their inner conflicts onto the lizard couple. The lizards, Leslie and Sarah, serve as a mirror reflecting the characters' fears. The philosophical discussions and interactions with the lizards provide a unique lens through which to view the characters' yearning for connection. These recurring philosophical discussions unveil their quest for meaning and understanding in the face of life's uncertainties. As the play unfolds, the characters navigate the intricate dance between intimacy and solitude, reflecting the intricate balance between the human desire for connection and the need for individual identity. "*Seascape*" offers a profound exploration of the human psyche, where the desire for change and connection coexists with the comfort of the known, revealing the nuanced and paradoxical nature of the human experience.

### Conclusion

The analysis of Edward Albee's *Seascape* reveals that meaning is often not fully conveyed through words alone. Instead, it is enriched by contextual elements such as stage directions, pauses, and the manner in which dialogue is delivered. According to the theory of ironic speech acts, irony can invert or alter the meaning of conventional speech by negating one of the four felicity conditions—propositional content, preparatory, sincerity, or essential conditions—that govern effective communication. In doing so, irony creates a layered meaning that can be contrary to the literal words spoken.

### Work Cited

- Albee, Edward. *Seascape*. 1975.
- Amante, David J. "The Theory of Ironic Speech Acts." *Poetics Today*, vol. 2, no. 2, Winter, 1981, Duke University Press.
- Bates, Elizabeth. *Language and Context: The Acquisition of Pragmatics*. University of Chicago, 1974.
- Bantas, Hercules. *Jurgen Habermas and Deliberative Democracy*. The Reluctant Geek Melbourne, 2010.
- Bigsby, C.W.E. *A Critical Introduction to Twentieth-Century American Drama: Volume 2: Williams, Miller, Albee*.
- Clark, H. Hubert. *Using Language*. Cambridge University Press, London 2004. Print.
- Levinson, Stephen C. *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983. Print.
- Martin, W. *Recent Theories of Narrative*. Peking University Press, 2009.
- Smith, Barry, editor. *John Searle*. Cambridge University Press, 2003.
- Searle, J. *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge University Press, 1969.
- Searle, J. R. *Speech Acts*. Cambridge University Press, 1969.
- Van Dijk, T.A. *Pragmatics of Language and Literature*. North-Holland Publishing Company, 1976.