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A STUDY ON THE LANGUAGE OF NEWSPAPERS

MASTER THESIS

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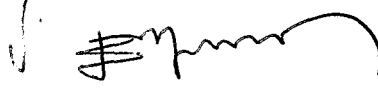
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Yukarıdaki imzalar, adı geçen öğretim üyelerine aittir. .../.../.....

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| Contents | Page Number |
|---|--------------------|
| Abstract | iii |
| Özet | iv |
| Zusammenfassung | v |
| Tables | vi |
| Acknowledgements | vii |
| | |
| Chapter I : Introduction | 1 |
| | |
| Chapter II: Newspapers | 5 |
| 2.1 Headlines | 5 |
| 2.1.1 Headlines in Turkish and English newspapers | 9 |
| 2.1.2 The word choice in headlines | 11 |
| 2.2 Editorials | 15 |
| 2.3 News stories | 18 |
| | |
| Chapter III: The Language of Newspapers | 25 |
| 3.1 The language of headlines | 25 |
| 3.2 Lexical and syntactic items in newspapers | 31 |
| 3.2.1 The lexical items | 31 |
| 3.2.2 The syntactic items | 35 |
| 3.3 Text and discourse analysis in newspaper texts | 38 |
| 3.3.1 Text analysis | 40 |
| 3.3.2 Thematic structures | 48 |
| | |
| Chapter IV: The Research Methodology and The Case Study | 52 |
| 4.1 Methodology and research questions | 52 |
| 4.2 Materials | 53 |
| 4.3 The analysis of two editorials taken from <i>The Guardian</i> and <i>The Times</i> | 55 |
| 4.4 The analysis of lexical and syntactic items in newspapers | 64 |
| 4.4.1 The lexical analysis of the news reports | 65 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 4.4.2 The syntactic analysis of the news reports | 68 |
| 4.5 The text analysis of the news reports | 73 |
| 4.6 The analysis of thematic structures in the news reports | 77 |
| Chapter V: Conclusion | 80 |
| 5.1 Conclusions drawn from the case study | 80 |
| 5.2 Pedagogical implications | 82 |
| Bibliography | 85 |
| Appendices | 89 |
| Curriculum Vitae | 111 |

ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON THE LANGUAGE OF NEWSPAPERS

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In this study, the language of newspapers, the linguistic devices and some of the journalistic expressions used in newspapers are investigated. While examining these linguistic features, the methods and frameworks of text and discourse analysis developed by Van Dijk (1988), Reah (1998), Bell (1988), Allan (1999) and Haliday (1985) are applied to newspaper texts. Striking features of newspaper texts are presented in the terms of language.

Apart from the text and discourse analysis, the features of newspapers and how the news writers make use of language to attract the readers are discussed in this study. In view of the results, it has been observed that newspapers have their own style, language and expressions. In the presentation of news reports, the choice of lexical and syntactic items reflects the ideology and the political side of the journalists or reporters. In short, teachers of English may as well pay special attention to the language used in news reports and exploit them as language teaching materials.

ÖZET

GAZETE DİLİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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Bu çalışmada, İngilizce gazetelerde kullanılan dilin yapısı, dilbilimsel özellikleri ve bu gazetelere özgü bir takım ifadeler incelenmektedir. Bu dilsel özellikler incelenirken farklı metin analiz ve söylem çözümlemesi yöntemlerinden yararlanılmıştır. Gazetelerde verilen haber raporları ve makaleler, Van Dijk (1988), Reah (1998), Bell (1988), Allan (1999) ve Haliday (1985) tarafından geliştirilen analiz yöntemleriyle incelenmektedir.

Ayrıca, gazetelerin özellikleri, gazete yazarlarının dili nasıl etkili ve çarpıcı bir şekilde kullandıkları belirtilmektedir. Bu çalışmanın sonucunda gazetelerin kendine özgü dili, yapısı ve bir takım ifade şekilleri olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bir haberi etkili bir yolla sunarken, yapılan kelime ve yapı seçimi yazarın ideolojik ve politik yönünü yansıtmaktadır. Bir haberi yazarken kullanılan dil okuyucuyu etkilemede büyük önem taşımaktadır.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

EIN STUDIUM ÜBER DIE SPRACHE DER ZEITUNGEN

MAGISTERARBEIT

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In dieser Studie werden die Konstruktionen der Sprachen der englischen Zeitungen, ihre philologische Eigenart und die für diese Zeitungen eigene Ausdrücke, untersucht. Bei der Untersuchung dieser Eigenart wurden Nutzen aus verschiedenen Textanalysenmethoden gezogen. Die in den Zeitungen gegebenen Nachrichtenberichte und Artikel werden mit den von Van Dijk (1988), Reah (1998), Bell (1988), Allan (1999) und Haliday (1985) entwickelten Verfahren und Textanalysenmethoden untersucht und der sprachliche Unterschied zwischen Zeitungen und anderen geschriebenen Texten erwiesen. Neben diesen entwickelten Textanalysenmethoden wird auch die Eigenart der Zeitungen und der wirksam und reizvolle Sprachgebrauch der Journalisten bestimmt. Am Ende dieser Studie sehen wir die für sich bestimmte Sprache, Bau- und Ausdrucksweise der Zeitungen. Bei der wirksamen Erweisungen einer Nachricht werden neben der Wahl der Wörter und Konstruktionen, auch die ideologische und politische Sicht des Journalisten gespiegelt. Die Benutzung der Sprache beim schreiben einer Nachricht spielt bei der Beeindruckung des Lesers eine grosse Rolle.

TABLES**Page Number**

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 3.1.1 The use of deletions in headline | 25 |
| Table 3.1.2 The use of past participle forms in headlines | 26 |
| Table 3.1.3 The use of infinitive forms in headlines | 26 |
| Table 3.1.4 The use of present form in headlines | 27 |
| Table 3.1.5 The use of continuous participle in headlines | 27 |
| Table 3.1.6 The use of acronyms and abbreviations in headlines | 28 |
| Table 3.1.7 The omission of “to be” in headlines | 28 |
| Table 3.1.8 The use of punctuation in headlines | 29 |
| Table 3.1.9 The use of short words in headlines | 30 |
| Table 4.3.1 The number of occurrences of political and governmental words | 57 |
| Table 4.3.2 The number of occurrences of phrasal verbs in the editorials | 57 |
| Table 4.3.3 The number of occurrences of direct speeches in the editorials | 63 |
| Table 4.4.1.1 The presentation of headlines in the news stories | 65 |
| Table 4.4.1.2 The percentages of military terms in the news stories | 68 |
| Table 4.4.2.1 The number of occurrences of tense forms in <i>The Guardian</i> | 70 |
| Table 4.4.2.2 The number of occurrences of tense forms in <i>Turkish Daily News</i> | 70 |
| Table 4.4.2.3 The number of occurrences of tense forms in <i>The Times</i> | 70 |
| Table 4.4.2.4 The number of occurrences of active and passive verbs in the news reports | 72 |
| Table 4.5.1 The number of occurrences of the cohesive ties | 74 |
| Table 4.5.2 The distribution of the grammatical cohesive items | 76 |
| Table 4.6.1 The distribution of theme structures in the news reports | 77 |

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Newspapers are becoming a part of life all over the world on account of people's growing need of being informed about the world affairs. To some extent, they provide communication as a fragment of mass-media. As the technology in communication advances, the media obtain a prominent place in the global economy, culture and the life style of people. To put it another way, the role of media is inseparable from the daily policies and power struggles of the world.

Reah (1998) describes the newspapers as the artefacts giving the news of the day and some analysis while commenting on this news. They are used as a tool in the commercial and political world. Burton (1999) thinks that newspapers are related to press, which is the part of the media. Moreover, the term 'media' pertains to institutions communicating to audiences (i.e. the readers in the press) under the provision of leisure or entertainment.

With all its dimensions, newspapers are the product of journalistic activities and issues, in which daily news or events are presented to the readers. And the content of the news may be both instructive and amusing.

Matthew Arnold, a 19th century English author and the critic, accepts the journalism as an art in which a news writer tells the stories in an artistic way (cited in Browne, 2000). Therefore, journalists or news writers are the men of letters composing their articles, headlines and stories in a special technique and style. However, to some degree, unlike a man of letters, the journalist writes the news as quickly as possible because of making the day's news reach the reader.

Additionally, the language used in newspapers is quite different from the one in any other written text. This is due to the fact that the aim of newspapers is just to transmit the news in a quick and attractive way. The difference in the language occurs mostly in the presentation of headlines, as their principal purpose is to attract the reader to the texts and to give the summary of the news story or article.

The present study aims at examining the language and linguistic aspects in the newspapers. In the light of the frameworks developed by Reah (1998), Halliday(1985), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Salkie (1995), Van Dijk (1988), Bell

(1988) and Allan (1999), the newspaper texts such as editorials, news reports and headlines are analysed in terms of discourse analysis. This study also looks into the lexical and syntactic forms, the idea of word selection and the relation between the text and ideology, since writer's intention and ideology play an important role in the determination of words and structures in newspaper articles (Van Dijk, 1988) and (Bell, 1988). Throughout the study, both the descriptions about the newspapers and the methods of analysis employed by the researchers and journalists are presented.

This study deals with English newspapers, but in some parts, there are examples taken from Turkish newspapers. Thus, the present study makes some explanations on reading and understanding English newspapers, because it is thought that English newspapers are difficult for Turkish learners of English to read and understand. Bell (1991) points out that newspaper articles and news stories are complex and ambitious. While telling the news, they also contain some quotations, background information and consequences of the events. Therefore, news writers have to present the events in a way that is sometimes hard and difficult to understand.

As to the organization of the present study, it is composed of five chapters:

Chapter I, which is the present chapter, is the introduction part giving the definitions of the terms of media and newspapers and explaining the aims of the study.

Chapter II gives the background information by defining the parts of newspapers. As will be expressed in this part, newspapers comprise headlines, editorials (newspaper articles) and news reports (news stories). In each section, the meaning of the terms is clarified and the specific language used in news writing is described. In the first section, the linguistic aspects of headlines, differences between Turkish and English newspapers with respect to headlines, and the concept of word choice are explicated. In the following section, the definitions of the editorials are given and the form and language features are revealed. In the third section of the chapter, news reports are described and explained thoroughly. Moreover, the linguistic aspects and structures of news

stories are discussed in the light of the previous studies carried out by the journalists and linguists.

Chapter III deals with the language used in newspaper texts. In the first section, headline analysis is made. In this analysis, some samples of headlines are selected from several daily newspapers, and these are studied considering the meaning and dissimilarities between headlines and the language forms. As mentioned before, the present study is concerned with the lexical, syntactic and discourse analysis of newspapers by applying the frameworks and strategies developed by Reah (1998), Halliday (1985), Halliday and Hasan (1976), Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1988) and Allan (1999).

Halliday (1985) focuses on the texts bearing in mind the text analysis and functional grammar, determining the word forms and cohesion in these texts. Reah (1998) studies the newspaper texts in terms of both linguistic devices and the cultural and social background of the news. Accordingly, Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1988) and Allan (1999) approach the newspaper texts, taking the critical discourse analysis into consideration. That is, they try to analyse the texts with the social, cultural and ideological backgrounds, establishing a relation between the text and ideology. This chapter also focuses on the language and textual issues to be analysed in the present study.

Chapter IV is assigned to the research methodology, research questions and background information about the newspaper texts which are analysed in the succeeding part. First of all, the objectives of the research are identified, and then the research questions are formulated in view of the explanations made in the previous parts. The results of the analysis of the editorials and news stories are presented. This chapter discusses the results and findings of the study and includes the comments on the textual analysis of the newspaper texts in relation to the research questions.

Chapter V is the concluding part of the present study. This part contains the summary of the results drawn from the analysis of the news texts regarding the research questions formulated before. Furthermore, the general discussion of the study is given. Considering the place of English newspapers in language classes as English Language Teaching (ELT) materials, some pedagogical implications

are discussed. Also, as indicated before, Turkish learners of English find the newspapers difficult to read and understand; in this section some explanations and comments are made to reduce these difficulties to a minimum level.



CHAPTER II: NEWSPAPERS

2.1 HEADLINES

In all newspapers, as well as other written texts, there is a title functioning as the introduction of the written reports and passages. Titles of news reports or articles are called as “headlines” in the journalistic terminology. In newspapers, any news has a certain headline, which is considered significant in their construction.

The definition of headline is given in **Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary** as: “A line of words printed in large letters at the top of a page or an article, especially in a newspaper” (1995:551). Considering the definition, headlines are regarded as the titles of the news stories; also the size of headlines is bigger and darker (i.e. bold in type) than the letters of the news story.

Headlines have important functions during the phase of selling the paper. This is due to the fact that they mostly contribute to make the news story read. In almost all the daily newspapers, headlines are used to give the report or story briefly. Apart from this feature, headlines reduce the story to a few words. They are very effective in terms of attracting the reader to a news story, and especially the readers of newspapers are motivated by the large printed headlines written in the newspapers. Headlines help the readers to become aware of the news reports, and they also give both the core of the news story, and the assessment of them. Most of the people or the readers of daily papers presently buy any kind of newspaper through looking at the headlines printed on the front pages of the newspapers. And thus, it is understood that headlines constitute the centre of captivation and attraction with the aim of promoting the circulation of the newspapers.

Allan (1999:90) describes that:

Headline represents the principal topic or ‘key fact’ at stake in the account. To the extent that it is likely to influence their interpretation of the account to follow. In this way, then, it helps to set down the ideological criteria by which the reader is to make sense of what follows.

The headline is used to summarize the news story, and the headlines in a particular addition give the reader brief information about the current news. On the other hand, they indicate the importance of the news story (Reah 1998). One of the most essential concerns of headlines is to give certain ideas about the news. However, sometimes they may be ambiguous enough to help the readers estimate the news story, so in this case they just act as a guide to make the reader concentrate upon the news report itself. In other words, the readers of newspapers are accustomed to the news story and become familiar with the presented news report.

Reah (1998) states that the reader would glance at the outline of the news of the day and may have some notions about the importance of the news. With the above-stated information in mind, headlines are written to prepare the reader for the article of the news story. And to some extent, they reflect the essence of the news and the text. The examples presented below confirm this statement:

e.g. *PALESTINIANS KILL 13 ISRAELI SOLDIERS IN JENIN*

CHENEY ARRIVING FOR TALKS ON SADDAM

TURKEY TO GIVE POLICE TRAINING TO AFGHANS

PAROLED MAN MAIN SUSPECT

As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, headlines are used to give important ideas and facts about the overall news story. So, while presenting a news report to the readers and writing a suitable headline for the news story in a short, clear, and simple way, newspaper writers create their own language, style and structure. The feature of the newspaper language, especially the language and the structure employed in the headlines by the journalists, has a different manner of writing, technique and type when compared with literal and formal one. They do not carry, most of the times, any structure that is grammatically correct. They are just key words and catchy phrases:

e.g. *HILLARY NOT ONLY FIRST LADY IN POLITICAL TROUBLE*

GERMANY, ISRAEL FORCE AN UNLIKELY ALLIANCE

COMATOSE FOR 10 YEARS, WOMAN IS PREGNANT

Newspaper headlines are chosen not only as devices to use space economically, but also they are selected to be attention-arousing, poetic and influential. Thus in writing the headlines, the choice of word is very important and effective in order to create sound, meaningful, and striking images. The language of headlines has its own peculiarity in a way that it would be very difficult to understand and take the message out of the context.

Reah (1998:14) claims that there are some linguistic devices to produce attractive and clear-cut headlines. These devices consist of four groups:

1. Word and meaning
2. Intertextuality
3. Phonology
4. Loaded words

In the first group, the connection between the given word and meaning may be different, and this leads to ambiguity at times. So writers make use of puns, which mean the humorous use of words. Then, in order to present such a word play, the writer uses homophone, homonym, polysemy and metaphorical associations as in the following examples:

e.g. *DENMARK UNDER FIRE FROM UN FOR TOUGH ASYLUM LAWS*

ASIA, EUROPE HIT BY NEW COMPUTER VIRUS

STORMS TRAP PRINCE CHARLES IN MONASTRY

According to Reah (1998), intertextuality is the best way in which a text refers to another text. The writer utilizes popular songs, books, titles and familiar phrases and sayings, making quotations from these items:

e.g. *A TALE OF TWO STRIKERS*

Phonology is a common way of making the headline memorable. News writers apply to some styles such as alliteration, rhyme, phonological similarity and homophone, intending to produce sound-like images. These are all poetic devices, which appeal to the reader's awareness of sound:

e.g. *HILLARY NOT ONLY FIRST LADY IN POLITICAL TROUBLE*

*LETTER WRITER WITH GRUDGE BURNED CORONER,
POLICE SAY*

As it is expressed in the previous sections, headlines are written to attract the reader's attention and to be effective. Then one of the ways of creating such an attractive conceit is to select words that bear particular connotations. Reah (1998) points out that connotations carry an emotional loading beyond their literal meaning.

As for the structure of headlines, many of the grammatical and lexical words are omitted and modified with respect to producing short and salient expressions. In a headline, as lexical words there are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. These are always included in headlines because of the fact that they form the essence of meaning, and their omission may sometimes lead to ambiguity.

Many of the grammatical words embracing determiners, "the", "a", "an", "this", "that", "these", "those", and auxiliary verbs, "be", "have", "do" are left out since they do not affect the meaning of the message:

e.g. *US CONCERNED ABOUT PROSPECTS OF SECOND BORDER
GATE WITH IRAQ*

The example means “The United States of America is concerned about the prospects of the second border gate with Iraq”. As can be seen in this example, both determiner and the verb “to be” are left out.

2.1.1 HEADLINES IN TURKISH NEWSPAPERS AND ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS

The language of newspapers depends largely on the culture that it comes from. As different countries have different cultures, then the way of writing and manipulating the language would be dissimilar. This alternation works, at the same time, in headline writing.

Headline writing in English is different from Turkish. But this kind of change does not come to mean that they differ in size, style and function. The difference is due to the variety in the structure of these two languages. For instance, the variation takes place in the use of “Past Tense” (i.e. “*geçmiş zaman*” in Turkish), “Future Tense” (i.e. “*gelecek zaman*” in Turkish), “Passive Voice” (i.e. “*edilgenlik*” in Turkish), and “Present Tense” (i.e. “*şimdiki zaman-geniş zaman*” in Turkish).

While writing the events that occurred in the past, an English newspaper headlines the news in the form of present tense:

e.g. *ISRAEL RAIDS TOWNS DESPITE US CRITICISM*

CAR BOMB EXPLODES IN MADRID

However in Turkish newspapers, past events are written in past tense (i.e. “*di’li geçmiş zaman*” or “*miş’li geçmiş zaman*” in Turkish Grammar.)

e.g. *PARİS’E VEDA ETTİLER* (i.e. ‘They bid farewell to Paris’ in English’)

In these examples, the first two give us the sense of immediacy and simple present tense is used to express the past actions in the journalistic English. On the other hand, the feature is opposite in the language of Turkish newspapers. So, Turkish newspapers always use “*di’li geçmiş zaman*” in the narration of the past activities. The manipulation of different tense structures takes place solely in the formation of headlines in English newspapers.

In ordinary English, the passive structure is formed by “*subject + be + verb3*”. In headlining a passive structure in English newspapers, the auxiliary verb “to be” is often eliminated. It just contains the main verb in the form of past participle:

e.g. *TWO AMERICAN SOLDIERS KILLED IN ERRANT KANDAHAR BOMBING*

293 DETAINED FOR ILLEGAL MISSIONARY ACTIVITIES

In Turkish newspapers, however the passive structure is used appropriately. There is not any elimination in Turkish newspapers because Turkish is an agglutinative language attaching suffixes to verbs in order to indicate passive structures. So, as in the following example, the complete form of the passive structure is used:

e.g. *TÜRK BAŞKONSOLOS EVİNDE ÖLÜ BULUNDU* (i.e. ‘The Turkish consul was found dead in his house’ in English)

The passive structure in the future tense is always written in the form of “*to be + verb3*” in English newspapers:

e.g. *THIRD ROUND OF PRESIDENCY ELECTIONS TO BE HELD TODAY*

However, in Turkish newspapers, the proper structure of passive-future (i.e. “*edilgen-gelecek zaman*” in Turkish) is written as a headline:

e.g. *İTALYA'DA BU YAZ TARKAN DİNLENECEK* (i.e. ‘Italian people will listen to Tarkan’s songs this summer’ in English)

Referring to future tense, headlines in English newspapers always include the infinitive, that is “*to + verb*”:

e.g. *TURKEY TO GIVE POLICE TRAINING TO AFGHANS*

POWELL TO VISIT TURKEY IN EARLY DECEMBER

Yet in Turkish newspapers, the form of future tense is often used:

e.g. *POWELL ARALIKTA TÜRKİYE'Yİ ZİYARET EDECEK* (i.e. ‘Powell will visit Turkey in December’ in English)

To sum up the concept of headline writing in both languages, it is more apparent from the facts stated above that headlines have a special tense system in English Language. And it is abnormal to encounter complex forms such as “are meeting” or “has produced”. Generally, simple present is used whether the headline is about something that happened, is happening or happens repeatedly. That is, headlines in English newspapers have different grammatical rules and structures from the ordinary language. But in Turkish newspapers the same grammatical rules, as those used in ordinary Turkish are manipulated in the design of headlines.

2.1.2 WORD CHOICE IN HEADLINES

Sometimes, the headlines in English are confusing, and they are difficult to understand. This is because of the fact that newspaper headlines are always

written in a special technique and manner, different from ordinary English. In such a manner, words are indicated in extraordinary ways. The news writer constantly takes advantage of short words to save space. This is one of the common techniques used in journalism:

e.g. *NEW EVEREST BID BY INDIAN GIRL*

In this example, “*bid*” means “*to attempt*”. But “*attempt*” is a longer word than “*bid*”. So, the writer chooses “*bid*” in forming the headline. The word “*bid*” is not often used in ordinary English in the meaning of “*attempt*”. It is used only in newspaper language.

At the same time, some of the words are not selected for the fact that they are short, but for the idea that they sound dramatic (e.g. “*raid*” means “*attack*”). The English words used in journalism are presented below (Baddock, 1983):

| | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| aid: assistance; to assist | back: to support |
| cut: to reduce; reduction | blast: to criticize |
| bar: ban, prohibition | dog: dishonourable person |
| probe: to investigate | bid: effort; to attempt |
| spur: to move ahead | clash: to disagree seriously |
| weigh: to consider | clash: a violent attack |
| quiz: question | envoy: ambassador, embassy |
| pact: agreement, contact | gem: jewels |
| head: to lead | hit: to affect badly |
| key: vitally important | mission: delegation, messenger |
| cust: to discharge, to dismiss | pit: coalmine |
| poll: election | PM: Prime Minister |
| premier: Prime Minister | quit: to resign |
| raid: to attack | scare: alarm |
| vow: to promise | call for: to demand for |
| link: connection; to contact | plea: appeal; to appeal |
| ax: to dismiss (USA) | axe: to reduce cost (British) |

| | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| up: to increase the price | op: operation |
| mull: to think about; to consider | quake: earthquake |
| deal: agreement, contract | shift: to alter, to change |
| mid-east: Middle East | mar: to damage, to spoil |

Tulgar (cited in Bülbül, 2000) thinks that the use of question sentence (i.e. interrogative) would not be appropriate and correct. There has to be unity among the verbs and affixes. Verbs have significant functions in headlines since they construct the action of the events and since it is often the action that a news report aims to communicate to the readers.

Apart from the linguistic devices, lexical and grammatical concepts, aesthetic also plays an important part in forming attractive headlines. This aspect is called, to Reah (1998), as graphological features of headlines. Then Reah (1998:23) writes that “headlines also have a visual function. The print is larger than the text of the main articles they refer to, but front page headlines, particularly in tabloid newspapers, can by themselves occupy more space than the whole article they refer to.” Besides the written language, pictures’ contribution to the text cannot be ignored, for they add an extra dimension to the meaning.

Headlines give us information about the news and in this case, they can reveal what happened, who did something, where and how something took place. This is a kind of model developed by Reah (1998) in the analysis of headlines. However, this model of analysis may sometimes fail and include a lot of difficulties as the structure of the language may not be in its standard form, and some of these questions may not be presented to us.

In such an analysis, a “who” question renders the actor of the sentence. However the role of the actor is in effect only in the active sentences. In passive constructions, there is an agent, and it always follows “by” in a sentence. Agent corresponds to the subject of an active clause. An agent refers to the “doer” of the action, which is signalled by the verb. But in passive sentences, the agent is not a “doer”. The problem arises when agent is hidden or omitted in passive constructions. A “what” question embodies the action in the sentence, and thus the action is yielded by verbs in a sentence. Yet this can also be a problem when the

verb is not given because, as mentioned before, headlines may not sometimes include verbs so that the action is nominalized. Nominalization in headline writing is the most common way. It is used both in Turkish and English newspapers:

e.g. *BİR DEVİN ÇÖKÜŞÜ* (Turkish Newspaper)
(i.e. 'The Collapse of a Giant' in English)

HANNIBAL'S SUDDEN ARRIVAL (English Newspaper)

In the first example, there is a nominalization and the sentence does not contain any verb. In its proper form, the sentence is understood as "Bir dev çöktü" (i.e. "A giant collapsed" in English). Here "çöktü" (i.e. 'collapsed' in English) is the verb form of the clause, but in headline it is nominalized (i.e. turned into a noun) as "çöküşü" (i.e. 'collapse' in English). In the second example, the proper form is "Hannibal suddenly arrived in the city". Here the verb "arrived" is turned into a noun in headline as "arrival".

A "where" question indicates the location of the events or the action. And finally, a "how" question reveals in what way or manner the events took place.

In the newspapers, the headline is used to make the story brief. As a consequence, in headlines, the journalist or the news writer gives the main events of the story in one sentence.

According to Bell (1988), this is called as "abstract" part in the news text. He further says that the news story is presented in the first sentence. Appropriately, Allan (1999) names it as "news lead". Also he points out that the opening paragraphs, which are the summary of the news article, have 'the essential peg' or 'hook' extending the story in a particular way. He, furthermore, thinks that the five Ws and H questions would be in the leading or 'abstract' paragraph.

Consequently, the selection of headline is important, and the headline should be suitable for the story. In accordance with this statement, Bülbül (2000) indicates in his book that the headline can be written after forming the whole story

or article. Only after the completion of the whole story would the headline be very effective and apt to the news story.

2.2 EDITORIALS

In all of the newspapers there are some parts of columns or corners, named editorials, which are kinds of special articles about the current news given in the newspapers. In the press, it is certain that the editorials express the opinion of the writer. The definition of editorial, according to **Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary** (1995:369), is as follows: "Editorial is a special article in a newspaper, usually written by the editor, giving his or her opinion on an issue of current importance."

Commensurate with the definition given above, Reah (1998:45) writes that "editorials exist to allow the newspaper (usually in the person of its editor) to comment, give views on and draw conclusions from the day's events."

In many ways, while editors or editorial writers express their opinions, these writers would be inclined to impose their ideologies on the reader clearly. To Van Dijk (1988), the ideologies of news writers influence their opinions to a certain extent, and in turn, they would influence the discourse structures of the opinion articles. He also claims that the concept of ideology cannot be separated from the media and media discourse because of the fact that the main purpose of the media is to share its values or political views with its reader. For that reason, the editorial is inclined towards the reader of the newspaper. All the media is conscious of its reader in the production of the article, therefore aiming at the group or community who share the similar belief in terms of ideology. So Van Dijk (1988:27) claims that "ideologies organize specific group attitudes; these attitudes may be used in the formation of personal opinions as represented in models; and these personal opinions may finally be expressed in text and talk."

In discourse analysis, this explanation reveals the function of ideologies. Via media, ideologies are expressed directly or indirectly. These ideologies are presented, on the whole, through editorials. However, when it comes to the

discussion of ideology, some problems arise. The problem is the acceptance of the ideology either as the reality or as the falsity considering the criterion of factuality. And sometimes it is very hard to estimate the factuality and fictionality of the judgement.

In writing the article, editorial writers appeal to the readers as they expect them to share their ideas. And the journalist's orientation to the implied reader, or imagined community of the readers, shapes the form and content of the news. (Allan, 1999)

While commenting on the daily news, the editor or the article writer has the opportunity of addressing to the audience directly. This is the form of address. Addressing style changes from writer to writer in newspapers. Editorials always exist in columns on the certain pages of the newspaper every day. While reading such columns (editorials), the reader or the audience is aware of the fact that he or she will find the comment of editors on the current news. (Reah, 1998)

Following the description and the functions of editorials in discourse analysis, there are many ways or methods of analysing a piece of editorial. In order to analyse the editorials, Reah (1998:50) puts forward the following steps:

- 1-What kinds of shared values are the editorials trying to impose?
- 2-Who is being addressed?
- 3-What "facts" are being asked to the reader to accept?
- 4-How does the editorial attempt to give these factual statuses?

The first step implies the opinion that the writer wants to impose on the reader. Here, the shared value means the ideology that the writer carries. In the second step, the group of the reader is being depicted. The addresser is the writer, and the addressed is the reader or the group that shares the same ideological stance. The third step displays that the writer wants his reader to accept his beliefs, and these beliefs are assumed as the facts. The fourth step reveals the writer's effort in order to present the facts or beliefs.

In accordance with the four steps given above, some of the new categories can be identified to analyse editorials. These categories are:

- 1-Who is being appealed?
- 2-What is the relationship between the headline and the text?
- 3-What does it reflect?
- 4-Whose is the voice?

For whom the writer writes his or her article is the topic of the first question. The second question concentrates upon the connection between the headline and the story; that is, it investigates whether the headline is suitable for the story. The third question shows the voice in the article. The fourth question tries to display who the narrator is in the text.

As different from these methodologies, Browne (2000) claims that there is a format for writing an editorial in England, which is mostly accepted by all the editors. This format includes three parts:

- 1-An introductory part
- 2-A body part
- 3-A concluding part

1-An introductory part: The first sentence should be attractive in an editorial because it is the first part that the reader is confronted. According to Browne, the introduction part is the ignition of the editorial. Consequently, the introduction part should be eventful, provocative and dramatic, but at the same time pithy. (Browne, 2000)

2-A body: It is the part, in which the writer says what he or she intends. Browne thinks that if the ignition is the introductory part, then the engine of the editorial is the body or the development part.

3-A concluding part: The editor gathers his ideas in a few sentences in this part.

At first sight, the format can be a kind of outline to write a successful editorial; it may be used in the analyses of editorials, too. Likewise, as the form is

considered, it can also be said that editorial writing is a kind of art in which there are some rules and techniques.

Van Dijk (1988) approaches to editorials from the ideological point of view. He indicates that the analysis of the ideology in the press does not have any standard way. But he suggests the following items in the analysis of the ideology of editorials:

- 1-Examining the context of discourse
- 2-Analysing which groups, power relations and conflicts are involved.
- 3-Looking for positive and negative opinions about “us” and “them”.
- 4-Spelling out the pre-supposed and the implied audiences.
- 5-Examining all formal structures that emphasize or de-emphasize polarized group opinions.

Sometimes articles in newspapers may not reflect the truth or give us quasi-real or pretended news. When writing a news story, the journalist collects facts and news about the event. Then in the light of the facts or main story, the news writers may add their views or ideas to the events. Consequently, this gives way to speculative or biased issues.

In many stories, the news is given or repeated in a direct manner or, the news writer gives the written account of events that he or she has heard, seen or even documented. Accordingly, editorials comment on the present news and they try to evaluate the events or issues from the journalists’ point of view. In a real sense, the writers of the editorial speculate upon the events. They also reflect their own ideology or idea. The feature article collects the item about the news, and it is extended in conformity by means of these comments or opinions.

2.3 NEWS STORIES

In the organization of a news story, narrative order and sequence of events constitute the very essential part in the description of the situation. Every written text has its own characteristic of telling and showing. Telling and showing are

important in newspapers in that they direct the reader's attention to the given item. Events are told in the form of a story because of the fact that readers are readily aware of the news and they easily understand the content of the news. As mentioned above, the writings in newspapers are stories. In the same way, Bell (1988) argues that news writers do not write articles, but compose a kind of story which comprises structure, order, point of view and value.

In the society and daily life, the media have a fundamental function since they take the account of events and incidents into consideration. And discourse in the media examines the form of language and the way of writing and analysing the text. Moreover, the function of language in the society is related to the study of discourse.

Newspapers are the products of social, political and economical life of the society. As discussed in the previous sections, news in the newspapers is a kind of story which is invented and told by the newspaper writers. Whether the story reveals fictionality or factuality related to the event presented in the newspapers has to be discussed later.

In the formation of news, the writer collects his or her materials and sources, and writes or forms them in a way that the journalist composes fictional and factual things to make the news story attractive. And these, from time to time, lead to sensational events. Therefore, source of news has an effect on the factuality of the news story. In order to achieve this kind of reality or factuality in a news story, Bell (1988), Allan (1999) and Reah (1998) state that the following six questions should be asked and examined:

1. Who?
2. What?
3. When?
4. Where?
5. Why?
6. How?

These are also the known five “W” and “H” questions in newspaper discourse. These are very important to understand fully the concept of the news. A “who” question reveals the actor of the events:

e.g. MAN KILLS FAMILY AND SELF. A German man killed his two disabled children and his partner, before committing suicide in a town south of Rome, police said on Monday... (Turkish Daily News, March 19, 2002)

In the news story, it is recognized that a German man killed his two children and wife. If we ask, “*Who killed them?*”, then the answer would be “*a German man*”. This is, at the same time, the actor of the event.

The “what” question gives the reader the action in the news report. The “what” question constructs the very essence of the news story as it helps to inform the reader about all the events. In the given example, “*a German man*” is the actor in the story. “*What did the man do?*” gives us the action of the story. So “*killed his two children and wife*” is the answer to the question.

“When” and “where” questions, in turn, point out the time and the location of the action. According to the example, if we ask, “*When did the man kill his children and wife?*”, the answer would be “*before committing suicide on Monday*”. “*Where did the action take place?*” is the question to reveal the location of the events. According to the news story, the events took place in a town, south of Rome. In most of the news stories, “why” and “how” questions cannot be answered. This is on account of the fact that newspapers intend to inform the reader about the news, and also a great number of news reports are taken from several news agencies, and these news agencies sometimes do not give the details.

In newspapers, most of the news stories are written in an inverted pyramid style format. In this sense, Allan (1999:90) states that “beginning with the news lead, which presents the information deemed to be most “newsworthy”, the account proceeds to the structure the remaining details in a descending order of discursive (and usually ideological) significance.” Thus, it is indicated that the news is told in the order of news values. The topic or the key sentence, which is sometimes called as “news lead”, is written above the story and below the

headline. Accordingly, Van Dijk (cited in Huckin, 1997) states that news reports or news stories have 'inverted pyramid' structure, and in this kind of structure, the importance of information is at the beginning of the text.

Tokgöz (1994) asserts that the correctness and factuality of the writings are important as well as the words used in the text. Additionally, she declares that in each news story, there is an introduction and body part. In the introductory part, the ultimate aim is to answer the questions given above. And when these question words come together in a sentence, they form a sentence which includes the subject or actor and predicate in accordance with simple grammar rules. At the same time, adjectives and adverbs, displaying the time, place and attribute, are involved in the sentence.

However, she claims that the answers to the six questions may not exist in a sentence because the four questions, "who", "what", "when" and "where" give the essence of the narration, but "why" and "how" questions reveal the details about the news accounts.

Bell (1988) developed a kind of framework of the analysis of the structure and the form of the news story, in which Van Dijk's framework of the analysis of discourse that renders an ideological point of view and Labov's (cited in Bell, 1988) analysing the narrative of personal experience, constitute the very essence of analysing a news story (see figure I). In describing the framework, Bell (1988) writes that a news story has three parts:

1. Attribution
2. Abstract
3. Story

Attribution part gives the source of the news, in which the name of the newsagent is revealed. As well as revealing the source, the time and the place of the news are presented.

The abstract part consists of both the headline and the news lead. Headline is the main topic or the key fact of the story, and news lead is the opening paragraph or provides the summary of the news. And the five "W" and

“H” questions would likely be in the lead, in other words, the first paragraph of the story.



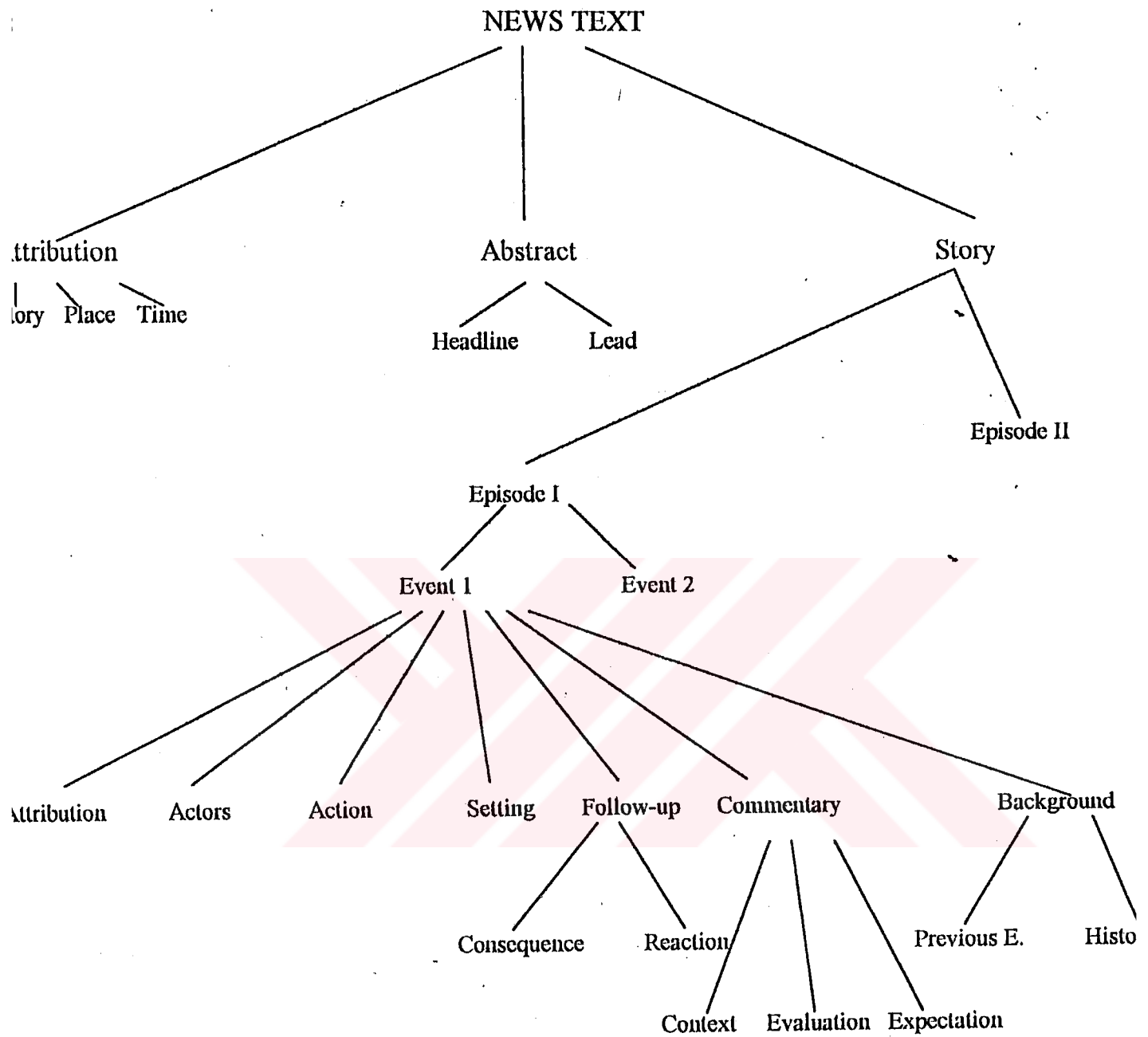


Figure (1)

- This framework was developed by Bell (1988)

The story part gives the development of the news and the details about the news.

Finally, Reah (1998) points out that newspapers include news, and this news is written in the form of a story. He also explains that narrative is story-telling in news reports. And, to some extent, news reports go with some patterns of narrative. These patterns are:

- 1) A brief summary at the beginning.
- 2) Information about the circumstances such as the time, the place, the people, the situation.
- 3) A sequence of events.
- 4) The point of, or the reason for telling, the story.
- 5) The end of the sequence of events.
- 6) A summing up.

CHAPTER III: THE LANGUAGE OF NEWSPAPERS

3.1 THE LANGUAGE OF HEADLINES

In this section, headlines are analysed in order to specify the linguistic devices and journalistic style and techniques used in their constructions. Headlines are selected from various newspapers, including *Turkish News*, *Turkish Daily News* and *The Guardian*.

As expressed in section 2.1, headlines have a different style and language for which they serve to attract the reader to the text and to give the news in a brief account. The language of headlines is quite dissimilar to the ordinary use of language, especially in English. In English, headlines are possessed of the original and discordant use compared to the literary style in this language. So in this part these differences are indicated:

1. Headlines use deletions: In headlines, deletion means leaving out the articles, personal pronouns and demonstratives, etc.:

Table 3.1.1 The use of deletions in headlines

| HEADLINE | MEANING |
|--|---|
| <i>US FLAGGED SAILBOAT INTERCEPTED BY GREECE</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 17 th November, 2001) | (The) United States's flagged sailboat was intercepted by Greece. |
| <i>CAR BOMB EXPLODES IN SPANISH TOURIST RESORT</i> (<i>Turkish DailyNews</i> , 19 th August,2001) | (A) Car bomb has exploded in (a) Spanish tourist resort. |

2. Reduced verb forms are employed in headlines. These reduced forms are presented in four different ways:
 - a) Past participle form is used to give passive meaning:

Table 3.1.2 The use of past participle forms in headlines

| HEADLINE IN PARTICIPLE FORM | PASSIVE MEANING |
|---|--|
| <i>CYPRUS TALKS POSTPONED TO END OF JUNE</i> (<i>Turkish Daily News</i> , 5 th May, 2000) | The Cyprus talks (have been) postponed to the end of the June. |
| <i>TWO AMERICAN SOLDIERS KILLED IN ERRANT KANDAHAR BOMBING</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 6 th December, 2001) | Two American soldiers (were) killed in an errant Kandahar Bombing. |

- b) Infinitive form: In headlines, the infinitive form is used to give future meaning:

Table 3.1.3. The use of infinitive form in headlines

| HEADLINE IN INFINITIVE FORM | FUTURE MEANING |
|--|--|
| <i>TURKEY TO GIVE POLICE TRAINING TO AFGHANS</i> (<i>Turkish Daily News</i> , 25 th November, 2001) | Turkey (will) give police training to Afghan soldiers. |
| <i>POWELL TO VISIT TURKEY IN EARLY DECEMBER</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 27 th November, 2001) | Colin Powell (is going to) visit Turkey in December. |

- c) Simple present form is used to give past meaning in headlines:

Table 3.1.4. The use of present form in headlines

| HEADLINE IN PRESENT FORM | PAST MEANING |
|--|--|
| <i>ISRAELI TROOPS KILL PALESTINIAN IN GAZA RAID</i> (<i>Turkish Daily News</i> , 19 th August, 2001) | Israeli troops (killed) a Palestinian in the Gaza raid. |
| <i>THE HAGUE TRIBUNAL ACCUSES MILOSEVIC OF CRIMINAL ACTS OF MEDIEVAL SAVAGES</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 13 rd February, 2002) | The Hague tribunal (accused) Milosevic of criminal acts of medieval savages. |

d) Continuous participle is used to give present meaning in headlines:

Table 3.1.5. The use of continuous participle in headlines

| HEADLINE IN CONTINUOUS PARTICIPLE | PRESENT MEANING |
|---|---|
| <i>KARZAI PRESSING HARD FOR AID TO AFGHANISTAN</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 21 st January, 2002) | Karzai (is) pressing hard for the aid to Afghanistan. |
| <i>CHENEY ARRIVING FOR TALKS ON SADDAM</i> (<i>Turkish Daily News</i> , 19 th March, 2002) | Cheney (is to) arrive in Ankara today for the talks with Turkish leaders on Saddam. |

3. The use of Acronyms and abbreviations: Most of the time, abbreviations or acronyms are used to save space in newspapers:

Table 3.1.6. The use of acronyms and abbreviations in headlines

| HEADLINE USING ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS | MEANING |
|---|--|
| <i>IMF: TURKEY MUST TAKE STEPS FOR CREDIT</i> (<i>Turkish DailyNews</i> , 19 th March, 2002) | The International Monetary Fund (IMF) yesterday urged Turkey to complete the steps laid out in its \$16 billion loan deal. |
| <i>US WARNS IRAQ ON TERRORISM</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 13 rd February, 2001) | The United States of America (US) warned Iraq on terrorism. |
| <i>AI TO OPEN BRANCH TO IMPROVE LOCAL HR.</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 19 th March, 2002) | Amnesty International (AI) will open a branch in Turkey to improve Human Rights (HR). |
| <i>CHINESE GOVT BEGINS TO CONFRONT AIDS ISSUE</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 17 th November, 2001) | The government (GOVT) in China began to confront the Acquired Immune Defiance Syndrome (AIDS) issue. |
| <i>TOBACCO ALCOHOL ADS BAN IN EFFECT IN UKRAINE</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 17 th November, 2001) | Tobacco and alcohol advisements (ADS) were banned in Ukraine. |

4. The omission of “to be”:

Table 3.1.7. The omission of “to be” in headlines

| HEADLINE USING THE OMISSION OF “TO BE” | MEANING |
|---|--|
| <i>RED BERETS’ DEPARTURE DATE AND ROLE UNCERTAIN</i> (<i>Turkish News</i> , 10 th November, 2001) | The date of the Red Berets’ departure (is) uncertain. |
| <i>US CONCERNED ABOUT PROSPECTS OF A SECOND BORDER GATE WITH IRAQ</i> (<i>Turkish Daily News</i> , 25 th November, 2001) | The United States of America is concerned about the prospects of a second border gate with Iraq. |

5. The use of punctuations: Sometimes punctuations are used to save space:

Table 3.1.8. The use of punctuations in headlines

| HEADLINES USING PUNCTUATIONS | MEANING |
|---|---|
| <p><i>US HELICOPTER GOES DOWN, TWO MARINES KILLED, FIVE HURT</i> (<i>Turkish News</i>, 21st January, 2001)</p> | <p>Two U.S marines died and five others were injured when their helicopter crashed in a rugged mountain region.</p> |
| <p><i>DOSTUM: KEY TALIBAN CITY RECAPTURED</i> (<i>Turkish News</i>, 10th November, 2001)</p> | <p>(Uzbek General Rashid) Dostum (announced that) a Taliban city has been recaptured.</p> |
| <p><i>POWELL: NO DECISION ON FORCE COMMANDER IN AFGHANISTAN</i> (<i>Turkish News</i>, 7th December, 2001)</p> | <p>Powell (says that) he does not think the peacekeeping force would be led by...</p> |
| <p><i>ASIA, EUROPE HIT BY A NEW COMPUTER VIRUS</i> (<i>Turkish Daily News</i>, 5th May, 2000)</p> | <p>Asia (and) Europe (were) hit by a new virus.</p> |
| <p><i>GIRL, 13, CAUGHT WITH £1 M OF HEROIN</i> (<i>The Guardian</i>, 10th April, 2002)</p> | <p>A 13-year-old girl has been caught with one million pounds of heroin.</p> |

6. The use of short words: In headlines, short words are used instead of longer ones:

Table 3.1.9. The use of short words in headlines

| WORD | MEANING | HEADLINE |
|-------------|-----------------|---|
| ax | to dismiss | <i>IMF SEEKS TO AX 100,000 STATE WORKERS</i> |
| cut | reduction | <i>GENERAL STAFF ANNOUNCES BUDGET CUTS IN EXPENDITURES FOR 2002</i> |
| blast | explosion | <i>GAZA BLAST AHEAD OF MEDIATION BID</i> |
| back | to support | <i>ARMENIA BACKS NAGORNO-KARABAKH ELECTIONS</i> |
| bid | effort, attempt | <i>MHP SAYS IT IS NOT AN OBSTACLE TO EU BID</i> |
| hit | to affect badly | <i>FLOODS HIT MERSIN, KILLING THREE</i> |
| mull | to think about | <i>US GOVT MULLS NEW MAD-COW RESTRICTIONS.</i> |
| PM | Prime Minister | <i>NEW PM: LET'S AVOID BLOODSHED</i> |
| ops | operations | <i>POLICE OPS GET NEW LIMITS</i> |
| raid | to attack | <i>ISRAEL RAIDS TOWNS DESPITE US CRITICISM</i> |
| quake | earthquake | <i>MAMMOTH QUAKE HITS NORTHWESTERN CHINA</i> |
| up | to raise | <i>NOVEMBER PRICES UP 4.2 PERCENT</i> |
| vow | to promise | <i>POWELL VOWS FRESH LOOK AT QUOTES</i> |

3.2 LEXICAL AND SYNTACTIC ITEMS IN NEWSPAPERS

As the present study examines the language of newspaper text, then it is necessary to begin with the definition of text. Language performs at various levels in texts, and there are two kinds of texts:

- 1) Written texts
- 2) Spoken texts

The written text deals with the graphological level which is visual whereas the spoken text has phonological level which is aural or audial. (Reah, 1998)

All kinds of texts have both lexical and syntactic levels. Lexical level is related to lexicon, which is the vocabulary of language (Leech, 1992). Words are considered in the lexicon of the language. Syntax is related to grammar, analysing the way words are combined into sentences.

It is important to note that apart from the lexical and syntactic levels, texts operate within the cultural context in which they are formulated peculiar to the culture of the implied society. Newspapers are cultural artefacts. It is claimed that the form and the style of newspaper texts depend largely on the culture of that country. As the culture is bound to change from one country to another, the way of writing and the style or format of newspapers change as well. In sum, it can be said that newspapers are the creations of the culture that they represent.

3.2.1 THE LEXICAL ITEMS

Language is the medium of representing our ideas, beliefs and thoughts. When the language is used in the well-conducted, well-ordered, and well-regulated ways, then it of course would be the most powerful vehicle.

Word choice bears importance in establishing an ideological view. Exactly, the opinion and the belief of a news writer constitutes the very essential part in the arrangement of the words. For that reason, an article writer may utilize propositions, implications, presuppositions and even descriptions in the

determination of the semantic structure. In accordance with these statements, Van Dijk (cited in Bell, 1988) thinks that the use of lexical items or the semantic structure of discourse is important owing to the idea that the semantic structure comprises the intrinsic content of expressing ideological opinions. He also mentions that in the nomination of the lexical items and in the construction of a news story, the words may be selected, both in general and contextually, to represent values and norms and to formulate a value judgement.

Allan (1999:90) argues that “the regular usage of certain types of stylistic devices, including metaphors, jargon, euphemisms, puns and clichés, tends to characterize a newspaper’s ‘social personality’, as well as its ‘professional sense of the newsworthy.’” With this statement, it is penetrated that writers’ use of vocabulary discloses newspaper’s ideology and the quality of the presented news.

As indicated by Reah (1998), the choice of word is very essential in an effective language usage. By the same token, in the selection of vocabulary in daily newspapers, naming the people or the group, instead of using the real names, is one of the basic manners of creating an effective and attractive language in the art of journalism. In newspapers, the news writer makes use of some devices in order to originate an impressive manner of making over the news story. In the course of naming the persons, the journalist presents the name of these people by applying the other forms of representation. This is the informal way of the language usage in newspapers.

For instance, the British press uses most of the time “Maggie” instead of giving the real name, “Margaret Thatcher”, or “Di” as an alternative to “Lady Diana”. These are some of the naming forms used in the media. There exist, of course, other strategies in the naming of people presented in newspapers. These naming strategies are as follows (Reah, 1998):

- 1) The use of first name: The news writer renders the first name of the people when he or she writes the news:

e.g. Saddam, Hillary, Rahşan, etc.

-
- 2) The use of the short form of the first name: The writer abbreviates the first name, but this leads to the colloquial usage of language. This style is encountered, mostly, in headlines:

e.g. Di (Diana), Maggie (Margaret), etc.

- 3) The use of the first and the last name: In this strategy, the journalist writes the whole form of names. The feature reveals the formal language usage:

e.g. George Bush, Fatih Terim, Bill Clinton, Ahmet Necdet Sezer, etc.

- 4) The use of the title and the last name, as Mr., Mrs., Sir, Lord, or “Bay”, “Bayan” (i.e. ‘Mr’, ‘Mrs’ in English) in Turkish newspapers

e.g. Sir Ferguson, King Abdullah, Mrs. Clinton, Mrs. Sezer (i.e. “Bayan Sezer” in Turkish newspapers)

- 5) The use of the title only: This feature occurs only in the headlines:

e.g. Sir, madam, etc.

- 6) The use of the last name: This strategy has been used predominantly in news stories and headlines:

e.g. Ecevit, Demirel, Yılmaz, Powell, Bush, etc.

- 7) The use of nickname: In newspaper language, the journalist, for the most part, makes use of nicknames so as to create a comic effect and an attractive sense. But news writers do not produce these names. They are the known names, in other words they are originated by the society

and the public. The use of nickname may display friendship and affection:

e.g. Di (Diana), Fergie (Alex Ferguson), Father (i.e. 'Baba' in Turkish, Süleyman Demirel), Emperor (i.e. 'İmparator' in Turkish, Fatih Terim), etc.

8) The use of profession or title: This feature is used usually in headlines and the news lead:

e.g. General, President, Minister, Queen, etc.

9) The use of profession and the last name of the person.

e.g. Prime Minister Ecevit, President Sezer, Queen Elizabeth, etc.

10) The use of formal title:

e.g. Queen, Her Royal Highness, My Lord, etc.

11) The use of a named group: Sometimes the name of groups is shortened, and in newspapers they are written in other forms:

e.g. Ladies and Gentlemen, Girls, Afghans, Aussies, Britons, etc.

12) The use of anonymous address: In its occasional usage, the news writer uses uncertain names when he or she is not sure about the actor or agent in a news story. Also, to give the sense of dramatic events, writers employ such devices:

e.g. Boy, Girl, a man, etc.

Words are selected according to the context of the news. And, on the other hand, there are strong contrasts between the tabloid newspapers and broadsheet ones in terms of the choice of words. For example, tabloid newspapers usually include a much more colloquial language and they are emotive in judgement. They are often in a sensational tone. Allan (1999:90) thinks that “a vocabulary of emotional arousal summons laughter, thrills, shocks, desire.” Broadsheet newspapers are more serious than the tabloid ones. And unlike tabloids, they use terms which are more likely to be regarded as ‘unemotive’, ‘impartial’, and ‘dispassionate’. Thus, they seem much more objective than the tabloid newspapers in the presentation of the news.

3.2.2. THE SYNTACTIC ITEMS

The syntactic analysis of newspaper is related to the structure of newspaper language. So, before considering the structure of newspaper language, it would be useful to give brief information about syntax. Syntax is the part of grammar analysing the way words are combined into sentences. In other words, it is a kind of grammatical approach to the sentences that appear in a text.

In the previous part, the lexical items have been examined, and the focus has always been on the semantic relationship among the words in newspaper texts. In the present part, the syntactic function of the newspaper language is considered. The focus would be, of course, on the grammar and especially on the verbs in newspaper texts.

When it comes to the relation between syntax and the language of newspapers, the choice of verb is very essential while formulating a news story and the headline. The selection of appropriate verb form determines the journalist’s opinion or ideas about the person (i.e. actors or agents) involved in a newspaper text. As a result, the idea of selecting the suitable verb form reflects the writer’s approach or point of view.

Verbs indicate events and states of affairs and they help to qualify the reference of other verbs. According to Leech (1992), verbs are divided into two main classes in traditional grammar: Main verbs (e.g. appear, go, fight, kill, etc.)

and Auxiliary verbs (i.e. be, have, do, will, can, may, shall, would, could, might, should, and must).

Alternatively, Reah (1998) classifies verbs into different groups:

- 1) Actional verbs
- 2) Relational verbs

Actional verbs, as the name implies, refer to the main verbs which affect the actor or the agent. On the contrary, the relational verbs refer to the auxiliary verb or “to be” form in English. Actional verbs are divided into two categories:

- a- Transactive verbs
- b- Non-transactive verbs

Transactive verbs have an agent or an actor causing the action, and someone or something being affected by the action. But in non-transactive verbs, there exists only an actor in a sentence, not a person affected by the action.

e.g. a-His wife poisoned him with arsenic.

b-Alice played a new game.

In these examples, both transactive and non-transactive verbs can be seen. In (a), the verb is “poisoned”. It is actional and transactive on account of the fact that “to poison” is an action verb. Likewise, it is also transactive because of the fact that there is an actor, “his wife”, and a person affected by the action. The action is “poisoned” in the sentence. “Him” is the affected person in this example. In a transitive verb, the verb should represent an action, which goes from the actor to the affected. In this sentence “his wife” is the doer of the action and “him” is the affected.

If a verb is transactive, it can be both in the form of active voice and passive voice. In a passive voice, “the actor” becomes “the agent” followed with the preposition “by”. If we express the first sentence in passive structure, it would

be, "He was poisoned by his wife.". Again, the actor becomes the agent in this sentence.

In the latter example the verb is both actional and non-transactive. For there is not any affected person by the actor or the action. Only the actor performs the action.

Relational verbs refer to the auxiliary verbs, or the form of "to be" in a sentence. Relational verbs are divided into two parts:

- a- Verbs that reveal quality or attribute.
- b- Verbs that reveal equal state.

Relational verbs attribute both quality and equal state.

- e.g. a- That girl is very polite.
- b- Jane is my sister.

These examples include relational verbs. In example (a), the verb "is" is relational and it also expresses quality or attribute. "Polite" is an adjective, and the verb 'is' represents the quality of the subject. In example (b), the verb "is" represents equality or equal states.

Another important fact to be stressed here is that transactive and non-transactive verbs do not come to the same meaning with "transitive" or "intransitive". Reah (1998:78) says:

To be transactive, a verb must represent an action that goes from the actor to the affected, as in 'Police arrested Paula Yates.' The label 'transitive' is applied to any verb that takes a direct object, so 'Mary is a teacher', 'David seems a bit of an oddity' are both transitive, but neither is transactive or even actional, but relational, representing an equal state.

The selection of verb form is very important as it exposes the ideological angle of the journalist or text writer. In the same way, Reah (1998) thinks that when the opinion is given by the way of a sentence including a relational verb, it

is quite apparent that the opinion has been offered. The reader may agree or disagree with the news writer. And most of the time, with the aim of escaping from speculative news, the writer of the news story uses modal verbs or words that include probability or predictions. These kinds of clauses are subsumed concepts such as possibility or permission (i.e. can, may); obligation, necessity, or likelihood (i.e. must, should), and prediction, intention or hypothesis (i.e. will, would). This is called modality. Modal verbs have lots of meanings and it is impossible to detect a certain meaning. Furthermore, it is related to the context of situation to recognize the meaning of the sentence including a modal verb or an adjective. Modality, in a sentence, carries uncertainty and inconclusiveness.

In the formation of a news story, sometimes a journalist may delete the actor from the action by using a passive structure. So, the readers are not informed about who is involved in the action, or who the actor (doer) is in the sentence. Considering this statement, Reah (1998) notes that in passive sentences the emphasis will be on the person or the thing that is affected by the action.

To sum up the methods of analysing the syntactic structures of the news stories written in newspapers, five questions can be asked. Answers to these questions would determine the techniques of this analysis. These questions are:

- 1- Who is the actor or the agent in the text?
- 2- Are the verbs used in the text actional or relational?
- 3- If actional, what are the actions performed by actors or agents?
- 4- If relational, what qualities or equalities are given to them?
- 5- How are these verbs used?

3.3 TEXT AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN NEWSPAPERS

Throughout the study, the linguistic devices applied by the newspaper writers have been investigated. In this section, text and discourse analysis in newspaper texts are examined and taken into consideration in describing the texts and headlines. Newspapers are published to provide the communication in the society, and they are used as a political tool for imposing the ideological stance of

the writer. Besides, they give information about the world-affairs. Realizing the prominent place of ideology in discourse, some scholars (Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1988), Fairclough (1988) and Allan (1999)) have integrated the discourse and ideology. This is called as critical discourse analysis, which is the analysis of written or oral texts that are considered as political and cultural. It deals with the text in a real-world context (Huckin, 1997). Bell and Garrett (1988) indicate that in media discourse, the pioneering analysis is directed in 'Critical Linguistics' Framework'. Critical discourse analysis has quite differences from the text analysis. These are (Huckin, 1997:86)

1. Critical discourse analysis claims that authentic texts are produced and read in a real-world context.
2. As a form of discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis writes three different levels of analysis:
 - a- The text
 - b- The discursive practices
 - c- The social context
3. It deals with societal issues such as cultural, political and social.
4. In critical discourse analysis, the meaning of the text derives not only from the words in the text but also from how these words are manipulated in a particular social context.

However, text analysis is a kind of linguistic approach to the text, and hence it is functional in a way that it deals with grammatical, syntactic, phonological and other linguistic elements. On the other hand, critical discourse analysis attempts to examine the levels of 'discursive practices' and the social background of the text (Huckin, 1997). So it is a kind of critical approach to the text.

3.3.1 TEXT ANALYSIS

In the foregoing section, introduction to the text and discourse analysis has been made, and critical discourse analysis has been described. In this section, the function and the methods of text analysis, developed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Salkie (1995), are presented in relation with the analysis of newspaper texts. And this part deals with some basic ideas and techniques used in the text and discourse. Critical discourse analysis in the previous section is related to critical analysis, which means examining the text from the political, social and cultural point of view; yet text analysis is related to functional aspect of the language.

Text analysis studies how sentences combine to form texts. So, there are some references to grammar in text analysis. Grammar is basically about how words combine to form sentences. And in grammar, it can be said that if the word order is incorrect, then that sentence is called 'ungrammatical'. However in text and discourse analysis, if there is no unity and coherence among the sentences, then this is called as "incoherent" (Salkie, 1995). In view of this idea, coherence is the focus for text analysis and discourse analysis. By the same token, Cook (1989:6) remarks that "language in use, for communication is called discourse; and the search for what gives discourse coherence is discourse analysis." To be able to fully understand the message, the sentences or the written text should be coherent (Halliday, 1985). That is, there should be coherence among the words and sentences in order to form a single unit. Along with this fact, cohesion among the sentences and words stands as an important aspect in newspaper texts. In Halliday's framework of discourse analysis, cohesion is the center for forming a unified and meaningful whole in a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) define cohesion as a semantic concept, and say that "it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and define it as a text".

Likewise, Reah (1998:113) explains the term as "the pattern of language created within a text, mainly within and across sentence boundaries, and which collectively make up the organization of larger units of text such as paragraphs."

In the example given below, cohesion plays an important role:

e.g. *Doctors have told Saeed Taha that he has only weeks to live. The 48-year-old electrician is sprawled on a Cairo hospital bed with tubes connected, seemingly, to every major vein and artery... (Newsweek, May 20, 2002).*

In this example, “he” in the first sentence and “the 48-year-old electrician” in the second sentence refer to “Saeed Taha” in the first sentence. When the whole text is read, the reader considers the text as coherent and consistent. The reference items in the text provide the cohesion through semantic relations. In the light of this statement, Halliday and Hasan (1976) express the view that cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other elements, which are regarded as important to the interpretation of them.

In terms of Halliday’s (1985), Salkie’s (1995) and Reah’s (1998) frameworks of text analysis, two types of cohesion are identified:

1. Lexical cohesion
2. Grammatical cohesion

Lexical cohesion is formed through chains of words having related meaning across sentences:

e.g. I don’t like snakes. For they are disgusting.

In this example, “they” in the second sentence refers back to “snakes”. The cohesion is achieved by the words, “they” and “snakes”. “They” in the second sentence is called as anaphoric tie, which means referring to a preceding word or group of words. Cook (1989) explains that anaphora is a common procedure used in discourse analysis, which is referring expression related to the preceding sentence. In the example given above, the two sentences constitute together a text, and there can be linked sentences in the following part. “They” and “snakes” are connected in terms of semantic relation. Thus, as expressed in the previous paragraphs, cohesion is a semantic relation between the words or word groups.

Lexical cohesion in a text is the cohesive effect, which is obtained by the choice of vocabulary. And lexical cohesion is also achieved through the reiteration of related words. Accordingly, to Halliday (1985) and Halliday and Hasan (1976), reiteration is carried out by the following items:

1. Repetition (repeating the same word):

e.g. *The tiny Chech hamlet of Hora Svate Kateriny isn't easy to find. A steep, unmarked, fog enshrouded road twists and turns through miles of mountains and ominous forest, winding up in this remote village. Improbable as it may seem, some say, Hora Svate Kateriny promises the proverbial pot of gold at the end of rainbow...* (Newsweek, May 27, 2002).

In the example, quoted from the *Newsweek*, "Hora Svate Kateriny" is repeated in the third sentence.

2. Synonym (having the same meaning): Cook (1989) claims that in Britain, native speakers disapprove of using repetition, which is "bad style" for them. On the other hand, they are persuaded to use a kind of device known as 'elegant repetition'. In elegant repetition, synonyms and general words are used. For instance in the preceding example, taken from *Newsweek*, "hamlet" in the first sentence is the synonym of "village", which is in the second sentence.

3. Superordinate:

e.g. *...Aspirin relieved Enrico Caruso's headaches and was one of the only drugs that could ease Kafka's existential...* (Newsweek, May 27, 2002)

In the given example, "Aspirin" is reiterated by the superordinate, "drugs".

4. General noun:

e.g. *Hepatitis C can lie dormant in the body for decades before causing fatal liver damage. World wide, 170 million people suffer from the disease...* (Newsweek, May 20, 2002).

In the example, “the disease” in the second sentence is a general noun for “Hepatitis C” in the first sentence.

5. Personal reference:

e.g. *Former Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu has never been comfortable out of the limelight. But rarely has he appeared so baldly ambitious...* (Newsweek, May 27, 2002).

In this example, “he” in the second sentence is the personal reference to “Former Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu”.

In keeping with Halliday’s (1985) and Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) explanations on the reiterated items in lexical cohesion, Reah (1998) developed and examined some patterns of lexically cohesive items standing within the newspaper texts as:

- a- Semantic field (the use of words and phrases from a particular area of meaning)
- b- Direct repetition (the same word is repeated)
- c- Antonyms (opposites)
- d- Specific to general reference (where the same thing is referred to, but the first reference has more detail)
- e- Level of formality (texts can use different levels of formality to address a specific topic)

Moreover, he adds that these patterns of word choice (lexical) represent ideological messages in the text. For example, one newspaper may consider the

“war” as a serious and formal event; the other may consider it as destruction and terror. Thus, the use of word or phrase reveals the ideological angle of the writer.

Grammatical cohesion, however, is formed by grammatical words in texts. These grammatical words, such as ‘the, it, they, her, one, do, have, but, and, that, this, etc.’, provide the cohesion among the sentences in a text (Halliday, 1985). An important fact to be stressed here is that lexical cohesion is the semantic one, just dealing with the meaning of the words; but grammatical cohesion contains words, which carry grammatical meaning. For instance, determiners, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions and pronouns are grammatical concepts.

As grammatical cohesion is investigated, the words and patterns are divided into four types (Halliday, 1985, Halliday and Hasan, 1976):

1. Reference
2. Substitution
3. Ellipsis
4. Conjunction

1. Reference: Halliday (1985:288) explains that “a participant or circumstantial element introduced at one place in the text can be taken as a reference point for something that follows”. In referring expressions, the items presented before are replaced with pronouns, demonstratives or are rewritten with a definite article. Similarly, Cook (1989) expresses the reference items as the words whose meaning would be determined by making reference to the other words that are clear to both speaker/writer and hearer/reader. In Halliday’s (1985) and Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) concept of reference, reference has two types in a text:

1. Endophoric reference
2. Exophoric reference

Exophora or exophoric reference is something referring to a thing as identified in the context of a situation. In this kind of reference, the pointed item is

not mentioned in the text, but it exists out of the text. Thus, the meaning and cohesion in a text are achieved by the context of situation. Therefore, there is a strong link between the sender and the receiver since both of them know what is mentioned.

As to Endophora or endophoric reference, it is related to a thing that is identified in the surrounding text. It can occur in two forms in a text:

a- Anaphora or anaphoric tie

b- Cataphora or cataphoric tie

As said before, anaphora or anaphoric tie means referring to a preceding word or word group:

e.g. *Keen gardener Jeanne Harris died from a flesh-eating infection after pricking her finger on a rose, an inquest heard yesterday... (The Daily Mirror, May 16, 2002)*

In this example, “her” is the anaphoric tie referring to “keen gardener Jeanne Harris”.

Cataphora or cataphoric tie means referring to the succeeding word or word groups in a text:

e.g. *In his speech, the Pope recognised the damage had been compounded by bishops and cardinals who moved abusers to other posts after complaints were made. (The Guardian, April 24, 2002)*

“His” in the example is the cataphoric tie in the text as it refers to “the Pope” in the following part of the sentence.

Reference in English has three types; personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, Salkie, 1995).

Personal reference is the use of pronouns in the text:

e.g. *A dad-of-three was killed when a security barrier smashed through his windscreen as he left a car park... (The Daily Mirror, May 16, 2002).*

As in the example, quoted from *The Daily Mirror*, “his” and “he” refer back to “a dad-of-three” in the preceding words. Here, “his” is a possessive pronoun, and “he” is personal pronoun. Just as the example given above, many newspaper writers utilize pronouns to indicate people or things in order to avoid repeating the given items and using the space economically. Bearing in mind this statement, Cook (1989:18) indicates that “referring expressions fulfil a dual purpose of unifying the text and of economy, because they save us from having to repeat the identity of what we are talking about again and again”.

Demonstratives, such as “this, that, these and those”, are reference items, as well. These items are sometimes used with nouns in a text:

e.g. *...Western foreigners in Pakistan have been warned to use caution because of the threats from militant Islamic groups protesting the war on terror. These radical groups were protesting the war on terror. These radical groups were strong supporters of the Taliban regime that collapsed under the coalition’s assault... (Turkish Daily News, May 24, 2002)*

In the example, “these” in the second sentence is a demonstrative reference which points back “militant Islamic groups” in the preceding sentence. This demonstrative reference stands as the head of the noun group, “these radical groups”. Here, “radical groups” is the noun and “these” is the demonstrative functioning as the head of the group.

In reference, finally, comparative reference is used when two or more things are compared in a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), comparative reference functions in five types:

1. Identity
2. Similarity
3. Difference

4. Comparison-quality
5. Comparison-quantity

2. Substitution: Another part of the grammatical cohesion is the use of substitutions in a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) indicate that substitution is the replacement of one item by another. Correspondingly, Salkie (1995) asserts that in English there exist some special words contributing to cohesion by means of substituting for the words, which have just been mentioned in the preceding part. As stated by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Salkie (1995), there are three kinds of substitution in English:

1. Nominal substitution: In nominal substitution, the items such as “one, ones, same, etc.” are employed in place of the preceding nouns or word groups.

2. Verbal substitution: In verbal substitution, the words such as “do, does, did, done, etc.” are used to indicate the verbs or verb groups given in the previous sentences.

3. Clausal substitution: In clausal substitution, the items such as “so, not, etc.” are manipulated to refer to the clause in a text.

3. Ellipsis: It is one of the common devices used in grammatical cohesion, which means leaving out a word or phrase rather than repeat it. However, while omitting the word or word group, the writer should know that the excluded part can be reconstructed in a successful way (Cook, 1989). As in substitution, ellipsis has three types in English; noun ellipsis, verb ellipsis and clause ellipsis. In noun ellipsis, the noun or the noun group of the sentence is left out. In verb ellipsis, the verb or verb group is omitted within the sentence. In clause ellipsis, most of the clause is eliminated.

4. Conjunction: The last part of the grammatical cohesion in a text is the use of conjunctions. The term ‘conjunction’, refers generally to the words, which have a conjoining role in grammar. In Salkie’s (1995) framework of text analysis, this

is also called as connectives, which denote some words and phrases used to indicate a specific connection between different parts of a text. In headlines, the use of connectives is rare, but in the texts, the reader encounters many of the connectives since they provide co-ordination among the sentences. Co-ordinating conjunctions and connective adverbs function as cohesive items.

In sum, these are all devices that make the texts coherent and cohesive. Also in daily newspapers these are very important as they assemble the words and sentences to be organized and consistent unit. Realizing this fact, Reah (1998:105) emphasizes that “the patterns of lexical and grammatical cohesion identified in texts help them to form complete, coherent units”.

And this part is intended to display that Halliday’s framework of text analysis depends mainly on revealing the cohesive ties in a text and to show the function of lexical and grammatical items.

3.3.2. THEMATIC STRUCTURES OF TEXTS

In this section, theme and rheme structures are examined in newspaper texts. Theme means the topic or the most emphasized element of the clause. In speaking and writing English, thematic status of expression is clarified by putting it to the initial position in the sentence. Reah (1998) thinks that theme is the first complete word unit. In accordance with his idea, he asserts that in declarative clauses the theme is the subject of the sentence. Halliday (1985) states that the theme is the starting-point for the message. In the terminology of Prague linguistics school (cited in Halliday), the theme is the element functioning in the initial position in a sentence. And the remainder of the message is called as the rheme. Therefore, as a message structure, a clause consists of a theme which is followed by a rheme.

In English the position is the main indicator of the theme and it occupies the initial position. And the theme can be a nominal group, an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase:

e.g. The President gave him a medal.

Theme *Rheme*
(nominal)

He was given a medal by the president

Theme *Rheme*
(nominal)

In these examples, theme is also the subject of the sentence. They are related to nominal group.

e.g. Once upon a time there was a princess.

Theme *Rheme*
(adverbial)

In all likelihood the meeting will be cancelled.

Theme *Rheme*
(prepositional)

In interrogative clauses, the first element is the theme of the sentence. In “wh” questions, the question word functions as the theme:

e.g. Who is the main actor in this play?

Theme *Rheme*

What would you like?

Theme *Rheme*

How many kilometres to Istanbul?

Theme *Rheme*

In yes/no questions, the theme consists of the finite verb; but it also extends over the subject. That is, there are two themes, the auxiliary verb and subject:

e.g. Do you play piano?

Theme Rheme

Will she arrive early?

Theme Rheme

In imperative clauses, the unmarked theme is “you” or “let’s” as in:

e.g. You come here!

Theme Rheme

Let’s dance!

Theme Rheme

In negative imperative clauses, theme is “Don’t”:

e.g. Don’t smoke!

Theme Rheme

Don’t make noise!

Theme Rheme

Sometimes the subject, “you” and “let’s”, can be omitted. So in such sentences the verb functions as theme:

e.g. Take care!

Theme Rheme

Keep calm!

Theme Rheme

Halliday (1985) explains that the theme of a clause includes just one element, and also this element is represented by a constituent in which there is one nominal group, adverbial group or prepositional phrase.

e.g. The head of the Bonn Chancellery agreed to accept the visas.

Theme

Rheme

It is evident in this sentence that the theme consists of two or more elements forming a single complex element.

e.g. The boy and the girl are talking to me.

Theme

Rheme

In the example, there are two nominal groups, “the boy” and “the girl”. These two groups are joined by “and”, thus this makes up a nominal group complex.

In the analysis part of the present study, the concept of theme and rheme structures have been analysed with respect to daily newspaper texts.



CHAPTER IV: THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THE CASE STUDY

4.1 METHODOLOGY AND THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study, as stated before, is to reveal the aspects of newspaper texts by analysing them in the light of the frameworks set by Reah (1998), Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1988), Halliday (1985) and Halliday and Hasan (1976). Also this study concerns two types of newspaper texts: editorials and news reports. The explanations given in the preceding chapters have made it clear that news writing differs from other genres and it can be a useful source for language learners. The deviant forms used in headlines, various lexical items employed by journalists and the syntactic choices made by news writers may be a stimulating force for learners while learning the target language. Considering all these possibilities, the presents study mainly concentrates on the use of language in newspaper texts.

In view of the information presented in the previous chapters some research questions are formulated to discuss the linguistic features used in the newspaper articles and news reports:

1. Do newspaper articles (editorials) have special lexical choices and means to convey their messages effectively?
2. Are there any striking grammatical forms employed by journalists and reporters in the presentation of the news stories (reports)?
3. Do journalists and reporters use cohesive ties while writing the news stories?
4. Is there a framework in the news stories considering the proper presentation of thematic structures according to Halliday's theme-rheme distinction?

The research questions that will be studied in the case study part are also divided into more specific sub-questions as regards the discourse of editorials and news reports. These sub-questions are formulated:

a- Is there a relationship between the headline and the text with regard to the news article?

b- Is there a relationship between the reader and the text?

c- Is there a difference between the use of American and British English?

d- Do the texts involve formal or informal language?

e- Are there the clichés and expressions which are unoriginal and over-used or strongly emotive in the texts?

f- Are there specific grammatical and lexical forms employed in the editorials?

g- Is there a balance in the distribution of actional and relational verbs in the texts?

h- Do the writers compose the newspaper texts by using some tenses and structures more than the others?

i- Do the writers put emphasis on the doer or the place, or the time of while presenting the news according to the theme-rheme structure?

These research questions are examined thoroughly in terms of discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis with the techniques applied by Van Dijk (1988), Bell (1988), Halliday (1985), Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Reah (1998). In the design of the analysis, both editorials and news stories are interpreted considering the ideology, language styles and differentiation between newspaper texts. And also, in the analysis of news reports, the frequency of words is given with the aid of using Oxford Concordance computer program.

4.2 MATERIALS

In this study, two kinds of texts are analysed to find out the answers to the research questions. These texts are editorials and news reports (i.e. news stories). Firstly, editorials are analysed, considering the discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis offered by Reah (1998), Van Dijk (1988) and Bell (1988). The

editorials are chosen from both American and British newspapers with the intention of identifying the differences in the presentation of articles between these two cultures.

Therefore, the first editorial is taken from *The New York Times*, which is a daily American newspaper. The article is written by Marliese Simons. In this newspaper article, the writer discusses a political issue related to the elections held in the Netherlands. It is known that editorials are written to comment on the point at issue and to share the writer's opinion with the reader. Moreover, the writer makes comment on the remarkable news of the day given in the newspaper. Accordingly, in this editorial, the writer says something about the news of the day. The editorial consists of fourteen paragraphs, and a headline named "*Dutch Veer to Right After Candidate's Killing*", leading to the article. This editorial is written in American English, and this aspect is looked at in the case study part.

The second article is taken from *The Guardian*, which is a British daily newspaper. And this editorial is written by Ian Black. This article discusses the same topic with the one presented in *The New York Times*. However, in the second editorial, the writer employs primarily British English as the word and phrase selection. This article is composed of twenty-one paragraphs and a headline called "*Far Right Comes Second in Dutch Poll*". These two editorials are given in the Appendices.

Secondly, three news reports are examined and analysed in respect of text analysis methods constructed by Halliday (1985), Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Reah (1998). These news stories are selected from both Turkish and British newspapers; also the news reports are published on the same day, April 10, 2002, in *Turkish Daily News*, *The Guardian* and *The Times*. All of them discuss the same topic, killing of a British soldier in Afghanistan. While giving the stories, these newspapers do not give any picture or photograph. As will be discussed in the case study part, each of the newspaper approaches the topic from different point of views. These news reports are also presented in the Appendices.

4.3 THE ANALYSIS OF TWO EDITORIALS TAKEN FROM *THE GUARDIAN* AND *THE TIMES*

In this section, the striking features of editorials in terms of the language used in them are looked at. The analysis focuses on the differences between British and American English, idiomatic expressions, phrasal verbs, verb patterns and contextual phrases. The editorials are compared with each other in order to specify the main differences with regard to these issues. Both of the articles discuss the same topic, which is the elections made in the Netherlands after the assassination of a political leader, Pim Fortuyn. At the same time, in these editorials the result of the election is evaluated.

In the editorial of *The New York Times*, the headline of the article is “*DUTCH VEER TO RIGHT AFTER CANDIDATE’S KILLING*”. In the editorial, the headline has the function of summarizing the content of the text. According to the news, a politician of right-wing party had been killed before the elections were made in the country. And after the election, the party of man killed became the second. The editor or the writer, Marlise Simons discusses the incident and the post-election statements and evaluations. When the reader, first of all, looks at the headline, he or she would recognize the elections and the out coming effects of the death of the politician. The same issue is handled in the editorial page of *the Guardian*. But this time, the result of the election is presented in the headline. The headline, which is “*FAR RIGHT COMES SECOND IN DUTCH POLL*”, is related directly to the text. However, the matter of killing is not mentioned; on the other hand as the topic of the headline, ‘*far right*’ is stressed. As expressed in the action containing headlines and headline analysis, the headline refers to the past time, but the writer uses the verb ‘*comes*’, which is the simple present form. In *The New York Times*’s editorial, the similar form is used. The form of the verb ‘*veer*’, is the simple present but its meaning is past. It is quite apparent from the headline of the two editorials that the text is about “Dutch”, “election”, “the death of a politician” and “the success of the right party in the Netherlands”.

In both of the editorials, the writers address to the implied or created reader with whom he or she shares the same values. Writers, in both of the

editorials, do not use direct address in the sense of naming the reader, and there is no use of “you” or even “Guardian readers” or “New York Times readers”. In the editorial of *The New York Times*, the writer does not specify whose voice this is and the article is full of statements made by people. Here, the writer tries to treat the case objectively and remains merely as the narrator of the events.

The reader does not encounter with the voice that comments on the matter, and the writer does not try to impose any ideological stance. The writer expects the reader to have some background information about the poll and the killing of the politician. In *The Guardian*, the writer directs his words at the created or the implied reader that he shares the same values with. As in *The New York Times*’s article, the writer has in mind the fact that the readers have been informed about the death of the politician and the names of the political parties in the Netherlands. For example, in paragraph V he writes “*the free market VVD liberals*”; yet there is no proper explanation of “VVD”.

The writers in both *The Guardian* and *The New York Times* are the speaking voices that wrote their editorials in the context of politics. And there are many political and governmental terms such as “*far right, poll, Labour Party, voting, opposition, coalition, seat, leader, voter, government, liberal member of parliament, Labour, populist, Prime Minister, prosperity, party centre-left coalition, support, election, politics, city council, UN, peacekeeping, politician*” in *The Guardian*, and “*...Right, candidate, politics, parliamentary elections, populist, law-and-order, agenda, party, the conservative, Christian Democrats, coalition, government, election, right-wing, animal rights, leader, seat, power, Prime minister, The Labour Party, politics, economy, unemployment, the left-center-right coalition, deputy leader, leftist, racist, and fascist*” in *The New York Times*. These words are important in the editorials due to the fact that the readers would realize seriousness of the articles and topics, and they also understand that the writers reflect the realistic side of the issue related to the news. The number of occurrences of the words is given below (the frequency of each word is given in the Appendices):

Table 4.3.1. The number of occurrences of political and governmental words:

| NEWSPAPER | TOTAL NUMBER |
|---------------------------|--------------|
| <i>The Guardian</i> | 23 |
| <i>The New York Times</i> | 28 |

As to the linguistic techniques and language used in the editorials, there are some differences between *The Guardian* and *The New York Times*. One of the differences stems from the use of American and British English in these articles. In the editorial of *The New York Times*, there are lots of informal and idiomatic expressions; and also, the use of phrasal verb is more than the editorial of *The Guardian*.

The number of occurrences of phrasal verb in *The New York Times* is higher than that in *The Guardian*. In the articles of both *The Guardian* and *The New York Times*, these results were found and given in the following table:

Table 4.3.2. The number of occurrences of phrasal verbs in the editorials

| NEWSPAPER | TOTAL NUMBER |
|--------------------|--------------|
| THE NEW YORK TIMES | 5 |
| THE GUARDIAN | 3 |

The sentences including these phrasal verbs are given below:

e.g. ...*Dutch politics took a startling swing to the right in parliamentary elections as followers of the slain populist Pim Fortuyn turned out in force today to push his anti-immigrant and law-and-order agenda.* (Paragraph I, line 2, *The New York Times*)

...*This week, though, when asked about his philosophy, he cracked that he was reading up on Harry Potter.* (Paragraph VIII, line 17, *The New York Times*)

...The two-term prime minister, who had become a familiar and respected figure both in Dutch and politics, announced last year that he would step down as party leader and not run again. (Paragraph IX, line 22, *The New York Times*)

...Hovering above the crowd was an enormous portrait of the party's slain founder, whom leftist political opponents and news outlets had called a racist, a fascist and worse before he was gunned down. (Paragraph XIV, line 36, *The New York Times*)

...The left-center-right coalition had made for stable politics, but also for endless back room dealing in which real political debate was shifted... (Paragraph XI, line 27, *The New York Times*)

...Crowds were still gathered outside the gay populist's home in central Rotterdam as polling got under way with withered bunches of flowers piled in the courtyard... (Paragraph VI, line 14, *The Guardian*)

...But support for Labour fell away as polls showed mounting irritation over hospital waiting lists... (Paragraph X, line 21, *The Guardian*)

...Many Dutchmen, even those who oppose him, view his contribution as having shaken up remote and complacent... (Paragraph XIV, line 30, *The Guardian*)

According to these results, it is clear that American newspapers use phrasal verbs much more than the British newspapers.

Another language feature attributed to the editorials or newspaper articles is that both of the editorials employ idiomatic expressions and the informal use of language. For instance, in *The Guardian*, the writer makes use of expressions like “reached out from the grave...” (reanimated), “crowds” (people), “pundits” (experts), “fuelled worries” etc.. However, in *The New York Times*, the article writer uses the expressions such as “...took a startling swing to the right...” ,

“...cracked...” (to utter a joke), “back room” (in secret), “wake-up-call” , “to play a key role” (crucial), “horse trading” (clever bargaining or business dealing), “sharp wit” (very clever), “painful blow” (sudden shock), “run” (to continue), “tight circle”, “dressed in black mourning clothes”, “won a seat” (got into Parliament) and “single-handedly” (alone or on his own). These expressions occur in the following sentences:

e.g. ...*Pim Fortuyn, the murdered Dutch anti-immigrant politician, reached out from the grave last night to capture joint-second place in his country's general election as the ruling Labour Party suffered a humiliating meltdown, according to the exit polls.* (Paragraph I, line 1, *The Guardian*)

...*Crowds were still gathered outside the gay populist's home in central Rotterdam as polling got under way, with withered bunches of flowers piled in the courtyard and messages of support taped to the railings.* (Paragraph VII, line 14, *The Guardian*)

...*With Dutch pundits calling the election the most unpredictable in living memory...* (Paragraph XI, line 23, *The Guardian*)

...*The flamboyant Fortuyn fuelled worries across Europe that racism and xenophobia-behind Jean Marie Le Pen's startling...* (Paragraph XII, line 25, *The Guardian*)

...*Dutch politics took a startling swing to the right in parliamentary elections as followers of the slain populist Pim Fortuyn turned out in force to push his anti-immigrant and law-and-order agenda.* (Paragraph I, line 1, *The New York Times*)

...*This week, though, when asked about his philosophy, he cracked that he was reading up on Harry Potter.* (Paragraph VII, line 17, *The New York Times*)

...The left-center-right coalition had made for stable politics, but also for endless back room dealing in which real political debate was stifled. (Paragraph XI, line 27, *The New York Times*)

... "This is a wake-up call that affects all of us," said Maria van der Hoeven, deputy leader of the Christian Democrats. (Paragraph XII, line 30, *The New York Times*)

...It is now likely to play a key role in the new coalition government. (Paragraph II, line 4, *The New York Times*)

...It is likely to take days or weeks of horse trading over policies and ministerial jobs to form a coalition government. (Paragraph V, line 11, *The New York Times*)

...He is known for his sharp wit and conservative moral values about which he has written extensively... (Paragraph VII, line 16, *The New York Times*)

...Friends said that it was a painful blow for Mr. Kok, 62... (Paragraph IX, line 21, *The New York Times*)

...The two term prime minister, who had become a familiar and respected figure both in Dutch and European politics, announced last year that he would step down as party leader and not run again. (Paragraph IX, line 23, *The New York Times*)

...As a result, the government was seen as a tight circle of managers too distant from people's daily concerns. (Paragraph XI, line 28, *The New York Times*)

...Party faithful cheered as their huge success became known, but many were dressed in black mourning clothes. (Paragraph XIII, line 34, The New York Times)

...one of his followers who won a seat. (Paragraph XV, line 37, The New York Times)

... "This was his work. He created this party practically single-handedly in less than three months." (Paragraph XV, line 38, The New York Times)

As demonstrated in the examples given above, most probably, the writers of the editorials put the idiomatic expressions into operation in order to create an atmosphere in which the writer makes the narration more effective.

Another important fact to be stressed here is that the differences between American and British English are observed in both of the editorials. *The New York Times* is an American daily newspaper; therefore, the words and expressions are selected from American English. *The Guardian* is a British newspaper and the language used in it is British English. In terms of vocabulary, sometimes different words are used for the same idea. The differences identified in these editorials are as follows:

e.g. *Dutch politics took...as the followers of the slain populist Pim Fortuyn... (Paragraph I, line 2, The New York Times).*

...The Labor party of the Dutch prime minister ... (Paragraph VIII, line 19, The New York Times).

...The left-center-right coalition had made for stable politics, but also for endless back room... (Paragraph XI, line 27, The New York Times).

...Among the most common...and even angry with the cozy world of consensus politics... (Paragraph XI, line 26, The New York Times).

As seen in these examples, the words are used in American English. However, in *The Guardian* these words are used in British English:

e.g. *Pim Fortuyn, the murdered Dutch anti-immigrant politician, reached out from the grave...* (Paragraph I, line 1, *The Guardian*).

... *Labour also got 24 seats, down from...* (Paragraph III, line 7, *The Guardian*).

... *Wim Kok, the outgoing Labour prime minister, urged voters to choose "sensibly", reminding...by his three-party centre, left coalition.* (Paragraph IX, line 20, *The Guardian*).

And below the differences between *The New York Times* and *The Guardian* are given regarding the use of American-British English:

| US (AMERICAN ENGLISH) | GB (BRITISH ENGLISH) |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| Slain | Killed - Murdered |
| Labor | Labour |
| Center | Centre |
| Cozy | Cosy |

In the narration of the story, the article writer of *The New York Times* dramatizes the events much more than that of *The Guardian*. For instance, the opening paragraph of the editorial is very effective: "*Dutch politics took a startling swing to the right in parliamentary elections as followers of the slain populist Pim Fortuyn turned out in force today to push his anti-immigrant and law-and-order agenda.*" In both of the editorials, Pim Fortuyn's killing is presented as "*assassination*", which is a sensational word.

As for the grammatical form, in both *The Guardian* and *The New York Times*, there is the use of reported speech. And the texts are full of direct speech. The use of direct speech in the newspaper supports the idea that the writer tries to remain objective and to make the events credible. On the other hand, while giving

extra or detailed information, the news writers make use of reported speeches. In almost all of the newspapers, there are many sentences including reported speeches in order to give explanations made by people. The number of occurrence of the sentences containing reported speeches in the editorials is given below:

Table 4.3.3 The number of occurrences of direct speeches in the editorials:

| NEWSPAPER | TOTAL NUMBER |
|---------------------------|--------------|
| <i>The Guardian</i> | 3 |
| <i>The New York Times</i> | 2 |

These direct speeches occur in the following examples:

e.g. "Good luck, You have my vote," promised one of many such notes. (Paragraph VII, line 16, *The Guardian*).

... "I didn't like his ideas and I won't be voting for him," said Rob Harmsen, a 23-year old student, "but he shouldn't have been killed..." (Paragraph VIII, lines 17-18, *The Guardian*).

... "I hope this election will give the other parties the strength to reform things so there will be a fundamental change in Dutch politics." Said Michiel Smit, a Rotterdam city council LPF member. (Paragraph XV, lines 32-33, *The Guardian*).

... "This is a wake-up call that affects all of us," said Maria van der Hoeven... (Paragraph XII, line 30, *The New York Times*).

... "I'm very moved that we are celebrating this without Pim," said Ferry Hoogendijk... (Paragraph XV, line 37, *The New York Times*).

According to Reah's framework (1998) related to the analysis of editorials, there are some steps to be followed. One of the steps is whether the editorials

reveal the idea of imposing the reader a kind of shared values. In *The Guardian's* editorial, the writer explains some of the facts that are related to the death of Pim Fortuyn, the place of his party in the poll and the effects of the poll in the Netherlands. In the editorial, the writer states that the right-wing party became successful after the killing of its former leader but he remains objective and avoids stating his own ideology and ideas. In *The New York Times*, the editorial presents the panorama of the elections in the Netherlands and discusses its effects in the arena of the world. The writer evaluates these realities and gathers together the stated ideas.

In both of the articles, the writers appeal to the readers with whom they share the values. But the name of the groups is not mentioned; therefore it is understood clearly that the writers aim at directing their words at the people who are in possession of the facts about events that happened in the Netherlands, the murder of the rightist politician, Pim Fortuyn.

As indicated in the previous parts, Van Dijk (1988) analyses the editorials with reference to the ideology. Yet, in these editorials, the writers evaluate the news of the day, and they remain objective in the evaluation.

4.4 THE ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL AND SYNTACTIC ITEMS IN NEWSPAPERS

In this section of the case study, three newspaper stories (reports) are analysed to answer research questions II and III. Thus, this analysis covers Reah's (1998) framework as identified in the background part. On the other hand, Halliday's (1985) and Halliday and Hasan's (1976) methods of text analysis are employed in the lexical and syntactic study of the texts. As stated in the methodology part, the news reports are selected from *The Guardian*, *Turkish Daily New* and *The Times*. They are all published on the 10th of April, 2002.

In the analysis of these three newspaper texts, vocabulary, grammar and some linguistic techniques are studied and analysed according to the criteria mentioned in the previous sections. Considering the lexical and syntactic structures in these texts, the lexical section comprises the words and selection of

these words, also the repetitions, word plays and spot clichés. Furthermore, the analysis of the frequency counts of the words was carried out by using Oxford Micro-concord Concordance program. The analysis of syntax includes verbs and verb patterns, the choice of verbs, tenses and some grammatical structures

4.4.1 LEXICAL ANALYSIS OF THE NEWS REPORTS

In both of the three newspaper articles, the events (i.e. news) are given directly to the reader as understood from the headlines of the news stories. According to the information presented in the headlines, a British soldier who was in patrol or on duty in Afghanistan was killed accidentally. This occasion is presented in different ways in the newspaper texts:

Table 4.4.1.1 The presentation of headlines in the news stories

| Newspapers | Agent/Affected | Verb | Circumstance |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| <i>The Guardian</i> | British soldier | Shot dead | In Kabul patrol accident |
| <i>The Times</i> | British soldier | Dies | On Kabul patrol |
| <i>Turkish Daily News</i> | British Peacekeeper | Shot | In Afghan Capital |

In newspapers, as stated in the previous parts, the reporter or the journalist makes use of some devices to create an impressive manner of making over the news story (Reah, 1998). According to Reah's (1998) framework, the naming of the person is such a device in which the journalist presents the name of the people in a different and striking way. In *The Times* and *The Guardian*, the affected is named as "British Soldier"; whereas, in *Turkish Daily News* as "British Peacekeeper". This is due to the fact that British people (newspaper readers) are aware of their soldiers' existence in Afghanistan. That is, the news writer need not

explain or give detailed information about the names. While presenting such an event to the reader, *Turkish Daily News* implies that there are British soldiers as peacekeepers in Afghanistan, and thus regards and presents them as “*British Peacekeeper*” in its headline. Additionally, the name of the place where the soldier was shot is written in different ways. *Turkish Daily News* reveals the name of the place as “*Afghan capital*” in the news report. *The Guardian* writes the name as “*in Kabul*” in its headline and “*in Afghanistan*” in the news report. *The Times* gives the reader the name of the place where the events happen as “*on Kabul*” in its headline and “*Afghanistan*” in the news report.

In newspapers, lexical choice is very significant while presenting a news story. In all of the three news reports, the selection of words determines the writer’s own vision of the incident. For instance, *The Guardian* uses the verb, “*shot dead and killed*” as in the below sentence:

e.g. *A British soldier was accidentally shot and killed during a patrol in Kabul yesterday, making him the first British casualty of the international peacekeeping force in Afghanistan.* (Paragraph I, line 2, *The Guardian*).

At the same time, *The Times* employs the verb “*died*” as below:

e.g. *A British peacekeeper died last night after being accidentally shot in the head while serving in Afghanistan.* (Paragraph I, lines 1-2, *The Times*).

And *Turkish Daily News* utilizes the verbs “*shot and wounded*” as in the example given below:

e.g. *A British peacekeeping soldier was shot and seriously wounded while on a patrol in a crime-infested area of the Afghan capital on Tuesday, a military spokesman said.* (Paragraph I, line 2, *Turkish Daily News*)

It is also clear from the articles that there are different evaluations of the death of the soldier. Both *The Guardian* and *The Times* see the killing as an

accident by using the words, “*accidentally, casualty, accident*”. However, *Turkish Daily News* regards the event as serious by using the phrases “*seriously wounded*” and “*crime*”.

On the other hand, these three newspaper reports contain the same terminology which is “military”. The writer uses many military terms in their news stories as in:

The Times:

| | | | |
|----------|--------------|--------------|-----------|
| soldier | marines | hospital | to size |
| military | to patrol | leaders | to shoot |
| patrol | colonel | lieutenant | shooting |
| border | combat | missions | team |
| casualty | to discharge | officers | terrorist |
| ISAF | to fire | peacekeepers | to wound |
| | | | to seize |

Turkish Daily News:

| | | | |
|----------|------------|--------------|-----------|
| forces | border | patrols | reprisals |
| ISAF | casualty | peacekeepers | warlords |
| security | fire | peacekeeping | to wound |
| military | lieutenant | police | outbreak |
| alliance | armed | militant | |

The Guardian:

| | | | |
|--------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| force | regiment | rocket | combat |
| peacekeeper | security | shooting | discharge |
| soldier | army | troops | to explode |
| ISAF | colonel | airbase | to fire |
| Royal | duty | attackers | gunshot |
| shot | guerrillas | attack | wound |
| military | gun | bugles | lieutenant |
| patrol | police | casualty | to mandate |
| peacekeeping | militia | | |

And the number of occurrences of these words is given in Table 4.4.1.2:

Table 4.4.1.2 The percentages of military terms in the news stories:

| NEWSPAPER | TOTAL WORDS | MILITARY WORDS | RATE |
|---------------------------|-------------|----------------|---------|
| <i>THE TIMES</i> | 319 | 59 | 18.49 % |
| <i>TURKISH DAILY NEWS</i> | 274 | 47 | 17.45 % |
| <i>THE GUARDIAN</i> | 573 | 85 | 14.83 % |

Nearly, one fifth of the texts include military terms as the topic is related to this issue. This shows that the content of the news has an important function in lexical choice.

4.4.2 SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF THE NEWS REPORTS

As previously pointed out, the syntactic analysis of newspapers is related to the structure of newspaper language. Therefore, the three different newspaper articles, published in *The Guardian*, *The Times* and *Turkish Daily News*, are examined with regard to their grammatical structures.

In the three newspaper articles, there are lots of actional and relational verbs. According to the statements given in section 3.1.2, actional verbs are main verbs affecting the actor or the agent. Relational verbs refer to the auxiliary verb or “to be” form in English (Reah, 1998). In the first paragraphs of the texts, all the verbs are actional.

e.g. *A British soldier was accidentally shot and killed during a patrol in Kabul yesterday, making him the first...* (Paragraph I, lines 1-2, *The Guardian*)

In the sentence taken from the news report of *The Guardian*, the main verbs are “shoot” and “kill” which are in their passive forms. Also they are actional because there is an affected subject in the sentence. In fact, there is an agent, but it is omitted in this sentence. These verbs are both transactive and passive.

However, the use of relational verbs is rare in *The Guardian*'s article. In paragraph IX, “...but until yesterday there had been no casualties.”, there is a relational verb which reveals attribute and equal state. Here the main verb is “to be”, which is in its perfect form.

e.g. *A British peacekeeping soldier was shot and seriously wounded while on a patrol in a crime-infested area of..* (Paragraph I, line 2, *Turkish Daily News*)

In this quotation from the news report of *Turkish Daily News*, the main verbs are actional. The verbs “to shoot” and “to wound” are actional, transactive and passive.

In the whole text in *Turkish Daily News*, there are relational verbs such as:

e.g. *The soldiers, mainly ethnic Tajiks from hundreds of miles away in northern Afghanistan near the border with the former Soviet republics, are followers of local warlord..”* (Paragraph VI, line 36, *Turkish Daily News*).

In the news report of *The Times*, the first paragraph contains actional verb:

e.g. *A British peacekeeper died last night after being accidentally...*
(Paragraph I, line 1, *The Times*)

In this extract, the main verb is “to die”. Also, throughout the text, actional verbs are very dominant and used much more than relational verbs.

While analysing the syntactic structures, the tense used in the text is very important since there are strong links between tense and verbs. While telling the previous day's events, the dominant time form is the past.

As seen in the tables below, the prominent tense form in both of the three articles is the past tense. The results show the number of occurrences of different tenses in the news reports written in each newspaper:

Table 4.4.2.1 The number of occurrences of tense forms in *The Guardian*:

| TENSE | TOTAL | RATE |
|---------|-------|---------|
| PAST | 35 | 76.09 % |
| PRESENT | 10 | 21.74 % |
| FUTURE | 1 | 2.17 % |
| TOTAL | 46 | 100 % |

Table 4.4.2.2 The number of occurrences of tense forms in *Turkish Daily News*:

| TENSE | TOTAL | RATE |
|---------|-------|-------|
| PAST | 16 | 64 % |
| PRESENT | 7 | 28 % |
| FUTURE | 2 | 8 % |
| TOTAL | 25 | 100 % |

Table 4.4.2.3 The number of occurrences of tense forms in *The Times*:

| TENSE | TOTAL | RATE |
|---------|-------|--------|
| PAST | 23 | 69.6 % |
| PRESENT | 10 | 30.4 % |
| TOTAL | 33 | 100 % |

A comparison of the results will clearly reveal that *The Guardian* mostly includes the past tense. This is because of the fact that while giving the information about the incident, the death of the British soldier, the writer also gives the reader

background information related to the former issues about the death of British soldiers. The last four paragraphs demonstrate that *The Guardian* presents the news in a more detailed way than the other two. The writer employs past tense while narrating the incident. However, the speeches are in the form of present tense, since they are given as “reported speeches”. In *The Times*, the news writer composes the news by using the past tense but the writer in this report does not give the reader background information. Therefore, he focuses on the core of the event. Similarly, the present tense is used only in the reported speeches. In *Turkish Daily News*, the past tense is used mostly in telling the event. But this newspaper extract does not give the details, and the writer mentions the other dimension of the killing scene such as the recent actions linked to Afghanistan and the Taliban soldiers. As a result of this, the use of present tense is much more than the other British newspapers.

Both of the newspaper reports present the action with the use of passive constructions. For instance, in *The Guardian*, both the headline and the first paragraph are in passive form as, “*British soldier was accidentally shot and killed..*” Again in *Turkish Daily News*, the news writer uses passive construction in both the headline and the first paragraph which summarize the whole text because the verbs in these sentences are “*to shoot*” and “*to kill*”. In these verbs, there must be a doer. That is, shooting is done by someone, or someone shoots somebody. Similarly, killing is done by someone, or someone kills somebody. But in this incident, the doer is uncertain, and hence the writer has to write the verbs in the passive voice. It is evident from these examples that the passive voice is used when the doer or the subject of the active clause is uncertain. *The Times* includes different verbs in the headline and the first paragraph of the text. The verb is in active form because the verb “*die*” is intransitive; thus, it is used only in active voice. The results of the number of occurrences of active and passive verbs included in the three news reports are presented in Table 4.4.2.4:

Table 4.4.2.4 The number of occurrences of active and passive verbs in the news reports:

| NEWSPAPER | ACTIVE | PASSIVE |
|---------------------------|--------|---------|
| <i>THE TIMES</i> | 9 | 24 |
| <i>THE GUARDIAN</i> | 18 | 28 |
| <i>TURKISH DAILY NEWS</i> | 6 | 19 |

The three news reports contain many missing back-referents. For instance, in *The Times*, “*The Royal Anglian Regiment*” is a missing back-referent since the reader in the international arena may not know about what is “*the Royal Anglian Regiment*”. There is no detailed information. Moreover in paragraph VI, “*ISAF*” is a missing back-referent because there is not any proper form of the word, and the readers are not informed about meaning and the function of “*ISAF*”. In *The Guardian*, the missing back-referents are “*the 1st Royal Anglian regiment*” and “*Royal Irish Regiment*”. The missing back-referents reflect the assumption of shared knowledge between the writer and reader.

In the news reports of *The Times*, *The Guardian* and *Turkish Daily News*, there are different styles of sentence and paragraph coordination. In *Turkish Daily News*, first of all, there is a headline functioning as the summary of the whole news report. In the first paragraph, the writer reveals the incident briefly, and the second paragraph presents the detailed information about the events to the reader. And the writer uses directly the explanations and comments (through reported speeches) made by the authorities as in the following example:

e.g. *Lieutenant-Colonel Neal Peckham, the British military spokesman for the multi-national International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), said the matter was under investigation by British military police and “did not involve any party outside of ISAF”.* (Paragraph II, lines 5-6-7, *Turkish Daily News*).

These explanations carry vitally important facts due to the reflection of realities and the objectivity of the writer. In this paragraph, there is a statement

made by Lieutenant-Colonel Neal Peckham. However, in the rest of the paragraph, the writer discusses other facts which are not related directly to the topic that he presents. This is done because there is not any detailed information about the death of the soldier, and also the writer does not observe directly the incident but informed by agencies. However, in *The Guardian* and *The Times*, the writers observe the incident in Kabul and give the reader detailed information about the death of the soldier and background events related to the killing. In *The Times* and *The Guardian*, there is unity and coherence among the paragraphs. There are lots of details about the event since these are British newspapers and the readers would be interested in the death of the British soldier. At the same time, there are explanatory sentences and statements made by the authorities. This reflects the idea that the writer is objective.

In conclusion, the same event, “the death of British soldier in Afghanistan”, is penetrated in the news reports of *The Guardian*, *The Times* and *Turkish Daily News*. It is clear from the analysis that there are certain differences in terms of writing the headline, choosing the words, determining the active-passive structure and the choice of verb. Also, it is evident from the analysis that journalists have different techniques in presenting the news.

4.5 TEXT ANALYSIS OF THE NEWS REPORTS

In this part, Halliday’s (1985) and Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) frameworks are applied to the three newspaper reports. However, the present analysis is limited to the concept of cohesion in these texts. That is, throughout the analysis, Halliday’s method for the analysis of cohesion in the texts is studied. As indicated in section 3.3, cohesion in a written text is achieved by the ties, which indicate the relation between the sentences. The analysis of the cohesion is carried out in accordance with the coding scheme of cohesion, which is developed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). In this coding scheme, each type of cohesive item is codified with respect to its classification. For instance, reference has the code of ‘R’, and the types of references are assigned numbers. The summary and the coding scheme are given in the Appendices.

As for the results drawn from the text analysis of three news reports, the analysis is displayed in the coding scheme. The results of the analysis and the cohesive ties are given in the tables in the Appendices.

It is evident from the results that the cohesive items and ties provide the cohesion in these texts. The number of the occurrences of the cohesive ties is presented below:

Table 4.5.1 The number of the occurrences of the cohesive ties

| NEWSPAPER | TOTAL | LEXICAL | % | GRAMMATICAL | % |
|---------------------------|-------|---------|--------|-------------|--------|
| <i>The Guardian</i> | 65 | 30 | 46.153 | 35 | 53.847 |
| <i>Turkish Daily News</i> | 34 | 13 | 38.235 | 21 | 61.765 |
| <i>The Times</i> | 33 | 16 | 48.484 | 17 | 51.516 |

According to these results, in these news reports, there are more grammatical cohesive items than the lexical cohesive ones. The number of lexical ties shows that re-iterations are used in the texts. For example, in the sentences given below, the writer employs the re-iteration:

e.g. *Military investigators are trying to discover, how the soldier, from The royal Anglian Regiment, was shot while he was taking part in a patrol with Afghan police in Kabul. A military source said: we are not sure.... one of the Afghan Police who were patrolling with them.* (Paragraphs II and III, lines 7-11, *The Times*)

In the example, “Afghan police” is repeated in the second sentence. The total number of repetition is sixteen in *The Times*. And the word “soldier” is repeated four times in the text.

In *The Guardian*, “peacekeeper” and “soldier” are the most repeated lexical items. For instance:

e.g. *It is not clear if the attackers... disgruntled at the peacekeepers disrupting their criminal moonlighting. The peacekeepers were deployed in Kabul...* (Paragraphs XII and XIII, lines 71-73, *The Guardian*)

It is evident from these sentences that the word “peacekeepers” is repeated in the following sentence.

In *Turkish Daily News*, “ISAF” is the most repeated lexical item as in the below:

e.g. *Lieutenant-Colonel Neal Peckham, ... International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), said the matter was under investigation by British military police and “did not” involve any party outside of ISAF.* (Paragraph II, lines 11-14, *Turkish Daily News*)

On the other hand, lexical cohesion is achieved by the use of synonyms, superordinates, and general nouns in these texts. For example, in *Turkish Daily News* the word “Afghan capital” is used as the synonym of “Kabul” in the text as in:

e.g. *A British peacekeeping soldier... of the Afghan capital... since the peacekeepers arrived in Kabul...* (Paragraphs I and IV, lines 4-20, *Turkish Daily News*)

Grammatical cohesion in these news reports is provided with the use of reference, substitution, conjunction and ellipsis. In all these stories, reference is used mostly. Substitution is employed less than the other cohesive ties. Table 4.5.2 presents the distribution of the grammatical cohesive items in the three news reports:

Table 4.5.2 The distribution of the grammatical cohesive items

| NEWSPAPER | REFERENCE | ELLIPSIS | CONJUNCTION | SUBSTITUTION |
|---------------------------|-----------|----------|-------------|--------------|
| <i>The Guardian</i> | 26 | 6 | 3 | 0 |
| <i>Turkish Daily News</i> | 15 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
| <i>The Times</i> | 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

In the first paragraph of both *The Guardian* and *Turkish Daily News*, verbal ellipsis is used as in the following examples:

e.g. *A British peacekeeping soldier was shot and seriously wounded while on a patrol in a crime infested area of the Afghan capital on Tuesday, a military spokesman said.* (Paragraph I, lines 1-2, *Turkish Daily News*)

...*A British soldier was accidentally shot and killed during a patrol in Kabul yesterday, making him the first British casualty of the international peacekeeping force in Afghanistan.* (Paragraph I, lines 1-2, *The Guardian*)

In the first example, the auxiliary verb “was” and the subject of the verb are left out. This is verbal ellipsis. “Wounded” in this sentence is related to operator, “a British peacekeeping soldier”. At the same time, in the second example, the operator, “a British soldier” is omitted. And also this is verbal ellipsis in grammatical cohesion.

4.6 THE ANALYSIS OF THEMATIC STRUCTURES IN THE NEWS REPORTS

Thematic structures in texts, as expressed in the background sections, are named as theme and rheme. Theme is used for the initial position in the sentence; rheme is used for the final position in the sentence.

In the analysis of theme and rheme structures of the news reports, the following results given in Table 4.6.1 were found according to different types of items occupying the initial position:

Table 4.6.1 The distribution of theme structures in the news reports

| NEWSPAPER | NOMINAL | ADVERBIAL | PREPOSITIONAL |
|---------------------------|---------|-----------|---------------|
| <i>The Guardian</i> | 20 | 2 | 3 |
| <i>The Times</i> | 14 | 1 | 2 |
| <i>Turkish Daily News</i> | 12 | 3 | 0 |
| TOTAL | 46 | 6 | 5 |

In theme structures, it is clear from the results given above that all the subjects of the sentences are in the nominal position as shown in the following examples:

e.g. *A British soldier* was accidentally shot and killed during a patrol in Kabul yesterday, making him the first British casualty of the international Peacekeeping force in Afghanistan. (Paragraph I, line 1, *The Guardian*)

...*Shopkeepers* found similar threats chalked on their shutters. (Paragraph XI, line 61, *Turkish Daily News*)

...Military investigators are trying to discover how the soldier, from *The Royal Anglian Regiment*, was shot while he was taking part in a patrol with Afghan police in Kabul. (Paragraph II, line 4, *The Times*)

In these examples, the theme structures are the subjects of the sentences. In *The Guardian*, the theme structure is “A British soldier”, which functions as the subject in the sentence. In *Turkish Daily News*, “Shopkeepers” is the theme functioning as the subject in the sentence. Finally, in *The Times*, “Military investigators” is the theme and subject of the sentence.

The adverbial groups are also in the position of theme in the sentences. In the news reports these are displayed in these examples:

e.g. Meanwhile, handwritten leaflets are circulating in southern Afghanistan warning people of reprisals if they help track down Taliban or al_Qaeda militants, residents said on Tuesday. (Paragraph VIII, line 43, *Turkish Daily News*)

...Last month three Danish and two German peacekeepers were killed when a Soviet-era rocket they were dismantling exploded. (Paragraph XIV, line 100, *The Guardian*)

... “While the matter is under full investigation by the Royal Military Police, we are satisfied that this regrettable incident did not involve any party outside Isaf.” (Paragraph VII, line 31, *The Times*)

In these examples, the themes of the sentences are adverbs. The adverbials “meanwhile” in *Turkish Daily News*, “Last month”, in *The Guardian* and in while *The Times* operate as the theme. This means that the writer wants to draw the attention of the reader to the time or to the situation in these examples since the emphasised items have the theme function in the sentences.

In *The Times* and *The Guardian*, there are prepositional phrases which are the theme structures of the related sentences as in:

e.g. *In one, a team seized several caves close to the Pakistan border that are thought to have been used by key al-Qaeda network figures.* (Paragraph VIII, lines 38-39, *The Times*)

...Between eight and 12 troops of the 1st Royal Anglian regiment, based in Pirbright, Surrey, were crossing open ground south-west of Barjay, a crime-riddled suburb in western Kabul, at 10.50 am logical time, when the soldier received a gunshot wound to the head. (Paragraph III, line 14, *The Guardian*)

The emphasis is on the prepositional phrase, and the writer wants to stress the importance of these words.

In sum, these structures serve as an orienting function in the sentences presented in the news reports. By giving the word or word group, the writer indicates the importance and the stress in the sentences.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

6.1 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE CASE STUDY

The present study casts light on the issues related to the language of newspapers, particularly the construction of headlines, editorials and news stories. And this study aims at revealing and displaying the linguistic devices, lexical and syntactic forms used in these texts. In fact, lexical and syntactic items are of significance with regard to communicating the message and attracting the reader. On the other hand, these are also important in imposing the writer's opinion and ideology.

As seen in the previous sections of the study, the language employed in daily newspapers is rather different from that in the other written texts. And the items, such as lexical and syntactic ones, are peculiar to the language of newspapers, in which the words selected by the writers are short, effective and attractive. The language used in newspapers is different from the other texts. The samples of headlines, analysed in the headline section, demonstrate that the difference occurs mostly in the presentation of headlines in newspapers as their aim is to attract the reader to the article and news story, and to give brief information about the content of the article.

In the light of the results, the findings of the present study can be summarized as follows:

- Newspaper articles or editorials have special lexical choices while delivering their messages. Lexical choice, to some extent, reveals the intention or the ideology of the writer. Additionally, determination of the context of the text has an effect on the word choice. For instance, in the editorials analysed in the case study part, political and governmental terminology is used. In a way, culture is influential upon the choice of lexical items. *The New York Times* is an American newspaper; *The Guardian* is a British newspaper. The writers of each newspaper make use of American and British English. In the editorials, news writers use idiomatic expressions, informal style, jocular expressions and phrases

while making comments. On the other hand, words employed in these editorials are selected to express a value judgement of the writers (e.g. "anti-immigrant politician", 'populist').

- There are striking grammatical forms in the presentation of the news reports. Journalists or reporters mostly employ the form of past tense while narrating the events. This is because of the idea that newspapers are written to give information about the bygone days' or yesterday's events. Thus, in the three news reports, the dominant tense form is the past. Along with the tense structure, passive voice is used, and the importance is on the affected and the action. Also, the writers in the news reports make use of direct or indirect reported speeches in order to make the events credible.
- Journalists or reporters use cohesive ties while writing the news stories. In the news reports, there are many lexical and grammatical cohesive items which provide unity, harmony and cohesion in these texts. Lexical items include repetitions of the words in which synonyms, superordinates and re-iterated items are used.
- In the presentation of news stories, the initial words or word groups of the sentences constitute the theme of the sentences. And these theme structures give the importance and the stress of the expressed item. The writer puts emphasis on the doer mostly, when presenting the news according to the theme-rheme structure.

In conclusion, the present study on the language of newspapers demonstrates the fact that the use of language is quite effective on the formation and organization of the editorials and news stories.

5.2 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Most of the teachers of English have been in an effort to broaden their students' horizons by employing the current events, technologies and the real materials, apart from the course books. Newspaper texts are such items, which have been considered important in both reading and speaking courses because of the fact that they are usually short in length, predictable in style and advantageous in timing. Besides, such materials are easy to find in anywhere. These texts are available all over the world, and also they can be brought to the classroom as the sample of authentic English material as these texts are written by native speakers of English. These materials also contribute to critical thinking and the problem solving. In all language programs, newspapers are accepted as effective language-learning instruments, which include not only the news stories, but also small ads (classified ads), advertisements, sports news, reader's letters, weather reports and TV programs. Newspapers which present the value system of a country have the role of bringing the foreign culture into the EFL classrooms.

Using the newspapers in language classrooms contributes to the language teaching process positively. The manipulation of newspapers helps learners gain confidence by a series of activities connected with newspapers. According to Williams and Burdens (1997), students find the newspapers motivating and stimulating since they learn new things about the modern world while practising and acquiring English. Bringing these texts into the classroom as teaching materials would also enable students to realize that they can actually read newspapers in English.

Everybody that has studied and learned a foreign language finds reading newspapers difficult and complicated because there are lots of unknown words, phrases and even complex structures. And also, newspapers have different use of language from the other written texts or materials. They have their own style and presentation in the process of giving the readers the news and the message. As explained and discussed in the earlier parts of the present study, the news writer makes use of many linguistic devices, journalistic expressions and idioms with the aim of attracting and appealing to the readers' senses. Additionally, news writers

are obliged to give their messages in short and clear ways. These are all the reasons why newspapers carry slight differences in the use of language, and they are difficult to read and understand.

In this case, teachers have the role of acting as “mediators” to help their students overcome these difficulties in reading and understanding these materials (Bermejo, 2000).

As expressed before, reading newspaper is very problematic for EFL students. For learners think that the language used in English newspapers is difficult. Infact the problem arises from the fact that they have not been taught how to read English newspapers in language classrooms. Thus, in order to prevent learners from having such difficulties, the language teacher should familiarize the students with the main features of newspapers. That is, students should be given some background information about the organization of the news, the characteristics of news writing like journalistic use of words and some linguistic devices employed in newspapers. Then the students may read English newspapers easily for their own sake with the help of dictionary.

On the other hand, these difficulties can also be reduced to a minimum level through the practical classroom activities. Some of these activities are listed below:

1. Turkish students in EFL courses undoubtedly read Turkish newspapers, and they know what they can expect from them. Thus, two kinds of newspapers are taken to the classroom. The first one is a Turkish newspaper and the second is an English newspaper. But these newspapers should be published on the same day. The teacher can first give the Turkish version of the news to the students. Afterwards, students can see the English version of the news, and are asked to compare these two texts. The teacher can ask students to find the unknown words and to make prediction about the meaning of these words by keeping in mind the Turkish version of the story. Thus, the students would develop their ability of critical thinking and vocabulary.

2. Conducting jigsaw activities using newspaper articles makes the learning effective. In such activities, students are given several headlines selected from English newspapers. The teacher can ask the students to predict the news story. Or, in contrast to this activity, a news story is selected and the headline is left out. Then, students are given this story and asked to predict the headline of the news story. So, these activities, conducted in reading comprehension or speaking classes, encourage the students to cope with these texts.

3. Scanning and skimming activities are administered in the classroom. Scanning is the type of speed-reading technique, and skimming is a kind of reading to get the main ideas from the text. Students are given a news story, and asked not to stop through reading and focus on the words which they do not know, but to concentrate just upon the overall meaning. Then teacher can ask students to write down the topic of the story. At the end of these activities, with the help of the teacher, students discuss the meaning of unknown words, difficult sentences or the headline.

As a result, newspapers are regarded as significant materials in EFL classes. And the lessons may be effective, stimulating and entertaining due to the fact that these activities include various tasks such as reading, speaking, predicting, critical thinking, skimming, vocabulary ,and text analysis.

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British soldier shot dead in Kabul patrol accident

Rory Carroll in Kabul, and Richard Norton-Taylor

A British soldier was accidentally shot and killed during a patrol in Kabul yesterday, making him the first British casualty of the international peacekeeping force in Afghanistan.

British military police immediately launched an investigation into how a gun belonging to one of the peacekeepers was discharged during a routine foot patrol.

Between eight and 12 troops of the 1st Royal Anglian regiment, based in Pirbright, Surrey, were crossing open ground south-west of Barjay, a crime-riddled suburb, in western Kabul at 10.50am local time when the soldier received a gunshot wound to the head.

A statement from the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) confirmed that no bandits or guerrillas fired the shot but declined to specify whether it came from a gun belonging to the victim or one of his colleagues.

"While the matter is under full investigation by the Royal Military Police we are satisfied that this regrettable incident did not involve any party outside of ISAF," it said.

"All members of ISAF are saddened by this incident but will not be swayed from continuing to meet fully their military duties. ISAF is mandated to provide security assistance to the Afghan interim administration. This task does involve risk."

The soldier's name was initially being withheld at the request of his family; they were informed soon after the incident, said Lieutenant Colonel Neal Peckham, a spokesman for the 18-nation force.

The man was treated in a French-run hospital at Kabul airport and then flown to one of the Gulf countries on a French C160 transport plane before he died.

A spate of recent shooting and rocket attacks against the peacekeepers have prompted heightened security concerns but until yesterday there had

been no casualties. It is not clear if the attackers in earlier incidents were Islamist guerrillas or impoverished government troops disgruntled at the peacekeepers disrupting their criminal moonlighting.

The peacekeepers were deployed in Kabul in January to bolster the fragile interim government installed after the collapse of the Taliban regime. Britain is expected to hand over leadership of the 4,800-strong force to Turkey within weeks and whittle down its contribution, which is currently at 2,000.

The shooting happened just as Royal Anglians in another part of the city were starting a commemoration ceremony for the funeral of the Queen Mother, who was colonel-in-chief of the regiment.

Some 300 soldiers said prayers and listened as bagpipes and bugles were played during the ceremony at a former wheat factory just off dusty Jalalabad road.

British medical staff rushed from the ceremony to treat the soldier.

Last month three Danish and two German peacekeepers were killed when a Soviet-era rocket they were dismantling exploded. A British army engineer, who was not part of the peacekeeping force, lost a foot while clearing mines at Bagram airport last year.

Sapper Ian Collins was the last British peacekeeper to be killed. The army engineer died in Macedonia last August when a group of youths threw rocks at a Land Rover he was driving near the capital Skopje.

Over the past five years, nearly 60 British servicemen have lost their lives during peacekeeping duties in the Balkans through combat or accident.

In August 2000, an SAS soldier, Brad Tinnion, was shot dead in the west African state of Sierra Leone as he rescued six Royal Irish Regiment soldiers held hostage by local militia.

Leader comment page 9

More on British troops in Afghanistan at guardian.co.uk/responses

APPENDIX II: *THE TIMES* (NEWS REPORT)

British soldier on Kabul patrol dies

BY DANIEL MCGRORY

A BRITISH peacekeeper died last night after being accidentally shot in the head while serving in Afghanistan.

Military investigators are trying to discover how the soldier, from The Royal Anglian Regiment, was shot while he was taking part in a patrol with Afghan police in Kabul.

A military source said: "We are still not sure whether the soldier discharged his own weapon, whether it was fired by accident by one of his colleagues or by one of the Afghan police who were patrolling with them."

"(The incident) occurred during a foot patrol in Kabul," a Ministry of Defence spokesman said. "The casualty was taken to the French hospital facility at the military side of Kabul airport. He has since died." The soldier, who was based at Pirbright, Surrey, is the first British casualty of the Afghan conflict.

The ministry spokesman said that the man's family had been informed of his death and had requested that his name is not released.

The soldier was with eight colleagues in the morning, patrolling a dangerous area in Barjay, southwest of the capital, when the shooting happened. In recent weeks several peacekeepers have been shot at in the area known as District 6, where bandits have made life treacherous.

Lieutenant-Colonel Neal Peckham, a spokesman for the International Security and Assistance Force (Isaf), said: "While the matter is under full investigation by the Royal Military Police, we are satisfied that this regrettable incident did not involve any party outside Isaf."

The incident came hours after British officers had revealed that Royal Marines had been taking part in secret combat missions on the Afghan border. In one, a team seized several caves close to the Pakistan border that are thought to have been used by key al-Qaeda network figures.

The Marines found documents that may contain clues to the whereabouts of the terrorist leaders and their plans.

British peacekeeper shot in Afghan capital

A British peacekeeping soldier was shot and seriously wounded while on a patrol in a crime-infested area of the Afghan capital on Tuesday, a military spokesman said.

Lieutenant Colonel Neal Peckham, the British military spokesman for the multi-national International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), said the matter was under investigation by British military police and "did not involve any party outside of ISAF."

Further details were not immediately available.

It was the first British casualty among their 2,000-strong contribution to ISAF since the peacekeepers arrived in Kabul at the end of December, although British and other members of the 18-nation force have occasionally come under fire.

The area where he was shot in southwest Kabul has been the focus of British and other ISAF patrols in recent weeks because of an outbreak of armed robberies

Taliban leaflets warn of reprisals
Handwritten leaflets are circulating in southern Afghanistan warning people of reprisals if they help track down Taliban or al-Qaeda militants

blamed on unemployed Northern Alliance soldiers, who helped to drive the Taliban from power.

The soldiers, mainly ethnic Tajiks from hundreds of miles away in northern Afghanistan near the border with the former Soviet republics, are followers of local

warlords there.

They have not been paid for months and have no official standing in Afghanistan's new security forces.

Taliban threat

Meanwhile, handwritten leaflets are circulating in southern Afghanistan warning people of reprisals if they help track down Taliban or al-Qaeda militants, residents said on Tuesday.

"The American forces will leave the country sooner or later, but you will remain here," one leaflet read. "People helping Afghan security forces are being marked."

Residents of the Spinboldak area, just across the border from the Pakistani town of Chaman, said the leaflets threatening them if they helped U.S.-led and Afghan security forces had been dropped outside their homes.

Shopkeepers found similar threats chalked on their shutters.

Kabul - Reuters

APPENDIX IV: THE GUARDIAN (EDITORIAL)

Far right comes second in Dutch poll

Ian Black in Rotterdam
Thursday May 16, 2002
The Guardian

Pim Fortuyn, the murdered Dutch anti-immigrant politician, reached out from the grave last night to capture joint-second place in his country's general election as the ruling Labour party suffered a humiliating meltdown, according to the exit polls.

The polls, published minutes after voting ended, showed the Lijst Pim Fortuyn (LPF) with 24 seats compared to a triumphant 41 for the opposition Christian Democrat party (CDA), which is likely to lead a new coalition and confirm a drift to the right across Europe.

Labour also got 24 seats, down from 45 at the 1998 poll.

Ad Melkert, the Labour leader, was expected to concede defeat after high voter turnout attributed to fury and sympathy generated by Fortuyn's assassination - allegedly by an environmental activist - 10 days ago.

Jan Peter Balkenende, the little-known CDA leader, was facing complex choices for building a coalition, a process that could take weeks. He is thought most likely to try to form a government with the LPF and the free market VVD liberals, who are also projected to get 24 seats in the 150-member parliament. Analysts said it was unlikely he would seek a grand coalition with Labour.

Crowds were still gathered outside the gay populist's home in central Rotterdam as polling got under way, with withered bunches of flowers piled in the courtyard and messages of support taped to the railings.

"Good luck. You have my vote," promised one of many such notes.

"I didn't like his ideas and I won't be voting for him," said Rob Harmsen, a 23-year-old student, "but he shouldn't have been killed. Now many people are afraid of a big move to the right."

Wim Kok, the outgoing Labour prime minister, urged voters to choose "sensibly", reminding them of eight years of the "formidable" growth and prosperity created by his three-party centre-left coalition.

But support for Labour fell away as polls showed mounting public irritation over hospital waiting lists, train delays, traffic congestion, crime and cash-strapped schools.

With Dutch pundits calling the election the most unpredictable in living memory, it had been clear since last Monday, when the maverick Fortuyn was killed, that his ghostly presence would dominate the day.

The flamboyant Fortuyn fuelled worries across Europe that racism and xenophobia - behind Jean Marie Le Pen's startling performance in the first round of the French presidential election - had been transferred to the placid and tolerant Netherlands.

But Fortuyn, who derided Islam as backward, questioned multiculturalism and wanted immigration to the Netherlands controlled, angrily rejected comparisons with far-right leaders such as Le Pen and Austria's Jörg Haider.

Many Dutchmen, even those who oppose him, view his contribution as having shaken up remote and complacent politicians accustomed to the country's consensus-building.

"I hope this election will give the other parties the strength to reform things so there will be a fundamental change in Dutch politics," said Michiel Smit, a Rotterdam city council LPF member.

Analysts said that one of the biggest questions about Fortuyn's fledgling party was whether it would be able to replicate its 37% success in Rotterdam on a national scale. Another is whether Fortuyn's colleagues - novices who lack his charisma and profile - can stay together.

On the eve of the poll, the party's newly elected chairman resigned after causing an uproar when he blamed the government for creating an atmosphere of hatred that led to the death of "Professor Pim". If the LPF splits it could mean political instability and new elections well before the government's four-year term is up.

The result means Dutch voters have followed the pattern of Italy, France, Denmark and Portugal, which have also shifted to the right, punishing the left for failing to heed fears on crime and immigration.

Kok's government resigned last month after accepting the blame for the botched 1995 Dutch UN peacekeeping mission in Bosnia.

The clear result of Fortuyn's assassination was clear yesterday as senior politicians were accompanied by bodyguards as they cast their ballots.

Domestic media described the election as being held in an atmosphere of unprecedented crisis.



APPENDIX V: THE NEW YORK TIMES (EDITORIAL)

The New York Times
ON THE WEB

May 16, 2002

Dutch Veer to Right After Candidate's Killing

By MARLISE SIMONS

THE HAGUE, May 15 — Dutch politics took a startling swing to the right in parliamentary elections as followers of the slain populist Pim Fortuyn turned out in force today to push his anti-immigrant and law-and-order agenda.

Mr. Fortuyn's party finished stronger than predicted before his assassination stunned the country last week, coming in second behind the conservative Christian Democrats. It is now likely to play a key role in the new coalition government.

Today's elections, among the most volatile in the Netherlands in several decades, were being closely watched in the rest of Europe where the anti-immigrant mood has been growing and right-wing parties have made important gains.

Although the results were still unofficial, they were remarkable for the party, List Pim Fortuyn, that the outspoken former sociology professor formed only in February and had run almost single-handedly until he was shot dead, reportedly by an animal-rights activist.

The drama of the elections, which were dominated by the killing of Mr. Fortuyn and drew an unusually high turnout of 79 percent, is not yet over. It is likely to take days or weeks of horse trading over policies and ministerial jobs to form a coalition government.

Mr. Fortuyn's followers, who have not yet named a new leader, are expected to get 26 of the 150 seats. The Christian Democrats, who lost power in 1994, were the biggest winner with an estimated 40 seats.

The Christian Democrat leader, Jan Peter Balkenende, 46, sometimes called the Dutch Harry Potter because of his looks, could become the next prime minister. He is known for his sharp wit and conservative moral values about which he has written extensively. This week, though, when asked about his philosophy, he cracked that he was reading up on Harry Potter.

The Labor Party of the Dutch prime minister, Wim Kok, appeared to be the biggest loser, with a stunning drop from 45 to 24 seats, its worst results in recent memory.

Friends said that it was a painful blow for Mr. Kok, 62. The two-term prime minister, who had become a familiar and respected figure both in Dutch and European politics, announced last year that he would step down as party leader and not run again.

But his party's limp finish still seemed a poor reward for the decade in which he helped turn the Netherlands into one of the best-performing economies in Europe, with rapid growth and one of the lowest unemployment rates.

Among the most common complaints was that the Dutch had become bored and even angry with the cozy world of consensus politics. The left-center-right coalition had made for stable politics, but also for endless back room dealing in which real political debate was stifled. As a result, the government was seen as a tight circle of managers too distant from people's daily concerns.

"This is a wake-up call that affects all of us," said Maria van der Hoeven, deputy leader of the Christian Democrats. "People are telling us, do something about our problems, about the lack of safety in the streets, about the problems in the schools and the hospitals."

At the chic Hotel des Indes, where List Fortuyn supporters awaited results, the strange nature of this election was palpable. Party faithful cheered as their huge success became known, but many were dressed in black mourning clothes.

Hovering above the crowd was an enormous portrait of the party's slain founder, whom leftist political opponents and news outlets had called a racist, a fascist and worse before he was gunned down.

"I'm very moved that we are celebrating this without Pim," said Ferry Hoogendijk, one of his followers who won a seat. This was his work. He created this party practically single-handedly in less than three months."



APPENDIX VI: Summary of cohesion and coding scheme (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 333-339)

A. Type of cohesion

| REFERENCE | | Coding |
|---|---|--------|
| | | R |
| 1. Pronominals | | 1 |
| (1) singular, masculine | he, him, his | 11 |
| (2) singular, feminine | she, her, hers | 12 |
| (3) singular, neuter | it, its | 13 |
| (4) plural | they, them, their, theirs | 14 |
| 1 (1-4) functioning as: | | |
| (a) non-possessive, as Head | he,/him, she/her, it, they/them | 6 |
| (b) possessive, as Head | his, hers, (its), theirs | 7 |
| (c) possessive, as Deictic | his, her, its, their | 8 |
| 2. Demonstrative and definite articles | | 2 |
| (1) demonstrative, near | this/these, near | 21 |
| (2) demonstrative, far | that/those, there, then | 22 |
| (3) definite article | the | 23 |
| 2 (1-3) functioning as: | | |
| (a) nominal, Deictic or Head | this/these, that/those, the | 6 |
| (b) place adverbial | here, there | 7 |
| (c) time adverbial | then | 8 |
| 3. Comparatives (not complete lists) | | 3 |
| (1) identity | eg: same, identical | 31 |
| (2) similarity | eg: similar (ly), such | 32 |
| (3) difference (ie: non-identity and dissimilarity) | eg: different, other, else, additional | 33 |
| (4) comparison, quantity | eg: more, less, as many; ordinals | 34 |
| (5) comparison, quality | eg: as + adjective; comparatives and superlatives | 35 |
| 3 (1-5) functioning as: | | |
| (a) Deictic | (1-3) | 6 |
| (b) Numerative | (4) | 7 |
| (c) Epithet | (5) | 8 |
| (d) Adjunct or Submodifier | (1-5) | 9 |
| SUBSTITUTION | | S |
| 1. Nominal substitutes | | 1 |
| (1) for noun Head | one/ones | 11 |
| (2) for nominal Complement | the/same | 12 |
| (3) for Attribute | so | 13 |
| 2. Verbal substitutes | | 2 |
| (1) for verb | do, be, have | 21 |
| (2) for process | do the same/likewise | 22 |
| (3) for proposition | do so, be so | 23 |
| (4) verbal reference | do it/that, be it/that | 24 |
| 3. Clausal substitutes | | 3 |
| (1) positive | so | 31 |
| (2) negative | not | 32 |
| 3 (1-2) substitute clause functioning as: | | |
| (a) reported | | 6 |
| (b) conditional | | 7 |
| (c) modalized | | 8 |
| (d) other | | 9 |
| ELLIPSIS | | E |
| 1. Nominal ellipsis | | 1 |

| | |
|---|----|
| (1) Deictic as Head | 11 |
| i. specific Deictic | 1 |
| ii. non-specific Deictic | 2 |
| iii. Post-deictic | 3 |
| (2) Numerative as Head | 12 |
| i. ordinal | 1 |
| ii. cardinal | 2 |
| iii. indefinite | 3 |
| (3) Epithet as Head | 13 |
| i. superlative | 1 |
| ii. comparative | 2 |
| iii. indefinite | 3 |
| 2. Verbal ellipsis | 2 |
| (1) lexical ellipsis (from right) | 21 |
| i. total (all items omitted except first operator) | 1 |
| ii. partial (lexical verb only omitted) | 2 |
| (2) operator ellipsis (from right) | 22 |
| i. total (all items omitted except lexical verb) | 1 |
| ii. partial (first operator only omitted) | 2 |
| 3. Clausal ellipsis | 3 |
| (1) prepositional ellipsis | 31 |
| i. total (all Propositional element omitted) | 1 |
| ii. partial (some Complement or Adjunct present) | 2 |
| (2) modal ellipsis | 32 |
| i. total (all Modal element omitted) | 1 |
| ii. partial (Subject present) | 2 |
| (3) general ellipsis of the clause (all elements but one omitted) | 33 |
| i. WH- (only WH-element present) | 1 |
| ii. yes/no (only item expressing polarity present) | 2 |
| iii. other (other single clause element present) | 3 |
| (4) zero (entire clause omitted) | 34 |
| 3 (1-4) elliptical clause functioning as: | |
| (a) yes/no question or answer | 6 |
| (b) WH- question or answer | 7 |
| (c) 'reported' element | 8 |
| (d) otherwise | 9 |

CONJUNCTION

C

Note: (E)= external, (I)= internal

| | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|----|
| 1. Additive | | 1 |
| (1) simple: E/I | | 11 |
| i. additive | and, and also | 1 |
| ii. negative | nor, and...not | 2 |
| iii. alternative | or, or-else | 3 |
| (2) complex, emphatic: (I) | | 12 |
| i. additive | furthermore, add to that | 1 |
| ii. alternative | alternatively | 2 |
| (3) complex, de-emphatic: (I) | by the way, incidentally | 13 |
| (4) apposition: (I) | | 14 |
| i. expository | that is, in other words | 1 |
| ii. exemplificatory | eg., thus | 2 |
| (5) comparison: (I) | | 15 |
| i. similar | likewise, in the same way | 1 |
| ii. dissimilar | on the other hand, by contrast | 2 |
| 2. Adversative | | 2 |
| (1) adversative 'proper': E/I | | 21 |
| i. simple | yet, though, only | 1 |
| ii. + 'and' | but | 2 |
| iii. emphatic | however, even so, all the same | 3 |
| (2) contrastive (avowal): (I) | in (point of) fact, actually | 22 |

| | | |
|----------------------------|---|----|
| (3) contrastive: (E) | | 23 |
| i. simple | but, and | 1 |
| ii. emphatic | however, conversely, on the other hand | 2 |
| (4) correction: (I) | | 24 |
| i. of meaning | instead, on the contrary, rather | 1 |
| ii. of wording | at least, I mean, or rather | 2 |
| (5) dismissal: (I) | | 25 |
| i. closed | in any/either case | 1 |
| ii. open-ended | in any case, anyhow | 2 |
| 3. Clausal | | 3 |
| (1) general: (E/I) | | 31 |
| i. simple | so, then, therefore | 1 |
| ii. emphatic | consequently | 2 |
| (2) specific: (E/I) | | 32 |
| i. reason | on account of this | 1 |
| ii. result | in consequence | 2 |
| iii. purpose | with this in mind | |
| (3) reversed causal: (I) | for, because | 33 |
| (4) causal, specific: (I) | | 34 |
| i. reason | it follows | 1 |
| ii. result | arising out of this | 2 |
| iii. purpose | to this end | 3 |
| (5) conditional: (E/I) | | 35 |
| i. simple | then | 1 |
| ii. emphatic | in that case, in such an event | 2 |
| iii. generalized | under the circumstances | 3 |
| iv. reversed polarity | otherwise, apart from this, in other respects | 4 |
| (6) respective: (I) | | 36 |
| i. direct | in this respect, here | 1 |
| ii. reversed polarity | otherwise, apart from this | 2 |
| 4. Temporal | | 4 |
| (1) simple: (E) | | 41 |
| i. sequential | then, next | 1 |
| ii. simultaneous | just then | 2 |
| iii. preceding | before that hitherto | 3 |
| (2) conclusive: (E) | in the end | 42 |
| (3) correlatives: (E) | | 43 |
| i. sequential | first...then | 1 |
| ii. conclusive | at first/originally/formerly...finally/now | 2 |
| (4) complex: (E) | | 44 |
| i. immediate | at once | 1 |
| ii. interrupted | soon | 2 |
| iii. repetitive | next time | 3 |
| iv. specific | next day | 4 |
| v. durative | meanwhile | 5 |
| vi. terminal | until then | 6 |
| vii. punctiliar | at this moment | 7 |
| (5) internal temporal: (I) | | 45 |
| i. sequential | then, next | 1 |
| ii. conclusive | finally, in conclusion | 2 |
| (6) correlatives: (I) | | 46 |
| i. sequential | first...next | 1 |
| ii. conclusive | in the first place...to conclude with | 2 |
| (7) here and now: (I) | | 47 |
| i. past | up to now | 1 |
| ii. present | at this point | 2 |
| iii. future | from now on | 3 |
| (8) summary (I) | | 48 |
| i. summarizing | to sum up | 1 |
| ii. resumptive | to resume | 2 |

| | | |
|--|---|------|
| 5. Other ('continuative') | now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all | 5 |
| 6. Intonation | | 6 |
| (1) tone | | 61 |
| (2) tonicity | | 62 |
| LEXICAL | | L |
| 1. Same item | | 1 |
| 2. Synonym or near synonym (incl hyponym) | | 2 |
| 3. Superordinate | | 3 |
| 4. 'General' item | | 4 |
| 5. Collocation | | 5 |
| 1-5 having reference that is: | | |
| (a) identical | | 6 |
| (b) inclusive | | 7 |
| (c) inclusive | | 8 |
| (d) unrelated | | 9 |
| B: Direction and distance of cohesion | | |
| IMMEDIATE | | 0 |
| Not immediate: | | |
| MEDIATED (number of intervening sentences) | | M(n) |
| REMOTE NON-MEDIATED (number of intervening sentence) | | N(n) |
| CATAPHORIC | | K |



APPENDICES VII: TEXT ANALYSIS OF THE NEWS REPORTS

THE TIMES:

| Sentence number | No.of ties | Cohesive item | Type | Distance | Presupposed | | |
|-----------------|------------|--------------------|--------|----------|------------------------------------|-----|-------------|
| 2 | 3 | the | R.23.6 | o | A British peacekeeper | | |
| | | soldier | L.2.6 | o | British peacekeeper | | |
| | | he | R.11.6 | o | the soldier | | |
| 3 | 7 | we | R.14.6 | o | A military source | | |
| | | the soldier | L.1.6 | 0 | the soldier | | |
| | | his | R.11.8 | o | the soldier | | |
| | | it | R.13.6 | o | weapon | | |
| | | his | R.11.8 | o | the soldier | | |
| | | Afghan police | L.1.6 | o | Afghan police | | |
| | | Them | R.14.6 | o | colleagues | | |
| 4 | 1 | Kabul | L.1.6 | N.1 | Kabul | | |
| 5 | 1 | casualty | L.5.1 | N.2 | the soldier | | |
| 6 | 1 | he | R.11.6 | o | the casualty | | |
| 7 | 2 | soldier | L.1.6 | N.1 | the casualty | | |
| 8 | 6 | The | R.23.6 | N.5 | A ministry of Defence spokesman | | |
| | | Ministry spokesman | L.1.6 | N.5 | Ministry of Defence spokesman | | |
| | | man | L.4.6 | o | the soldier | | |
| | | his | R.11.8 | o | man | | |
| | | had requested | E.22.1 | o | the man's family | | |
| | | his | R.11.8 | o | the man | | |
| | | 9 | 2 | soldier | L.1.6 | N.2 | the soldier |
| | | shooting | L.2.6 | N.2 | (S.1) | | |
| 10 | 1 | peacekeepers | L.1.7 | N.9 | A British peacekeeper | | |
| 11 | 4 | we | R.14.6 | o | Neal Peckham | | |
| | | this | R.21.6 | o | (S.10) | | |
| | | incident | L.1.6 | o | (S.10) | | |

| | | | | | |
|----|---|--------------|--------|---|---------------|
| | | ISAF | L.1.6 | o | ISAF |
| 12 | 1 | The incident | L.1.6 | o | this incident |
| 13 | 1 | one | S.11 | o | missions |
| 14 | 2 | The marines | L.4.1 | o | Royal marines |
| | | their | R.14.8 | o | leaders |



THE GUARDIAN

| Sentence number | No.of ties | Cohesive item | Type | Distance | Presupposed |
|--------------------|------------|-----------------------|---------------|----------|----------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | killed | E.22.1 | o | A British soldier was |
| | | him | R.II.6 | o | A British soldier |
| 2 | 2 | the peacekeepers | L.I.6 | K | peacekeepers |
| | | patrol | L.I | o | patrol |
| 3 | 3 | Kabul | L.I | N.2 | Kabul |
| | | the | R.23.6 | N.2 | A British soldier |
| | | soldier | L.I.6 | N.2 | soldier |
| 4 | 8 | the | R.23.6 | 0 | a gunshot |
| | | shot | L.2 | o | gunshot |
| | | but | C.21.2 | o | (S.4) |
| | | declined | E.22.1 | o | no bandits or guerillas |
| | | a gun | L.I | N.2 | a gun |
| | | it | R.13 | o | the shot |
| | | the victim | L.5 | o | the soldier |
| | | his | R.8 | o | the victim |
| 5 | 6 | the matter | R.35.6 | K | |
| | | Royal military police | L.3 | N3 | British military Police |
| | | We | R.14 | K | |
| | | ISAF | L.1 | o | ISAF |
| | | it | R.13 | o | ISAF |
| 6 | 6 | this | R.21.6 | o | incident |
| | | ISAF | L.1 | o | ISAF |
| | | this | R.21.6 | o | incident |
| | | incident | L.1.6 | o | the matter |
| | | but | C.21.2 | o | (S.6) |
| will not be swayed | E.22.1 | o | this incident | | |

| | | | | | |
|----|---|------------------|---------|-----|--|
| | | their | R.8 | o | All members of ISAF |
| 7 | 1 | ISAF | L.1.6 | o | ISAF |
| 8 | 1 | This | R.21.6 | o | task |
| 9 | 7 | The | R.23.6 | N.8 | A British soldier |
| | | soldier | L.1.6 | N.6 | soldier |
| | | his | R.11.7 | o | the soldier |
| | | they | R.14.6 | o | his family |
| | | a spokesman | L.1.6 | o | Lieutenant Colonel Neal Peckham |
| | | The | R.23.6. | o | the 18 nation force |
| | | 18-nation force | L.2.6 | N.5 | the International National Security Assistance Force |
| 10 | 6 | the | R.23.6 | N.9 | A British soldier |
| | | man | L.4.6 | o | the soldier |
| | | Kabul | L.1.6 | M.9 | soldier |
| | | Then | C.35.1 | o | (S.10) |
| | | Flown | E.22.1 | o | The man was |
| | | He | R.11.6 | o | the man |
| 11 | 1 | the peacekeepers | L.1.6 | N.9 | the peacekeepers |
| 12 | 2 | the peacekeepers | L.1.6 | o | the peacekeepers |
| | | their | R.14.8 | o | the peacekeepers |
| 13 | 2 | The peacekeepers | L.1.6 | o | the peacekeepers |
| | | Kabul | L.1.6 | N.3 | Kabul |
| 14 | 2 | whittle down | E.22.1 | o | Britain is expected to |
| | | its | R.13.8 | o | Britain |
| 15 | 4 | the | R.23.6 | N.4 | a spate of recent shooting |
| | | shooting | L.1.6 | N.4 | shooting |
| | | the city | L.4.6 | N.2 | Kabul |
| | | the regiment | L.3.6 | o | Royal Anglians |
| 16 | 3 | listened | E.22.1 | o | Some 300 soldiers |
| | | the | R.23.6 | o | a commemoration ceremony |

| | | | | | |
|----|---|------------------------|--------|------|---|
| | | ceremony | L.1.6 | o | ceremony |
| 17 | 2 | the ceremony | L.1.6 | o | the ceremony |
| | | the soldier | L.1.6 | N.8 | the man |
| 18 | 1 | they | R.14.6 | o | three Danish and two German peacekeepers |
| 19 | 1 | the peacekeeping force | L.4.6 | N.18 | ISAF |
| 20 | 1 | British peacekeeper | L.1.1 | o | Sapper Ian Collins |
| 21 | 2 | the army engineer | L.1.6 | o | Sapper Ian Collins |
| | | he | R.11.6 | o | The army engineer |
| 22 | 1 | their | R.14.8 | o | 60 British serviceman |
| 23 | 1 | he | R.11.6 | o | Brad Timon |



TURKISH DAILY NEWS:

| Sentence number | No.of ties | Cohesive item | Type | Distance | Presupposed |
|-----------------|------------|-----------------------------------|--------|----------|---|
| 1 | 1 | wounded | E.22.1 | o | A British peacekeeping soldier was |
| 2 | 4 | Lietenant-Colonel Neal Peckham | L.1.6 | o | a military spokesman |
| | | the matter | R.23.6 | o | (S.1) |
| | | did not involve | E.22.2 | o | the matter |
| | | ISAF | L.1.6 | o | ISAF |
| 4 | 8 | It | R.13.6 | N.2 | the matter |
| | | first | R.35.6 | o | it |
| | | their | R.14.8 | o | International Security Assistance Force |
| | | ISAF | L.1.6 | N.2 | ISAF |
| | | Peacekeepers | L.1.7 | N.3 | A British Peacekeeping soldier |
| | | Kabul | L.1.7 | N.3 | Afghan Capital |
| | | although | C.21.3 | o | (S.4) |
| | | the 18 nation force | L.3.6 | o | ISAF |
| 5 | 5 | the | R.23.6 | N.4 | a crime infested area |
| | | area | L.1.6 | N.4 | area |
| | | he | R.11.6 | N.4 | A British peacekeeping soldier |
| | | Kabul | L.1.6 | o | Kabul |
| | | ISAF | L.1.6 | o | ISAF |
| 6 | 3 | the | R.23.6 | o | Northern Alliance soldiers |
| | | soldiers | L.1.6 | o | soldiers |
| | | there | R.22.7 | o | northern Afghanistan near the border |
| 7 | 2 | They | R.14.6 | o | The soldiers |
| | | have | E.22.2 | o | They |

| | | | | | |
|----|---|-----------|--------|---|----------------------|
| 8 | 3 | meanwhile | C.44.5 | o | (S.7) |
| | | they | R.14.6 | o | leaflets |
| | | Taliban | L.1.6 | o | The Taliban |
| 9 | 3 | here | R.23.7 | o | Southern Afghanistan |
| | | people | L.1.6 | o | people |
| | | but | C.23.1 | o | (S.9) |
| 10 | 5 | the | R.23.6 | o | one leaflet |
| | | leaflets | L.1.6 | o | leaflet |
| | | them | R.14.6 | o | people |
| | | they | R.14.6 | o | people |
| | | their | R.14.8 | o | people |
| 11 | 1 | their | R.14.8 | o | shopkeepers |



APPENDIX VIII: FREQUENCY WORDLIST FOR *THE GUARDIAN*

| | | | | | | |
|--------------|----|----------------|---|---------------|---|--------------|
| the | 41 | guerillas | 2 | based | 1 | funeral |
| a | 18 | gun | 2 | been | 1 | German |
| of | 18 | have | 2 | before | 1 | ground |
| in | 15 | his | 2 | being | 1 | group |
| to | 13 | interim | 2 | Between | 1 | Gulf |
| was | 9 | international | 2 | bolster | 1 | gunshot |
| and | 8 | investigation | 2 | Brad | 1 | had |
| at | 8 | involve | 2 | Britain | 1 | hand |
| British | 8 | just | 2 | bugles | 1 | happened |
| were | 8 | local | 2 | C160 | 1 | head |
| force | 5 | lost | 2 | came | 1 | heightened |
| is | 5 | no | 2 | capital | 1 | held |
| Kabul | 5 | over | 2 | casualties | 1 | him |
| peacekeepers | 5 | part | 2 | casualty | 1 | hospital |
| soldier | 5 | police | 2 | chief | 1 | hostage |
| during | 4 | rocket | 2 | city | 1 | how |
| from | 4 | shooting | 2 | clear | 1 | Ian |
| ISAF | 4 | soldiers | 2 | clearing | 1 | if |
| last | 4 | that | 2 | colleaves | 1 | immediately |
| not | 4 | their | 2 | Collins | 1 | improvised |
| or | 4 | they | 2 | combat | 1 | incidents |
| Royal | 4 | troops | 2 | commemoration | 1 | informed |
| shot | 4 | west | 2 | concerns | 1 | initially |
| as | 3 | while | 2 | confirmed | 1 | installed |
| but | 3 | who | 2 | continuing | 1 | into |
| by | 3 | 000 | 1 | contribution | 1 | Irish |
| ceremony | 3 | 10 | 1 | countries | 1 | Islamist |
| he | 3 | 12 | 1 | crime | 1 | its |
| incident | 3 | 18 | 1 | criminal | 1 | Jalalabad |
| it | 3 | 1st | 1 | crossing | 1 | January |
| killed | 3 | 2 | 1 | currently | 1 | Land |
| military | 3 | 2000 | 1 | Danish | 1 | launched |
| one | 3 | 300 | 1 | declined | 1 | leadership |
| patrol | 3 | 4 | 1 | deployed | 1 | Leone |
| peacekeeping | 3 | 50 | 1 | did | 1 | Lieutenant |
| regiment | 3 | 60 | 1 | discharged | 1 | listened |
| said | 3 | 800 | 1 | disgruntled | 1 | lives |
| security | 3 | accidentally | 1 | dismantling | 1 | Macedonia |
| this | 3 | administration | 1 | disrupting | 1 | making |
| when | 3 | Afghan | 1 | does | 1 | man |
| accident | 2 | Afghanistan | 1 | down | 1 | mandated |
| after | 2 | African | 1 | driving | 1 | matter |
| an | 2 | against | 1 | dusty | 1 | medical |
| are | 2 | airbase | 1 | earlier | 1 | meet |
| army | 2 | airport | 1 | eight | 1 | members |
| assistance | 2 | All | 1 | era | 1 | militia |
| August | 2 | am | 1 | expected | 1 | mines |
| be | 2 | Anglian | 1 | exploded | 1 | month |
| belonging | 2 | Anglians | 1 | factory | 1 | moonlighting |
| colonel | 2 | another | 1 | family | 1 | Mothar |
| dead | 2 | any | 1 | fired | 1 | name |
| died | 2 | attackers | 1 | first | 1 | nation |
| duties | 2 | attacks | 1 | five | 1 | Neal |
| engineer | 2 | bag | 1 | flown | 1 | near |
| foot | 2 | Bagram | 1 | former | 1 | nearly |
| for | 2 | Balkans | 1 | fragile | 1 | off |
| French | 2 | bandits | 1 | full | 1 | on |
| government | 2 | Barjay | 1 | fully | 1 | open |

| | | | |
|-------------|---|-----------|---|
| outside | 1 | through | 1 |
| party | 1 | time | 1 |
| past | 1 | Tinnion | 1 |
| peacekeeper | 1 | transport | 1 |
| Peckham | 1 | treated | 1 |
| pipes | 1 | Turkey | 1 |
| Pirbright | 1 | two | 1 |
| plan | 1 | under | 1 |
| played | 1 | until | 1 |
| prayers | 1 | victim | 1 |
| prompted | 1 | we | 1 |
| provide | 1 | weeks | 1 |
| Queen | 1 | Western | 1 |
| received | 1 | wheat | 1 |
| recent | 1 | whether | 1 |
| regime | 1 | which | 1 |
| regrettable | 1 | whittle | 1 |
| request | 1 | will | 1 |
| rescued | 1 | withheld | 1 |
| riddled | 1 | within | 1 |
| risk | 1 | wound | 1 |
| road | 1 | year | 1 |
| rocks | 1 | years | 1 |
| routine | 1 | yestarday | 1 |
| Rover | 1 | yesterday | 1 |
| run | 1 | youths | 1 |
| rushed | 1 | | |
| saddened | 1 | | |
| Sapper | 1 | | |
| SAS | 1 | | |
| satisfied | 1 | | |
| servicemen | 1 | | |
| Sierra | 1 | | |
| six | 1 | | |
| Skopje | 1 | | |
| soldier's | 1 | | |
| sollapse | 1 | | |
| Some | 1 | | |
| soon | 1 | | |
| south | 1 | | |
| Soviet | 1 | | |
| spate | 1 | | |
| specify | 1 | | |
| spokesman | 1 | | |
| staff | 1 | | |
| starting | 1 | | |
| state | 1 | | |
| statement | 1 | | |
| strong | 1 | | |
| suburb | 1 | | |
| Surrey | 1 | | |
| swayed | 1 | | |
| Taliben | 1 | | |
| task | 1 | | |
| theit | 1 | | |
| then | 1 | | |
| there | 1 | | |
| threat | 1 | | |
| three | 1 | | |
| threw | 1 | | |

APPENDIX IX: FREQUENCY WORDLIST FOR *THE TIMES*

| | | | | | |
|--------------|----|---------------|---|--------------|---|
| the | 28 | as | 1 | may | 1 |
| in | 11 | Assistance | 1 | missions | 1 |
| a | 8 | bandits | 1 | morning | 1 |
| of | 8 | Barjay | 1 | name | 1 |
| was | 7 | based | 1 | Neal | 1 |
| that | 6 | being | 1 | network | 1 |
| by | 5 | came | 1 | night | 1 |
| soldier | 5 | capital | 1 | occurred | 1 |
| to | 5 | caves | 1 | officers | 1 |
| Afghan | 4 | close | 1 | or | 1 |
| are | 4 | clues | 1 | outside | 1 |
| been | 4 | Colonel | 1 | own | 1 |
| British | 4 | combat | 1 | Pakistan | 1 |
| had | 4 | conflict | 1 | party | 1 |
| his | 4 | contain | 1 | peacekeeper | 1 |
| Kabul | 4 | dangerous | 1 | peacekeepers | 1 |
| military | 4 | death | 1 | Peckham | 1 |
| said | 4 | Defence | 1 | Pirbright | 1 |
| and | 3 | did | 1 | plans | 1 |
| have | 3 | dies | 1 | Qaeda | 1 |
| incident | 3 | discharged | 1 | recent | 1 |
| is | 3 | discover | 1 | Regiment | 1 |
| not | 3 | District | 1 | regrettable | 1 |
| one | 3 | documents | 1 | released | 1 |
| patrol | 3 | during | 1 | requested | 1 |
| police | 3 | eight | 1 | revealed | 1 |
| Royal | 3 | facility | 1 | satisfied | 1 |
| shot | 3 | family | 1 | secret | 1 |
| spokesman | 3 | figures | 1 | Security | 1 |
| while | 3 | fired | 1 | seized | 1 |
| with | 3 | first | 1 | serving | 1 |
| after | 2 | foot | 1 | shooting | 1 |
| area | 2 | for | 1 | side | 1 |
| at | 2 | Force | 1 | sine | 1 |
| border | 2 | found | 1 | source | 1 |
| casualty | 2 | French | 1 | southwest | 1 |
| colleagues | 2 | from | 1 | still | 1 |
| died | 2 | full | 1 | sure | 1 |
| he | 2 | happened | 1 | Surrey | 1 |
| Isaf | 2 | head | 1 | taken | 1 |
| Marines | 2 | hospital | 1 | team | 1 |
| ministry | 2 | hours | 1 | terrorist | 1 |
| on | 2 | how | 1 | their | 1 |
| part | 2 | informed | 1 | them | 1 |
| patrolling | 2 | International | 1 | this | 1 |
| several | 2 | investigation | 1 | thought | 1 |
| taking | 2 | investigators | 1 | treacherous | 1 |
| we | 2 | involve | 1 | trying | 1 |
| whether | 2 | it | 1 | under | 1 |
| who | 2 | key | 1 | used | 1 |
| 6 | 1 | known | 1 | weapon | 1 |
| accident | 1 | last | 1 | weeks | 1 |
| accidentally | 1 | leaders | 1 | were | 1 |
| Afghaistan | 1 | Lieutenant | 1 | when | 1 |
| airport | 1 | life | 1 | where | 1 |
| al | 1 | made | 1 | whereabouts | 1 |
| Anglian | 1 | man's | 1 | | |
| any | 1 | matter | 1 | | |

APPENDIX X: FREQUENCY WORDLIST FOR *TURKISH DAILY NEWS*

| | | | | | | |
|---------------|----|---------------|---|--------------|---|----------|
| the | 20 | arrived | 1 | matter | 1 | warlords |
| of | 12 | Assistance | 1 | Meanwhile | 1 | warning |
| in | 8 | at | 1 | members | 1 | weeks |
| British | 7 | available | 1 | miles | 1 | were |
| and | 6 | away | 1 | militants | 1 | where |
| on | 5 | because | 1 | months | 1 | while |
| a | 4 | being | 1 | multi | 1 | who |
| Afghan | 4 | blamed | 1 | nation | 1 | with |
| forces | 4 | but | 1 | national | 1 | wounded |
| ISAF | 4 | by | 1 | Neal | 1 | you |
| said | 4 | casualty | 1 | near | 1 | |
| security | 4 | chalked | 1 | new | 1 | |
| was | 4 | Chaman | 1 | no | 1 | |
| are | 3 | circulating | 1 | occasionally | 1 | |
| area | 3 | Colonel | 1 | official | 1 | |
| been | 3 | come | 1 | one | 1 | |
| from | 3 | contribution | 1 | outbreak | 1 | |
| have | 3 | country | 1 | paid | 1 | |
| military | 3 | crime | 1 | Pakistani | 1 | |
| not | 3 | December | 1 | party | 1 | |
| shot | 3 | details | 1 | patrol | 1 | |
| their | 3 | did | 1 | patrols | 1 | |
| they | 3 | down | 1 | peacekeeper | 1 | |
| Afghanistan | 2 | drive | 1 | peacekeepers | 1 | |
| border | 2 | dropped | 1 | peacekeeping | 1 | |
| capital | 2 | end | 1 | Peckham | 1 | |
| for | 2 | ethnic | 1 | police | 1 | |
| force | 2 | fire | 1 | power | 1 | |
| helped | 2 | first | 1 | Qaeda | 1 | |
| if | 2 | focus | 1 | read | 1 | |
| Kabul | 2 | followers | 1 | recent | 1 | |
| leaflets | 2 | former | 1 | remain | 1 | |
| northern | 2 | found | 1 | reprisals | 1 | |
| or | 2 | Further | 1 | republics | 1 | |
| other | 2 | had | 1 | robberies | 1 | |
| outside | 2 | handwritten | 1 | S | 1 | |
| people | 2 | has | 1 | seriously | 1 | |
| residents | 2 | he | 1 | Shopkeepers | 1 | |
| soldiers | 2 | help | 1 | shutters | 1 | |
| spokesman | 2 | helping | 1 | similar | 1 | |
| Taliban | 2 | here | 1 | since | 1 | |
| to | 2 | homes | 1 | soldier | 1 | |
| Tuesday | 2 | hundreds | 1 | sooner | 1 | |
| under | 2 | immediately | 1 | southern | 1 | |
| will | 2 | infested | 1 | southwest | 1 | |
| 000 | 1 | International | 1 | Soviet | 1 | |
| 18 | 1 | investigation | 1 | Spinboldak | 1 | |
| 2 | 1 | involve | 1 | standing | 1 | |
| across | 1 | It | 1 | strong | 1 | |
| Afghanistan's | 1 | just | 1 | Tajiks | 1 | |
| al | 1 | later | 1 | them | 1 | |
| Alliance | 1 | leaflet | 1 | there | 1 | |
| although | 1 | leave | 1 | threatening | 1 | |
| American | 1 | led | 1 | threats | 1 | |
| among | 1 | Lieutenant | 1 | town | 1 | |
| an | 1 | local | 1 | track | 1 | |
| any | 1 | mainly | 1 | U | 1 | |
| armed | 1 | marked | 1 | unemployed | 1 | |

CURRICULUM VITAE

Volkan KILIÇ was born in 1978 in Antakya. After completing his primary and secondary education in Antakya, he attended the Department of English Language and Literature at Atatürk University in 1996. He took his B.A. degree in June, 2000. In the same year, he began his master education. Since 2000, he has been working as an English teacher.

