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ORGANIZATIONAL AND TEXTUAL STRUCTURING OF RADIO
NEWS DISCOURSE IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC

Volume One

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Doctor of Philosophy

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The University of Aston in Birmingham

Organizational and Textual Structuring of Radio News Discourse
in English and Arabic

Summary

The present work studies the overall structuring of radio news discourse via investigating three metatextual/interactive functions: (1) Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs), (2) Attribution and (3) Sentential and Nominal Background Information (SBI & NBI). An extended corpus of about 73,000 words from BBC and Radio Damascus news is used to study DOEs and a restricted corpus of 38,000 words for Attribution and S & NBI. A situational approach is adopted to assess the influence of factors such as medium and audience on these functions and their frequency.

It is found that: (1) DOEs are organizational and their frequency is determined by length of text; (2) Attribution Function in accordance with the editor's strategy and its frequency is audience sensitive; and (3) BI provides background information and is determined by audience and news topics. Secondly, the salient grammatical elements in DOEs are discourse deictic demonstratives, address pronouns and nouns referring to "the news". Attribution is realized in reporting/reported clauses, and BI in a sentence, a clause or a nominal group. Thirdly, DOEs establish a hierarchy of (1) news, (2) summary/expansion and (3) item: including topic introduction and details. While Attribution is generally, and SBI solely, a function of detailing, NBI and proper names are generally a function of summary and topic introduction.

Being primarily addressed to audience and referring metatextually, the functions investigated support Sinclair's interactive and autonomous planes of discourse. They also shed light on the part(s) of the linguistic system which realize the metatextual/interactive function. Strictly, "discourse structure" inevitably involves a rank-scale; but news discourse also shows a convention of item "listing". Hence only within the boundary of variety (ultimately interpreted across language and in its situation) can textual functions and discourse structure be studied. Finally, interlingual variety study provides invaluable insights into a level of translation that goes beyond matching grammatical systems or situational factors, an interpretive level which has to be described in linguistic analysis of translation data.

Key terms

metatextual/interactive function
discourse structure
interlingual variety
radio news discourse
English and Arabic language

O. S. Al-Shabab
Ph.D
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To Farida

"ferreus essem, si te non amarem"

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Key to reference to corpus and numbering of examples and quotations

1) Reference to the corpus quotes the letters referring to the radio service and a number in which the first three decimals from the left indicate page number in the corpus (Volume Two), and the two decimals from the right indicate the line in which the quoted example starts. Example: (RF: 00412) reads Radio Four, page four, line twelve; and (RDA:12408) reads Radio Damascus Arabic, page one hundred and twenty-four, line eight.

2) The numbering of examples and quotations starts afresh (number 1) in each chapter: therefore a certain example may appear under a given number in a subsequent chapter regardless of its number in a previous chapter.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCING THE PRESENT STUDY

1.0 Media and communication studies and sociological research have long-standing interest in different aspects of news broadcasts as (2.1 below) illustrates. However, linguistically orientated works on news language are scarce, and those relevant to radio news will be reviewed in (2.2 below). The present study attempts to explore some aspects of the global organization and structuring of radio news broadcasts by examining three textual functions which provide some kind of comment on a part or the whole of a text: Discourse Organization, Attribution and Background Information. Moreover, the present corpus allows us to look into the three functions in English and Arabic news discourse, and therefore, it is hoped that the present work will enable us to draw some conclusions of relevance to interlingual discourse analysis as well as translation.

1.1 The aim of the present study

This thesis aims at studying the role of three textual functions in the organization and textual structuring of radio news discourse as a variety of English and Arabic. Basically, the research addresses the problem of the overall structure of Radio News Discourse, with the aim of defining the extent to which the three functions being studied are responsible for the structuring of discourse in this variety. The study of the overall structure of discourse evokes questions such as the following: how does this variety achieve unity, ie. make one text out of a series of "news

items"? How is the interactive function, which has been postulated on the interactive plane of discourse by Sinclair (1981), linguistically realized, and how and to what extent does this function signal and relate different parts of the news discourse to each other? And to what extent is the occurrence of these functions at a given place in the structure of discourse predictable?

Metalinguistic elements with a primarily interactive function are obvious candidates for the study of the overall structure of discourse. Thus, the textual function of these elements and their grammatical realizations are investigated first, and only then is the contribution of each of them to the structure of discourse assessed. Finally, in the ultimate resort the explanation of the textual functions being studied, and their role in the overall structuring of discourse are accounted for by the general underlying assumption that radio news discourse is a variety of language which has its own situational elements and its own established "activity type" (Levinson, 1979), activity that influences the function of utterances in a news text.

1.2 The present corpus

The present corpus amounts to about 74,000 words, making the extended corpus, about 38,000 of which constitute the restricted corpus.

1.2.1 The rationale behind the corpus

Many a researcher, including Quirk (1982) and Brown (1977), has drawn attention to the elaborate and standard language of radio

news. The implication of this feature of adopting a standardized presentation for the choice of our corpus is seen in that it supports the assumption that what is found in a small sample will be (1) typical and highly representative of radio news broadcasts. Furthermore, because the functions under investigation are, with one exception, both frequent and realized in short utterances, the need for a particularly large corpus does not arise. Finally, a large corpus was necessarily ruled out since the analysis of the data was to be handled manually without the assistance of computer technology.

Still in order to generalize the results, our corpus had to include samples from various radio news services including English and Arabic news texts in the original and in translation. Thus, to capture the change in audience and its effect, if it has any, on discourse structure, BBC Radio Four, BBC World Service and BBC Arabic Service are included, and for comparing across language, using BBC Radio Four news broadcasts, Radio Damascus Arabic and English (translated) news broadcasts are included. Finally, in order to examine the effect of length of text on the textual functions being studied, 2 minutes of short news texts from Radio Four are also included.

1.2.2 Description of the corpus

1.2.2.1 The recording of the corpus

For the actual recording of the data, typical radio news broadcasts from each of the above-mentioned radio services were chosen (see Table 1 below). The actual recording was carried out with ordinary radio cassettes and then the recordings were

transcribed. The timing of the recording was planned to be made (at least in the case of the restricted corpus) on the same day from the five services: three in Birmingham in Great Britain and two in Damascus in Syria. News texts recorded on the same day will allow maximizing the validity of the comparison between the choices made by different services, particularly the choice of news topics and their ordering to suit the listenership.

1.2.2.2 The restricted corpus

The restricted corpus includes about 38,000 words from six radio services, four in English and two in Arabic. In late November 1981, the recording of the following five radio services took place, and two news texts from each were transcribed and used as a core corpus for the early stage of the research.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------|
| 1. BBC Radio Four | (RF) |
| 2. BBC World Service | (WS) |
| 3. Radio Damascus English | (RDE) |
| 4. Radio Damascus Arabic | (RDA) |
| 5. BBC Arabic Service | (AS) |

Table (1): The corpus used in the present study

Code used to refer to these groups of texts:
 RF: BBC Radio Four; WS: BBC World Service; RFS: BBC Radio Four (short summary); RFM: BBC Radio Four (medium long news) AS:BBC Arabic Service; RT:Radio Two;RDE & RDA: Radio Damascus (by & Ar)

Type of corpus	Source of data	No of texts	No of words	Approximate date of recording	Place in Appendix (Vol. II)
EXTENDED CORPUS	Restricted corpus				
	BBC Radio Four (RF)	English 5	8780	22 & 25.11.1981 last week July 1983 14 & 17.11.1983	Vol. Two appendix (1) pp. 15-29
	BBC World Service (WS)	English 5	5600	20 & 25.11.1981 last week July 1983 17.11.1983/3rd week November 1983	Vol. Two appendix (1) pp. 29-44
	Radio Damascus English (RDE)	English 5	6260	20 & 25.11.1981 26 & 29.7.1983 3.8.1983	Vol. Two appendix (1) pp.44-63
	BBC Radio Four (short texts (RFs))	English 26	7840	from 14.1.1979 to 17.11.1983	Vol. Two appendix (1) pp. 64-90
	Radio Damascus Arabic (RDA)	Arabic 5	4930	20 & 25.11.81 26 & 29.1.1983 3.8.1983	Vol. Two appendix (1) pp.91-112
	BBC Arabic Service (AS)	Arabic 5	4610	as above	as above every other text
	Total of restricted corpus	51	38020		
	BBC Radio Four (RFm)	English 12	20880	from 7.5.1984 to 4.1.1985	Vol. Two appendix (2) pp.169-177
	BBC Radio Two (RT)	English 16	13920	from 21.11.1983 to 2.1.1985)	Vol. Two appendix (2) pp.178-186
Total of extended corpus	79	73520			

In the second stage, after some preliminary work on the ten-text corpus, it was decided that more data was needed. More recording was carried out in the second half of 1983 (see Table (1) for dates) and the result was another fifteen texts from the same five services used in the first recording. Thus, three news texts were added to each of the five groups to make up a total of 5 texts in each group.

At the same time, a total of 26 Radio Four two-minute news texts were obtained from a British teacher at Leeds University who had been using news broadcasts to teach listening comprehension to foreign students. This group of news texts was randomly selected from a large number of news transcripts made over a long period of time (1979-1983). This group of Radio Four short texts (RFs) is particularly important for carrying out comparisons with long news texts from the same service which had already been collected.

The total of 25 long news texts mentioned above together with the 26 RFs news texts constitute what we call the restricted corpus. The restricted corpus is exclusively used in analysing the two functions of Attribution and Background Information in Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7, and is also used together with more data to study Organizing Elements in Chapter Three. In Volume II, Appendix (1), all 51 news texts of the restricted corpus are transcribed, and the 10 Arabic texts are included in Arabic script and Roman transliteration.

The symbols used in the transliteration of Arabic examples in the body of the thesis, and of the ten Arabic texts in the corpus (Volume II, appendix (1), pp. 116-168) are given below. English translation of each example is provided, but in order to read the transliteration, knowledge of Arabic is assumed. The symbols used in the transliteration were chosen from Abboud (1968) and Mitchell & Barber (1972), and the basic rationale for the choice is the easiness of handling them on an ordinary typewriter. Thus /d/ is preferred to /ḏ/. Four symbols use a dot beneath the letter to distinguish it from a similar symbol in the Roman alphabet. Dots, however, are also used beneath initial-word letters when these would not be pronounced in continuous speech (this is usually to indicate that /a/ or /al/ are not pronounced in continuous speech).

Symbols used in the transliteration of the Arabic corpus

<u>Arabic</u> <u>symbol</u>	<u>Transliteration</u>	<u>Arabic</u> <u>symbol</u>	<u>Transliteration</u>
أ	a	س	s
ب	b	ع	ʿ
ج	j	ف	f
د	d	ص	ṣ
هـ	h	ق	q
و	w	ر	r
ز	z	ش	š
ح	ḥ	ت	t
ط	ṭ	ث	ṯ
ي	y	خ	x
ك	k	ذ	ḏ
ل	l	د	d
م	m	ز	z
ن	n	ج	j

Vowels:

ii	ي long i	i	ي short i
aa	ا long a	a	ا short a
uu	و long u	u	و short u

1.2.2.3 The extended corpus

For the purpose of studying the Organizing Elements (Chapter Three), it was found that these elements are not frequent enough, and that more data was needed to analyse them and make valid statements about their function. To accommodate for this need an extra amount of recording was carried out in 1984, and only the elements concerned were transcribed while the news topics were given labels to indicate the content of the news. All the extra texts come from BBC Radio Four (12 10-minute texts) and BBC Radio Two (16 10-minute and 5-minute texts). These two groups of news texts appear in Volume Two, Appendix (2). Table (1) above states the content of the restricted and extended corpus, with information about their length and date of recording.

Footnote

(1)

It is worthwhile to remember that news bulletins are one of the oldest (Briggs 1965, 154) and most important forms of radio services. Though a news bulletin would take a comparatively short time (2-30 minutes), when the total output of news in a day is calculated, its recurrence and importance as a variety of language can be better appreciated. For instance, BBC Radio Four allocates about 2 hours out of 18 hours on air for the news, and BBC World Service 2 hours and 12 minutes out of 24 hours on the air. This does not include current affairs and news interviews programmes. (The calculation is made by using advertised programmes as announced in The Guardian newspaper on Tuesday, 9 December 1986).

CHAPTER TWO

MEDIA AND LINGUISTIC INTEREST IN NEWS LANGUAGE, THEORETICAL LINGUISTIC ISSUES AND THE PRESENT APPROACH TO DISCOURSE STRUCTURE

2.0 Media and journalistic interest in the language of radio news is as old as radio news itself; a fact which is attested by Briggs, who writes:

"special efforts were made in 1930, we are told, to improve the presentation of news, so that items should be brief and simply worded. A very definite standard of quality was aimed at, and when news of that quality was lacking, no padding was employed." (Briggs, 1965:154)

On the other hand, linguists, who, as Robins (1964:15) has pointed out, take any piece of language to be their legitimate subject of study, have tackled a number of aspects of the language of radio news broadcasts (as (2.2) below demonstrates).

2.1 Media and ethnographical interest in the study of the news

Media study of the news can be exemplified in the celebrated work of the Glasgow Media Group, which studied the television coverage of the news in Britain over a period of 22 weeks (1975), in three volumes: Bad News (1976), More Bad News (1980) and Really Bad News (1982). The sociological approach of the work is announced at the outset, setting the aim as "to reveal the structures of the cultural framework which underpins the production of apparently neutral news". The neutrality of the mass media, BBC and ITV, turns out to be a big issue in this work, after the publication of which one can detect a change in the attitude of broadcasting institutions and public figures interested in broadcasting in Britain, seen in shifting the emphasis from "neutrality" to "impartiality". (1)

Volume I, Bad News, sets the scene by describing the news room (Bad News:60), the producers' view of news audience and news journalists (ibid, 68-69). Then it soon settles to present news items categories (ibid, 94) and their source of variation (ibid, 94, 101). After describing how the news is selected, the authors present long and detailed lists of industrial topics⁽²⁾ and their frequency in the corpus (ibid, 140, 143). This represents the basic evidence in the following discussion of what is in the news, exemplified in the coverage of the Cowley dispute and the Glasgow rubbish strike (ibid, 190, 244). Before the discussion of the coverage of the rubbish strike, we are provided with a chapter on the tenuous relation between Trade Unions in Britain and the media (ibid, chapter six, pp.205-243). Volume 1, Bad News, provides the backbone for the discussion of news coverage in British mass media, in the form of a content analysis of news items (kind of topic and duration of coverage in BBC and ITV) and the media point of view, which focuses on the bad aspect of industrial relations and Trade Union practices. We are, moreover, shown that "despite the extensive national television coverage of the issues raised, the actual case of the men on strike was neglected" (Bad News, 245).

The second volume, More Bad News, opens with a discussion of the coverage of "the miners' pay negotiation" in 1975, starting with an account of the economic background to the crisis and how it was presented by news journalists (More Bad News, 71-98). The criterion of "newsworthiness", from the journalists' point of view, is investigated in the "coding" of headlines. News journalists are blamed for the narrowness of their reporting, the participants in

making the news (the sides in a news topic, or in one side as the case of the Trade Unions' side) being so limited in number.

The second section of More Bad News presents a discussion of the language of the news, which in spite of starting with mentioning the three language functions postulated by Halliday, ideational, interpersonal and textual (More Bad News, 139), does not develop the discussion into a linguistic analysis of the data along those lines (see Chapter Eight (8.2.1); Trew, 1978; and Kress 1983). Rather the ordering of news items is discussed and "importance" is proposed as the basic criterion for ordering (More Bad News, 142). Thus we are told that "the first few phrases - the first few seconds - have to attract and hold the interest of the viewer and at the same time give the most important information" (ibid, 148). "Reported speech" is used to report certain "actors" instead of giving them direct access to the news, or reporting what they do or say from the editor's point of view (reported speech is dealt with in three and a half pages, ibid, 162). The importance of "reported speech" is shown in its frequency (16%) in BBC and (19%) in ITV, in the corpus of six months of recordings (cf. the percentage of attribution in the present study, Chapter 'Five).

Finally, in section two of More Bad News there is a lengthy discussion of the vocabulary of the news, an aspect of the news they feel to be worthy of investigating "for, as we shall show, there are significant absences in the vocabulary of industrial news reporting which, along with the vocabulary which is used, reveals selectivity and value preference for particular views of the causes and nature of industrial conflict" (ibid, 166). A comparison between the BBC

and ITV news is drawn using the frequency of vocabulary items denoting industrial action, "strike, dispute, industrial action etc" (ibid, 179). The main point of the study of language is to demonstrate that conscious and elaborate selections are made by the media to highlight what they consider important, and reporting (using reported speech) what and whom they choose, in a vocabulary of their own. This is done in order to promote a particular view of political life and industrial relations, a view that is judged to be anti-Trade Union and pro-establishment.

In the third and final section of More Bad News, the visual output of television news is examined, using the "image" as a unit of discussing the visual system of communication. Here again the viewers are asked to see the news either through "still" or "live" films, in the light of what the editor's view of the story would dictate (More Bad News, 300).

Volume Three, Really Bad News, published in 1982, is basically a continued effort to build and give more weight to the argument presented in the first two volumes. More data is discussed and television "main news" is compared with "current affairs programmes". After analysing and discussing television and media coverage of industrial relations and reviewing the role of the media in "a class society", the authors conclude with "three main criticisms" that can be taken to summarize their findings in the whole work:

"First, they [broadcasters] do not reflect the existing range of views in a balanced fashion. (...) Second, they are undemocratic in their choice of who is allowed to speak and who is defined as important. (...) Finally, by seeking to process information within what they take to be the consensual view they violate their own canons of accuracy and impartiality." (Really Bad News, 1982:144)

By revealing the hierarchical structure of broadcasting institutions under study, and by showing the biased views presented by these institutions, this comprehensive work has shed light on some questions it set out to answer. But the questions of institutional structure, its cultural forms, its evaluation and judgement, and how these aspects of institution affect the content and presentation of the news, are fundamentally sociological questions. Moreover, although the work touches on the language of the news (Volume II, More Bad News, chapters 6, 7, and 8) and provides a limited amount of statistics on the use of "reported speech" and lengthy comments on vocabulary choices, it does not deal with these aspects of language thoroughly. Nor does it offer a strict linguistic analysis within a linguistic framework. However typical of sociological and media studies of news, this work of the Glasgow Media Group did not address itself to a linguistic analysis of the news.

Other works on the media have discussed television news output from different angles. A recent study of British television coverage of the 1984 miners' strike has investigated among other things the use of titles in reference to key figures of the groups participating in the conflict (Aston University Communication Group: see Cumberbatch et al, 1986, 95). Thus it was found out that the name of the Mineworkers' leader (Mr Arthur Scargill) was used

without a title more than that of the Director of the Coal Board (Mr Ian MacGregor). Still, although dropping the title can be culturally sensitive, the news offers plenty of other linguistic clues about person names that may shed light on the editor's judgement. Moreover, the use of proper names in news discourse poses other interesting questions than their use of titles, the omission of which may after all (at least in English news) be a sign of friendliness (see Chapter Seven below).

Other media studies have concentrated on the producer's side in news production. This type of work can be exemplified by Golding and Elliott's book Making the News (1979). Here the relationship between sociologists and journalists is discussed and a brief history of journalism in Europe is provided. Then the social background of broadcasting is discussed in relation to the state, regulation, constraints on news production and intervention in the news. The book also discusses the social processes and the education and career of news journalists, to end with a chapter on bias, objectivity and ideology.

The opposite end of news communication process, the listeners' end, is studied by Hartley, who provides news audience with "some of the discursive concepts and strategies for approaching news texts" (Hartley, 1982, 191). In this book we are given an outline of the listeners' comprehension of the news, and later shown how it is possible to adopt a positive approach to reading (interpreting) the news, in order to create one's own text, a

process which is hoped to give the reader (listener) "a more productive role" in reading or listening to the news.

As a communication event, radio news, along with other types of "radio talk", has been studied from an ethnographical perspective (Goffman 1981). In a 131-page chapter on "Radio Talk", Goffman analyses the speech situation of speaking on the radio, in monologue and dialogue forms. Goffman discusses aspects of talking on the air such as routine conduct, self-consciousness and the competence for executing Radio Talk (Goffman, 1981:199). He goes on to argue that "competency in speech production would seem to be the proper central concern in the study of announcing" (Goffman 1981:203). Having discussed different aspects of "*competency in speech production*", Goffman goes on to discuss errors of speech production (ibid, pp.202-207), "speech faults" (ibid, 217-220), and the textual constraints on announcers (ibid, 287). What concerns us here is that Goffman is studying the specific situation of "radio talk", including news broadcasts, and how this situation contributes to the execution of these talks, their specific constraints and their possible errors and faults. Some of these situational factors such as the talk to listeners the announcer cannot see, and the absence of any sort of immediate feedback, do affect (and help interpret) certain linguistic elements in news discourse (as in the case of service identification, which was mentioned by Quirk (1982) and is dealt with in 3.3.1 below). But whether the situational factors are capable of explaining the relation of linguistic elements, such as the interaction of textual functions, to the rest of news discourse is yet to be investigated.

2.2 Previous linguistic studies of radio news language

Compared with linguistic research on newspaper language, research on radio news language has been late and sketchy. But it has tackled different levels of linguistic analysis, lexical, phonological and syntactic, and has considered some aspects of radio news language, such as the spoken mode and standard style.

In a short study (a 15-page chapter), Tomori applies a lexicostatistical formula to a corpus of about 10,000 words from the BBC Nigeria Broadcasting Corporation (NBC), and the Voice of America (VOA), in order to "establish to what extent there is individual diversity in the use of words" (Tomori 1978:170). This measurement of vocabulary density detects a high frequency of "the" and "of" in all three groups of news English, and particularly in the BBC text. Tomori uses this result to identify a list of grammatical structures in which the most frequent items "of" and "the" are found. The chapter culminates with a discussion of stylistic differences in the frequent grammatical structures in the three groups being studied.

Now as far as the frequency of "of" and "the" is concerned, it is natural that grammatical or structural words would be more frequent than individual words with lexical property (Ure 1971). In fact Ure (1971:450) has shown that the lexical level of linguistic analysis can be successfully used, by measuring "lexical density", to differentiate different varieties (registers) of a language, without the need to move to other levels of analysis as Tomori does when he discusses grammatical structures. However, it must be said here that the study of grammatical realizations can in

itself be used to differentiate varieties of a language (see Gregory 1967, and Ure and Ellis 1977).

Moving to the phonological level of linguistic analysis, in addition to Goffman who was mentioned earlier, we find two fairly short treatments of this aspect of radio news language. The first is Diem's short paper (Diem, 1974) which is written in German and which uses a very short Arabic corpus: three news items (from Lebanese, Syrian and Egyptian Arabic broadcasts), two paragraphs from speeches of the Presidents of Lebanon and Egypt (from radio) and two radio talks from Syrian and Egyptian broadcasts, in addition to other dialogues from Arabic broadcasts from the same three radio services. The procedure followed in this paper is to start by stating the dialect used, the speaker's identity, the topic, the situation and the type of language (eg. classical Arabic etc.). Then a transliteration of the sample is given and is followed by a rather short comment (sometimes amounting to 20 lines). Diem's main point is to show that phonological variations do exist between different dialect dominated Arabic broadcasting services, whether in the case of the news or other radio programmes.

The second reference to the phonological level of news language is found in a chapter in Brown (1977) which uses a limited amount of news English data: two short news items and many utterances from news items, in addition to two short extracts from radio interviews. The discussion centres on the idea that the elaborate reading of radio news follows a pattern of tonic structure, a pattern which places the tone on the last lexical item (Brown 1977, 86). Furthermore, Brown suggests that the tonic structure of a news item shows that

"the final tonic syllable in the complete item is marked by an even bigger pitch movement" (ibid, 86). Then these patterns of tonic structure are contrasted with those occurring in spoken speech of radio interviews. While in Diem's paper the phonological variations are used to substantiate the argument for the presence of a dialectal difference in radio Arabic, Brown uses the function of intonation (tone and pitch structure) to show that this function is realized differently in different varieties of radio output, news and spontaneous conversation.

Now leaving works which aim at one level of linguistic analysis as in the above studies, we find that Randolph Quirk, included a chapter, "Speaking into the Air", on the characteristics of radio news style in a book on English style, Style and Communication in the English Language (1982). The chapter opens with a comparison between the language of newspaper and radio news, where Quirk observes that only in the former can the reader see the whole text and take his/her time in reading. Thus, presentation is of special importance when one is speaking into the air (Quirk, 1982:8), and this is best exemplified in the news language, since here we find that "medium specific formulae and style cliches seem otherwise to be most noticeable in the presentation of the news,..." (ibid, 8). Not only the presentation of the news but also other stylistic features are discussed, and thus "in general the stylistic changes are both medium specific and conscious" (ibid, 14). Moreover, the news is presented from an impersonal point of view thus lacking the personal touch of other radio programmes (ibid, 9). Finally, because it is addressed to a wide listenership, the language of the

news shows another stylistic feature in its use of the standard form of English, which recommends it to Quirk, since this means that "the BBC could best fulfil a role of influencing for good by providing - within such obvious limits as legal constraints - free rein to its creative staff" (Quirk 1982:18). Quirk's main point is that the BBC, being in an advantageous position of addressing millions of people, has a role in promoting standard language; an idea which is advocated by Quirk on other occasions.⁽³⁾ Other stylistic features considered by Quirk in this chapter are relatable to Goffman's ethnographical description of radio talk. But more than that, Quirk highlights the above-mentioned linguistic features of news language that are determined by this medium as they occur in actual texts.

For a large scale investigation of radio news language, one has to turn to Bell (1977), who undertook in a PhD thesis the task of investigating the hypothesis that "differences between news styles of Auckland's radio stations can be accounted for by differences in station audiences" (Bell 1977:134). To account for variations within a given variety by examining "situational dimension" (to use Ure and Ellis's term, 1977:202), is to utilize a general principle in intra variety (within a variety) instead of inter variety, to decide the boundary of inclusion of a variety from outside. To put it in Bell's words, "news style is to be regarded as merely the extreme case of a general-sociolinguistic principle, that a speaker shifts towards the dialect of his addressee" (Bell 1977:68).

Bell makes use of two types of data: audience data which is obtained from an audience survey about the three radio stations under study, and news language data which constitutes international news agencies reports of news events and the individual station reporting the agencies' reports. The ultimate aim is to correlate audience figures with linguistic realizations in each of the three stations. An important section of Bell's thesis is devoted to providing a description of the syntactic structure of radio news language using transformational generative grammar, with the objective of discovering what Bell calls sub-editing rules, "rules which convert one surface structure [that of the news agency report] to another [that of the radio news statements]" (Bell 1977:ii).

The description of grammatical realizations of news variety is desirable in itself, but is also employable in comparison with descriptions of different news data (as in the case of appositive structure, 7.3.1 below). However, Bell's wider interest in news editing mainly concentrates on studying the syntactic structures of news editing which can be used as an indicator of editing errors (Bell 1984). Bell proves the relationship between news style and news audience in the presence of a shift towards the dialect of the audience.

Now although its study of the situational factor of audience and news editing makes Bell's work more relevant to the current investigation than any other work reviewed here, still Bell is interested neither in textual functions, nor in the discourse level beyond the sentence. Hence it would be interesting to see if a shift in using textual functions exists when the level of formality

and dialect are held stable. Secondly it would be interesting to ask whether the change, if it occurs, is in quality or quantity of the textual functions being studied, two questions which are addressed in the present work (see 2.7 below).

2.3 The study of newspaper news reporting

Before ending this rapid review of some linguistic research on radio news broadcasts, mention should be made of linguistic research on the parallel area of newspaper news reporting. This research area has a longer history and sets out to talk about issues similar to those of radio news, which is not surprising if we take into consideration the common topics and communication function of both kinds of journalistic reporting of the news. Still, enough differences in medium (spoken/written), emphasis on personal or impersonal points of view, and in the space available, make the resulting language of newspaper and radio journalism belong to a different variety as Quirk has observed (Quirk 1982:7). A few recent works on newspaper news reporting can be mentioned here.

First, two papers by Richardson (1980) and Weizman (1984) have dealt with Attribution as a discourse function. Richardson examines this function in British newspapers and concentrates on the aspect of shifting responsibility for the attributed statement (see Chapter Four for a discussion of this aspect in radio news). Weizman's paper (1984) on the other hand, draws upon her PhD thesis, which discusses attribution in relation to Hebrew and French, and she includes English data from Canadian newspapers as well. The main point of Weizman's paper is to see if newspaper register is

universal (found in the three languages being analysed). For this purpose she provides a classification of attribution function in newspapers' language, a classification which covers cases in which the writer shifts responsibility to cases in which the writer supports the statement being attributed (Weizman 1984).

Second, another focus point in research on newspapers' language has been the question of ideology. Kress and Trew (1978) have used the three function Hallidayan model (ideational, interpersonal and textual, (Halliday 1970)) to analyse the ideational function through its correspondent linguistic system of transitivity. Thus, transitivity relations (as postulated by Halliday 1967, 1968) are manipulated to show the type of verbs used and the type of subject/object participant roles used in newspaper articles, and how transitivity choices reflect the writer's bias.

2.4 Linguistic approaches to the study of language variety

By investigating the structure of texts from corresponding varieties of English and Arabic, although not primarily contrastive, the present work is ultimately contributing to the study of interlingual varieties (Hartmann, 1980:32). Having reviewed prominent studies of radio and television news and previous linguistic media research on radio news language, we move on to review the works on language variety, especially in the works of the "Firthian" London school of linguistics (see Bazel et al. (eds) (1966) for works of the followers of this school; and Sampson (1980, 212-235) for its history). Then a review of the approaches to the study of "discourse structures" follows in 2.5. This review will

show the kind of questions that have attracted interest and are still in need of comprehensive treatment. In 2.6, the discourse level of "textual function" is reviewed. Finally, the present approach to the study of the organization and structuring of the variety under examination, Radio News Broadcasts, is put forward in 2.7.

Works on language variety often seem to imply (as in Halliday et al 1964), and sometimes explicitly state, (as Longacre has) that "we classify all possible discourse..." (Longacre, 1982:460). Two main approaches to the classification of actual texts as belonging to some variety can be recognized: (1) what can be called "the non-situational" approach which does not emphasize situational factors such as participants in a language event, and (2) "the situational approach", which can be represented by the works of linguists like Halliday et al (1964) and Hymes (1972).

2.4.1 Non-situational approaches to language variety

Essentially this approach is negatively distinguished by not using the situational parameters familiar to the students of language in its social context (as in the works of the followers of Firth in Britain), and the students of sociolinguistics and ethnomethodology (as in the works of Dell Hymes and Gumperz). The most viable and explicit non-situational theory of language variety, or "discourse typology", has been provided by Longacre (1982). His is a strong and explicit view on variety which has rarely found expression. Longacre holds that "we can classify all possible discourse according to two basic parameters: Contingent Temporal

Succession and Agent Orientation" (Longacre, 1982:460). Contingent Temporal Succession "refers to a framework of temporal succession in which some (often most) of the events or action are contingent upon previous events or actions" (ibid:460). While Agent Orientation "refers to orientation towards agents with at least partial identity of agent reference running through the discourse" (ibid:460).

Using the presence or absence of one or both parameters the classification yields "four way classification of discourse types: narrative discourse [e.g. story, history]..., procedural discourse [e.g. how-to-do-it]..., behavioural discourse [e.g. political speeches of candidates]..., and Expository discourse..." (Longacre, 1982:461). Having decided that a given text belongs to one of these four discourse types, the classification moves on to identify more sub-types by allowing each of the four basic types to choose in terms of plus or minus from two other parameters of "Projection" and "Tension". Projection "has to do with a situation or action which is contemplated, enjoined, or anticipated, but not realized", while Tension "has to do with whether a discourse reflects a struggle or a polarization of some sort" (Longacre, 1982:462). Longacre's classification of discourse types can be summarized in figure (1) below.

The interesting point to notice here is that this classification does not employ situational parameters such as subject matter, medium etc. On the other hand, the classification is comprehensive and neat (i.e. can be indicated by presence or absence of features), which makes it a suitable tool for Longacre's purpose of

incorporating it in a scheme of "language typology" (Longacre, 1982:457).

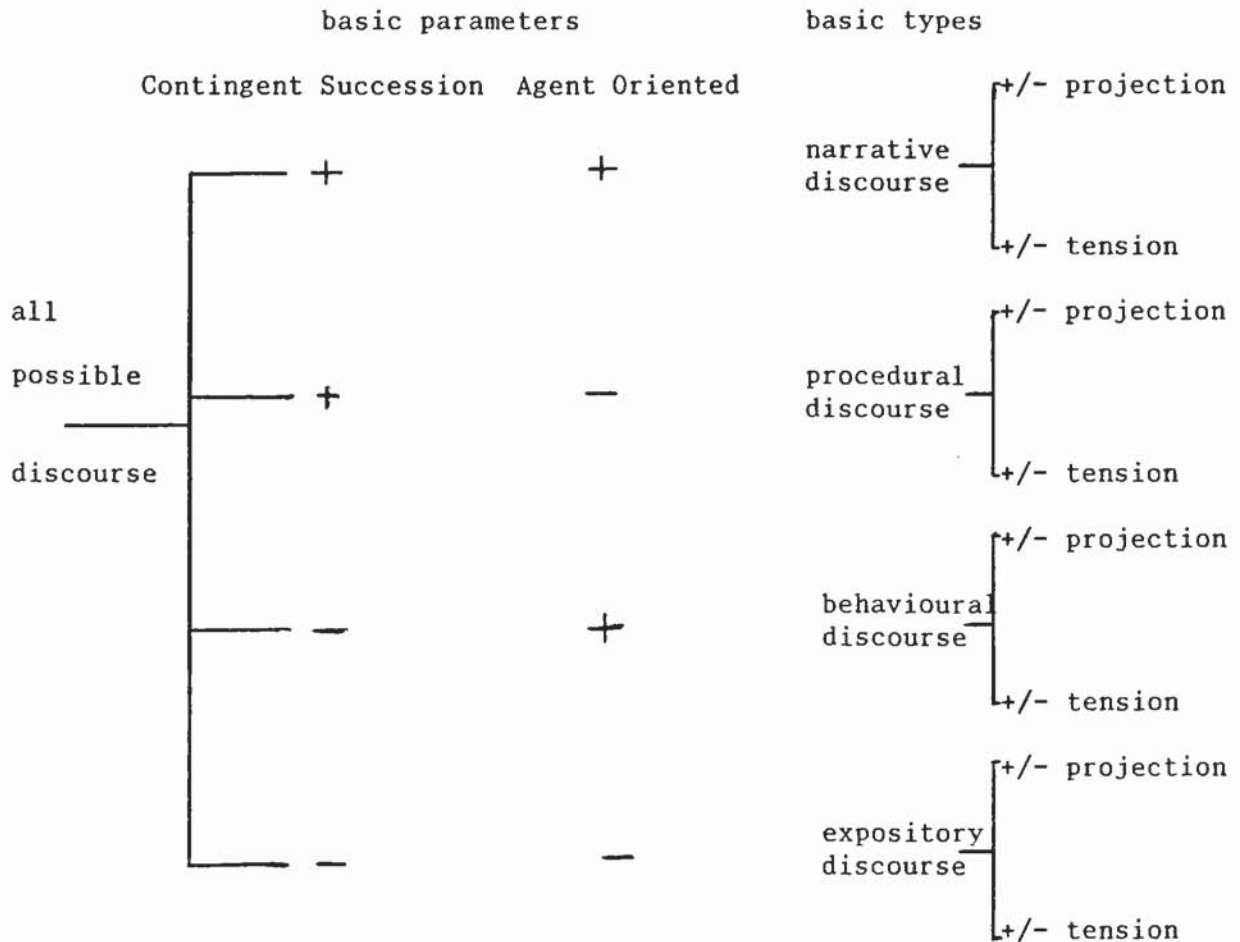


Figure (1) Longacre's non-situational classification of discourse types

According to Longacre's model, radio news discourse should be classified as narrative discourse (minus projection; plus tension, since news items may have conflicting sides being reported). But if the investigation is limited to these aspects, it would not be possible to study the peculiar characteristics of organizing this discourse which is delivered through the medium of radio. Nor would

it be possible to examine "textual functions" (see 2.7.3 below) in relation to different target listeners.

Another model of classifying language variety that may be grouped with Longacre's non-situational approach is seen in the use of the (primarily) conceptual interpretation of "generic frame" as suggested by linguists like Goldstein and Roberts (1979:30-33). Although the interpretation of a "generic frame" makes room for the "language user" (ibid:31), the social situation and social relation between participants are assumed to be known. According to Goldstein and Roberts, "the generic frames are selected on the basis of clues implicit in the scheduling request; knowledge-based reasoning begins with a recognition process" (Goldstein and Roberts, 1979:30), which means that the frame is primarily conceptual. However, not every frame (script or schema) approach is necessarily non-situational, since one of the pioneers of this theory, Fillmore, has also argued for a sociolinguistic component that would capture the cultural and situational dimension of variety (Fillmore, 1973).

Other works on variety that can be classified as non-situational have devised techniques that are applied to a given corpus (of texts) and are found to distinguish between varieties at a certain lexical level with no reference to the situation(s) in which the language was produced. First among these is Ure's technique of "lexical density" (Ure, 1971), which simply calculates the ratio of lexical words to structural words in a sample of texts. This technique was proved to distinguish between varieties (see Ure 1971). Another non-situational technique has been developed and used by Phillips (1985), who used the density of collocations (the

patterning of collocation density) to establish the "isotopics" and ultimately "macro-structure" of literary and scientific discourse.

2.4.2 Situational approaches to language variety

It remains the case that the overwhelming bulk of work on variety can be fairly called situational. Within the broad margins of this approach, one should include firstly the main elaborators on JR Firth's notion of "context of situation", starting from the influential work of Halliday et al (1964) and their followers such as Ellis (1966), Ure and Ellis (1977), and Crystal and Davey (1979). Also in this school should be included Sinclair and Coulthard's work on discourse analysis (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). Secondly one can mention sociolinguistic works carried out in the United States, particularly the works of Del Hymes (1972). Thirdly and finally the situational approach to language variety can be traced in the works of continental (European) linguists such as de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981).

The influential works of Halliday and his associates on language variety amount to one of the most comprehensive and fruitful attempts at this area in linguistics. Following Malinowski's view on the social nature of the linguistic system and Firth's notion of "context of situation" (Firth, 1957:226), Halliday has maintained special emphasis on this aspect of language. He writes:

- (1) The image of language as merely the direct reflection of subject matter is simplistic and unsound as Malinowski pointed out fifty years ago; there is much more to it than that, and this is what the notion of register is about. (Halliday, 1978:33)

Halliday et al (1964) have suggested three situational parameters to be used in the classification of language variety or "register" as they technically call it. To them "register, in this view, may be distinguished according to field of discourse, mode of discourse and style of discourse" (Halliday et al 1964:90). Field of discourse "refers to what is going on" and is exemplified by "biology or mathematics" (ibid:90); mode of discourse "refers to the medium or mode of language activity" (speaking or writing) (ibid:91); and style of discourse "refers to relations among the participants" (ibid:92). Each of these features reflects "a feature of the immediate situation" (Halliday et al, 1964:93), a concept which was elaborated upon by Ellis as "immediate context" (Ellis 1965:11 and Ure and Ellis 1977) a term which is distinguished from "wide context" (Ure and Ellis 1977, 199). Halliday later restated the three discourse features to make "field of discourse" correspond to subject matter, "tenor of discourse" to relationship between participants and "mode of discourse" to medium (speaking/writing) (4) (Halliday, 1978:62).

One of the main expounders of the above Hallidayan proposal is Gregory, (Gregory 1967 and Gregory and Carroll, 1978). Gregory's contribution to the study of variety is best seen as an elaboration and explanation of the classification put forward by Halliday et al (1964). He utilizes the same three parameters used by Halliday, except that in 1978 Gregory and Carroll use them in the plural to give "fields of discourse, tenors of discourse and modes of discourse" (Gregory and Carroll, 1978). One aspect of their elaboration is on the parameter of "mode of discourse", in which

they distinguish a wide scope of variation in the apparently simple choice between speaking and writing. Thus this parameter should distinguish between "conversation and dialogue" on the one hand, and "conversation and monologue" on the other (Gregory and Carroll, 1978:38-39). Also a distinction should be made between "lecture and article" and "labels of food production and poems" (ibid:38-44). The parameter speaking is further divided into "spontaneously speaking" (e.g. conversing or monologue), and "non-spontaneously speaking" (e.g. reciting or speaking what is written). This latter relates to writing and can be realized as "speaking what is written to be spoken as if not written" (e.g. script), or "to be spoken" (e.g. news bulletins) or "not necessarily to be spoken" (e.g. literary works) (Gregory and Carroll, 1978:47). It is in relation to the change of mode from written to speaking and the demand put by the hearer that Gregory and Carroll give the news bulletins as an example which manipulates the "headlines" (Gregory and Carroll, 1978:44).

It could be fairly said that the most persistent elaborator on Halliday's classification of variety (or register) is J Ellis with his collaborator J Ure.⁵ In Ellis (1965) the three Hallidayan parameters to distinguish register were found relevant to institutional linguistics, and later they were related to variety comparison between languages (1966, 1974). Though Ure and Ellis have produced a number of works on varieties⁽⁵⁾, their main contribution to variety study is to be found in a chapter on "Descriptive Linguistics and Register Classification" (Ure and Ellis, 1977). Here they define register as "a situational variety"

(Ure and Ellis, 1977:198), and postulate four "situational parameters" of "(1) subject matter, (2) medium, (3) personal and social relations between speaker/writer and addressee, and (4) social function of the language event, "which correspond respectively to four linguistic features of "(1) field, (2) mode, (3) tenor and (4) role of language" (Ure and Ellis 1977:200). Ure and Ellis also define the methodology of variety analysis; thus

- (2) Linguistic features (which may be of various kinds) are found by means of descriptive analysis; contextual features are found by means of analysis of particular context of situation ... the study of the immediate situation involves the examination of the features of the context of situation of the individual language event. (Ure and Ellis, 1977:199)

By adding one parameter to Halliday's original three parameters, and redefining them, Ure and Ellis may be taken, like Halliday, to imply that every text in a language should be attributable to a given variety. By stipulating that register exists only when the situational parameters correlate with linguistic features (Ure and Ellis 1977:201), they leave this question wide open. In fact, the opposite view may hold, since it may well be that in order for a correlation between contextual parameters and linguistic features to exist, a high level of standardization (and institutionalization) is a prerequisite, the thing which may not be found in many language situations.

In a later work, Ure and Ellis give register study a "comparative" dimension (which had found expression in Ellis 1974 unpublished mimeograph) by emphasizing the range of varieties (6) (registers) found in different languages .

Another work which manipulates the Hallidayan three parameters is that of Crystal and Davey (1969). However, the Hallidayan register dimensions are found not to be enough. Thus discourse features include: medium (speech/writing) and participation (the difference between monologue and dialogue), and four other features are added: (1) province (subject matter), (2) status (social relations), (3) modality (user's preference of certain features), and (4) singularity (other personal, occasional features) (Crystal & Davy, 1979: 68-79).

Moreover, in Britain it is not infrequent to find researchers who focus on one or more of the Hallidayan parameters. Sometimes their work shares the sociolinguistic concern of identifying a comprehensive and detailed description of speech situation (as Hymes advocates, Hymes (1972) below). Such is the chapter by Johns-Lewis (1985) which concentrates on the parameter of mode by comparing the same texts in different situations: reciting, reading aloud and speaking on the stage (drama), and correlating them with the phonological pitch pattern characterizing each of them (Johns-Lewis 1985).

The use of the situational approach to language variety is also found in the works of European (continental) linguists such as de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). Concerning the classification of language variety, they hold that "a typology of texts must be correlated with typologies of discourse actions and situations" (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:183). Furthermore, in their search for an "ideal [text] type" (ibid:183) they recognize that "the demands or expectations associated with a text type can be modified

or even overridden by the requirement of the context of occurrence" (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:183). Their generalizations about a text type are open to adjustment and change in accordance with "the context of occurrence", de Beaugrande and Dressler also maintain that the "evolution of text types as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics" (ibid:10) is motivated by intertextuality, "a factor which makes the utilization of one text depend upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts!" (ibid, 1981:10).

No elaborations on the elements of situation are proposed by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), but no shortage of those is to be found in works in the areas of sociolinguistics and ethnomethodology (Gumperz and Hymes 1972). This orientation can be represented by Hymes (1972), who specifies the external framework of language variety which includes the following factors: (1) speech community, (2) language field, (3) speech event, (4) speech act, (5) speech style, (6) way of speaking and (7) components of speech. The last factor, components of speech, comprises sixteen components: (1) message form (how something is said), (2) message content (topic), (3) setting (time, place and general circumstances), (4) scope (psychological setting), (5) speaker or sender, (6) addressor, (7) hearer, or receiver, or audience, (8) addressee, (9) purposes-outcomes (conventionally recognized and expected outcomes), (10) purposes - goals (the purpose of an event from community standpoint, (11) key (tone, manner in which the act is done), (12) channels (medium of transmission), (13) forms of speech (verbal processes of a community), (14) norms of interaction (specific behaviours and

properties that attach to speaking), (15) norms of interpretation, (16) genres (categories such as poem, myth, tale, etc.) (Hymes, 1972:52-65).

This comprehensive treatment of speech environment provided by Hymes is not unrelatable to the situational approach developed by Halliday and his associates. In fact Halliday himself has made the point when he stated "... and mode covers roughly Hymes' channel, key and genre" (Halliday, 1978:62).

2.5 Approaches to overall discourse structure

The main task of the present work is to see if the organization and structuring (textual patterning) of Radio News Discourse can be revealed or better understood through the study of some basically metatextual and/or interactive elements. But what is discourse structure? And how can successive parts of discourse be related? What are the approaches that have been put forward to study discourse structure?

Three approaches to the study of discourse structure are recognized here: (1) the textual approach, (2) the "content-structure" approach, and (3) the conceptual/pragmatic approach. It should be said that all three approaches are "textual" in the sense that they are founded upon and applicable to "texts". But the use of these approaches emphasizes that the structure is being essentially investigated and interpreted by resort to "text" in first approach, to "content" in the second and to mental, conceptual or pragmatic components in the third.

2.5.1 The term "discourse" and "discourse structure"

Apart from its traditional use in certain academic disciplines (in philosophy) to mean language or a kind of language, and (in sociology) to mean a type of actual (rather than a theoretical notion) of language production (as in the rather sociological work of Burton and Carlen 1979), in linguistics the term discourse refers to the study of language beyond the unit of sentence (Harris 1952, Halliday et al 1964). Halliday maintains the sense of the term in his works as when he elaborates on "the tenor of discourse, field of discourse, etc." (Halliday, 1978:62) However, alongside the term "discourse", Halliday uses the term "text" in a similar fashion as when he speaks of the "macrostructure of the text" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:324). Sinclair and Coulthard use the term "discourse" to refer to a level of linguistic analysis beyond the sentence, and thus they set out among other things, to answer the question "what linguistic evidence is there for discourse units larger than the sentence?" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:4).

Moreover, Stubbs has observed that the term "discourse" has been associated with interactive (spontaneous) spoken language, whereas "text" is associated with written language (Stubbs, 1983:9-10). However, he makes no distinction between them. Still no such distinction is implied in the works on "text linguistics" produced in Europe. Here the notion of "text" is an idealization from instances of actual texts, and the main concern is to define the elements and rules that pertain to this level of linguistic analysis (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:3, 23). In the present work, the term "discourse" is used to refer to the theoretical unit

beyond the sentence, while the term "text" is strictly reserved for referring to an actual realization of discourse.

As far as the overall structuring of discourse is concerned, it has been approached in a loose or strict fashion as Hoey has observed (Hoey, 1983, 11). The strict interpretation of the "structure" of discourse is best represented by Sinclair and Coulthard, who stipulate that discourse analysis should account for "the whole of the data" (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:16) and explicitly state the relationship(s) between the different units by placing them on a hierarchical rank-scale (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975:20). However, other approaches to discourse structure and textual patterning are found to concentrate on one or more aspects of sequencing of textual elements, and leave the rest of the text being studied. This is the case in the work on "turn-taking" and "telephone conversation opening" (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974, and Schegloff 1971 respectively). The present work starts off by identifying organizational elements in news discourse (Chapter Three), but moves on to investigate elements inside the larger units of news discourse (see 2.7.2 below for the discussion of the approach to question of discourse structure in the present work).

2.5.2 The textual approach to discourse structure

The study of discourse structure can take a strict stand on the notion of structure or a less committed one as has been mentioned in the previous section. Underlining the importance of structure in modern linguistic theory, Sinclair writes:

"the notion of linearity in language is that only one element of a structure is in process at any point in the presentation of utterances, and that succession is the only ultimate relationship of elements."

(Sinclair 1980:111)

Concerning the study of discourse structure, Sinclair and Coulthard have stipulated that "the whole of the data should be describable; the descriptive system should be comprehensive" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:16). The "rank-scale" they use requires the definition of all the ranks and the relationship(s) between them. If we accept that the strictest and most delicate and detailed description of a given structure is the most predictive (Sinclair 1980 and Halliday 1978), then Sinclair and Coulthard's strict stand in connection with "structure" will yield the most powerful (i.e. predictive) model of discourse.

Other researchers using the textual approach include conversational analysts like Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (e.g. joint work 1974). They have concentrated on the study of turn-taking, opening and closing of conversation. The data they are working on, conversation, and their analysis have made the case for what Levinson calls "the 'methodological priority of the study of conversation over the study of other kinds of talk or other kinds of text" (Levinson 1983:321). But in conversational analysis, as in Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, the occurrence of a textual element in a given position in a given sequence in the conversation constitutes the crucial point of deciding whether a structural relation beyond the sentence does exist. Criticisms of the textual approach, particularly Sinclair and Coulthard's "rank-scale", have focused on

two aspects of the model. Firstly, the nature of the function of the act, the minimum unit, has been criticized with regard to the label given to it (see Johns-Lewis' review of Edmondson whose model is greatly influenced by the Sinclair-Coulthard model, 1983:127). Another aspect that has been criticized is the general assumption that the classroom situation should be typical, which in later research resulted in forcing the data into the model, or assuming a situation "should not be tagged as a priority ..." (Burton, 1980:123, and 1981:62). Although the textual approach to discourse structure, particularly the strong version of it, (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard) has been subject to various criticisms, it still remains the most explanatory hypothesis concerning this linguistic phenomenon.

2.5.3 The "content structure" approach to discourse structure

This is the oldest and most well-known approach (especially outside linguistics) to the study of discourse structure. The basic notion that is being identified and used to formulate a sequence is "content". The way the content is referred to varies from one theory to another. Initiating a long tradition of literary rhetorics, Aristotle used the following "labels" to refer to the units in a tragedy: "complication" and "denouement" (1963, 31-32). The order of these units (which correspond to acts in the tragedy) is vital, and hence the name given here to this approach - "content-structure" approach. What we have got here is labelling of large chunks of discourse, and a statement about the order of these "chunks". The Aristotelian approach to the study of literary works has been taught in Europe through the ages, but recently it has

been revitalized by new proposals concerning the structure of literary narratives (see Hutchins 1977 for a review).

Another content-structure hypothesis has been suggested in connection with science discourse. The basic idea here is that of a "problem-solution" sequence (See Hutchins 1977 for a review). Hoey has suggested that many structured patterns may be found but "practical considerations prevent all the patterns being given equal treatment ..." (Hoey, 1983:3). Thus he goes on to say that "one common pattern - the problem-solution pattern - has therefore been selected for detailed study,..." (ibid:31). However, Hutchins (1977) has observed that although the literary theory and problem-solution hypothesis do apparently stay apart and give the impression of being irreconcilable, it is possible to find common ground in the "succession" (Hutchins, 1977:28). The situation or state is the starting point in both theories; the "problem" (disequilibrium) is the central issue; and solution (denouement) is worked out in both cases. However, it is acknowledged by Hoey that the problem-solution pattern is not applicable to all types of discourse. For the present purposes the news broadcasts could hardly have been approached as a "problem-solution" sequence.

2.5.4 The conceptual/pragmatic approach to discourse structure

A number of approaches to discourse structure can be described as conceptual and/or pragmatic. These include the frame theories (Minsk 1980), the "concept-sequence" theory (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981) and the speech acts theory (Widdowson, 1978).

The frame or schema approach can be represented by the works of Minsk (1980). There are different terms employed to refer to the phenomenon, but they seem to be relatable to a gestalt notion that a mental parallel to a given situation exists and can be used to explain the relationship between different parts of a given text. Thus according to Van Dijk "our expectations about the semantic structure of discourse are determined by our knowledge about the structure of the world in general and particular state of affairs or courses of events" (Van Dijk, 1977:99). Thus an "office-frame" would include "a set of typical office individuals and typical activities in offices" (ibid:99).

A frame/schema theory can be epistemically or socially interpreted: epistemically because a schema theory is basically a theory about knowledge (Rumelhart, 1984:2) and socially because it is conceived of in relation to certain people who belong to a given culture (Cicourel, 1980). Frame/schema theories, moreover, have an applied aspect in programming computers, designing teaching programmes, and even in interlingual and intercultural comparisons. Still, taken to the ultimate extreme, the frame approach informs us more about the knowledge or cultural aspects of language users than about the linguistic system itself.

In the second conceptual approach, called here "the concept-sequence" approach, the structure of discourse is seen in the linkage or movement in a text from one concept to another. Thus for de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), the relationship between concepts and their order in a text reveal an essential property of "text", namely coherence, which in their words "concerns the way in which

the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of Concepts and Relations which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant" (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:4).

Another work that uses the term "coherence" for discourse overall structure is Widdowson (1978). Widdowson adopts a pragmatic speech act approach to define coherence as having "to do with the illocutionary functions of ... utterances" (Widdowson, 1978:52). To illustrate this, Widdowson uses short question/answer conversation as in (3) below.

(3) - the bell is ringing.

- I'm in the bath.

Now, although the function of an utterance can be related to a speech act as Sinclair and Coulthard have shown (1975) and as Levinson has observed in relation to the works of conversation analysts (Levinson, 1983:302-303), still to apply this to the structure of a monologue of an extended length (a whole news text or a whole story) is a different matter.

Having recognized the above three approaches to questions of discourse structure, we should emphasize that this clear cut review represents a possible classification using explicit cases. But other works might be relatable to the discussion of discourse structure, such as the analysis of "ideology" (Trew 1978, and Kress and Trew 1978). Other works still may be found to be making use of more than one of the above-mentioned three approaches. Thus, Phillips (1985) uses the textual approach by contriving a textual technique around the notion of collocation. Now having used

collocational density to identify certain structural patterns, he indirectly marks the "isotopics" of the texts under analysis. By comparing those isotopics patterns in different texts, Phillips finds out that literary texts show structural properties distinct from the science texts being analysed. If Phillips uses the textual approach and combines it with the content-structure approach, Swales uses the textual approach in order to define the boundary of the basic unit "move" in Scientific Article (Swales 1981). Building on his textual analysis, Swales suggests that there is a case for "a 4-move Schema" (the conceptual approach) emerging from his analysis (Swales 1981:15).

2.6 Language function and utterance function

There are numerous approaches and models to the study of linguistic functions, such as the traditional grammatical functions; the participant roles function in Halliday (1967/8) and Fillmore (1968); and thematic function of theme/rheme or topic/comment of the Prague School, and others (see Lyons, 1977:506).

Since the main question in this thesis concerns the organization and structuring of the whole of the discourse, the functions under investigation are studied in relation to the rest of the discourse. Indeed these functions can be said to be essentially comments on the whole or part of the discourse; in other words they are metatextual and/or interactive. In order to understand this type of function, one has to examine it in relation to other language functions, such as the "information conveying function" and "the phatic" channel maintaining function.

2.6.1 Origins of the approach to language function

The idea that language represents and conveys thought is well known (see Robins 1964:18). But that language has another aspect, has been recognized by Malinowski and supported by Halliday, both of whom emphasize that language has other functions than "content-carrying" (Halliday, 1978:33). As Lyons (1977:53) has said, Malinowski's notion of "phatic communion" as a function that establishes personal relations (Malinowski, 1930) was used by Jakobson to refer to "that function of language which is channel-oriented" (Lyons, 1977:53). "Thus interpreted", Lyons adds, "the phatic function is very close to, or at least is a very important part of, what we have been calling the social function of language." (ibid:54).

Others, like De Saussure, have accommodated to the social function of language; but it was Bühler who developed a model of language functions (see Lyons 1977:51). According to Bühler, language has three fundamental functions: "Darstellung"⁽⁶⁾ (representation), "Ausdruck" (expression) and "Appell" (vocation) functions. The first refers to the content of linguistic sign, the second to the speaker's involvement, and the third to the addressee's reception of the meaning of the sign.

Contributing to this argument about language function, Firth (1957) has emphasized that meaning is interpretable in "the context of situation" of the language produced. But Firth did not elaborate on his notion of "context of situation" as Ellis (1966) points out.

2.6.2 Halliday's three functions of language

Halliday has proposed a model of language functions which recognizes three functions: the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual functions (Halliday, 1970). The first of these "metafunctions" is concerned with "the linguistic expression of ideational content" (Halliday, 1970:37). The second of the metafunctions, the interpersonal, is used to express social and personal relations ... to approve or disapprove; to express belief, opinion, doubt; to include in the social group, or exclude from it; to ask and answer; to express personal feeling, ..." (Halliday, 1970:41). The third Hallidayan metafunction, the textual function, "fills the requirement that language should be operationally relevant" (Halliday, 1970:42). In this theory of language functions, it is essential that "clause in English is the simultaneous realization of ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings" (Halliday, 1970:42).

Halliday has studied the evolution of these functions in the language of children (Halliday, 1973, 1975) and has recurrently voiced his views about these three functions (particularly in 1978). But the importance of these three functions has to be seen in connection with their place in the overall Hallidayan model known as systemic linguistics (see Kress 1976). Each of these functions, according to Halliday, is manifested in a particular feature in "the structure of the clause": ideational: transitivity; interpersonal: modality; textual: cohesion. Hence, these metafunctions "form the basis of the organization of the entire linguistic system" (Halliday, 1978:47). Moreover, Halliday has produced extensive

works on "transitivity" (Halliday, 1967/8), modality (Halliday, 1970b and Kress (Ed.) 1976) and cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

2.6.3 Sinclair's two language functions on the basis of two planes of discourse

Still Halliday has not suggested a way of studying these language functions in relation to discourse structure. This level of language analysis was aimed at by Sinclair's (1981) far-reaching proposal. Sinclair argues that "language in use has two aspects: at one and the same time it is both a continuous negotiation between participants, and a developing record of experience" (Sinclair, 1981:2). This leads Sinclair to suggest that there are two levels of discourse. Thus, Sinclair identifies the first by saying that "the negotiation aspect highlights interaction and will be called the interactive plane of discourse" (ibid:2). While the second level "will be called the autonomous plane of discourse, because it is concerned with language only and not the means by which language is related to the world outside" (Sinclair, 1981:4). Unlike Halliday's metafunctions, Sinclair's two levels (or functions) of discourse are manifested in utterances and not clause, and they have been manipulated in order to study discourse structure by Tadros (1981) and Phillips (1985). However, as Halliday's metafunctions are found in every clause, so are Sinclair's interactive and autonomous planes traceable in every utterance. In Sinclair's words "every utterance, it is asserted, is to be described on both planes, no matter how intractable the surface representation may appear" (Sinclair, 1981:7). Still some utterances do function primarily at one of these two levels of discourse as Sinclair points

out (ibid:5), and as has been attested by Tadros (1981) and Phillips (1985).

Tadros has concentrated on what she calls "predictive structure" in which "the first member will be called predictive (symbol V) and the second member will be called predicted (symbol D)" (Tadros, 1981:116). Now prediction according to Tadros is "a commitment at one point in the text to the occurrence of a linguistic event later in the text" (Tadros, 1981:109). In this sense, the elements of predictive structures are textual and mainly on the interactive plane of discourse (Tadros, 1981). On the other hand, Phillips uses the notion of collocation to identify patterns of collocational density and thus "isotopics". These are used in turn to characterize the "macro-structure" of science and literature works. The lexical level (of collocation) and the notion of "aboutness" which Phillips manipulates in order to describe "macro-structure" of discourse are seen to be operating primarily on the autonomous plane of discourse (Phillips, 1985:167).

2.6.4 Utterance function

The language metafunctions recognized by Halliday apply to every clause, and the two planes of discourse of Sinclair apply to every utterance (as we have seen in the previous section). But utterances, whether functioning primarily on the interactive or autonomous plane of discourse, do perform textual (discourse) functions at a lower and more immediate level. This immediate level of utterance function has been handled by pragmatics in what is known as "speech acts" theory.

The function of "using words to do something" has been argued by Austin (1962). He has developed a theory of speech acts that basically distinguishes between performatives and "statements" (Austin 1962:12), and between "locutionary act", "illocutionary act" and "perlocutionary act" (ibid:94, 98 and 101 respectively). Austin has also illustrated that a performative may be "happy" (i.e. functioning as a performative, ibid:14) or not (e.g. cases of infelicities, ibid 39). Thus, in the realm of pragmatics, questions have been raised about direct and indirect speech acts (Searle, 1969, 1975), logic and conversation (Grice, 1975) and the principles of the logic of politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1978; Levinson 1983; and Leech 1983). Building upon Austin's works, Searle has refined the criteria that can decide whether the acts of promising, warning, marrying (someone) etc. are being performed by an utterance. For instance in order to perform a promise, (1) the speaker (the one performing the promise) must be in a position to fulfil the promised thing, (2) the thing being promised must be desired by the person being promised, (3) the thing promised must be possible, and (4) the time of fulfilling the promise is in the future, etc. (Searle, 1969:57-61). Moving on to indirect speech acts, we find greater use of participants' knowledge of the immediate and wider implications of entering into a communication event. Here the concern would encompass acts where the speaker is being ironic, hedging, polite (or otherwise), relevant (or irrelevant) etc. in order to convey a certain message.

Three remarks can be made in relation to utterance function in a given type of discourse (as news broadcasts). The first point has

to do with the fact that the utterance in well-established institutionalized procedures (e.g. in court, in marriage rituals, in decrees or even news broadcasts) may come to acquire a fixed interpretation owing to the role the utterance is being assigned in the procedure or activity. As has been pointed out by Levinson, the meaning of stating the time in court is a sign to start procedure (Levinson 1979:371).

The second thing to notice about utterance function concerns what is called the multiplicity of functions (Wittgenstein 1958, sections 17, 23, 304; and Levinson 1983:311). This aspect of utterance function seems to lurk behind a lot of criticism of using speech acts to analyze utterance (discourse) function. This criticism can be said to apply to the reader/hearer, rather than the writer/speaker, since different readers/hearers may have different interpretations. On the other hand, the writer/speaker may be performing an institutionally (and culturally) specific (and identifiable) role. As Levinson has shown, in court procedure the prosecution will be trying hard to extract the strongest admission from the man accused of rape; while the accused would be being compelled to say nothing that may come to be interpreted as forcing the victim into the act. The judge in this situation has yet another specific role that would help us interpret the accused's utterance (Levinson, 1979:380-382).

In spontaneous speech, the speaker would monitor the interpretation of his/her utterances by the interlocutor. In this respect spontaneous speech shows an abundance of ways of directing the hearer to one's purpose or meaning, a fact which has made

Levinson place conversation at a methodological advantage, contrasted with monologue, since in the analysis of the latter no such opportunity for feedback exists (Levinson, 1983:321).

However, it remains true that in written language, from the reader's point of view, a given utterance may be misread or differently interpreted, a feature which is manipulated in literary language and language of jokes in order to produce irony, innuendos or ambiguity as attested by Empson's *Seven Types of Ambiguity* (Empson, 1953), and taken by Brown and Yule (1983:11) as an important aspect of interpreting a text. Still in many varieties such as science discourse, no effort is spared to reduce ambiguity, clarify one's meaning by explicitly commenting and explaining to readers and by encouraging a standard reading even in notoriously difficult types of discourse such as legislative writing (see Bhatia 1983) or writing on philosophy and science.

The third remark about the function of utterances has to do with the use of the utterance in a given text and in relation to larger samples or practice in the same variety. Here in a given text, textual clues may be found to highlight the function of a given utterance. Thus in a radio news broadcast, we can study the rest of the news text to obtain evidence as to whether a given utterance is repeating old (background) information (see Chapter Six) or repeating part of the same text (headline and introducing news topics, see Chapter Three below) or attributing a "statement" (Chapter Four below). The textual function of a given utterance therefore, has to be seen to fit in with the rest of the text in which it occurs, as well as with the more general institutionalized

and pre-announced purpose of broadcasting the news from a given radio service.

2.7 The present approach to the study of organization and structuring of Radio News Discourse and the theoretical issues involved

The present approach concerns the three aspects reviewed in the above three sections of this chapter. These are: (1) the question of variety, (2) discourse structure, and (3) textual function. In this section the approach adopted in the present investigation is stated.

2.7.1 Radio news broadcasts as an interlingual variety of English and Arabic

Gregory and Carroll (1978:44) have observed the relevance of the situational factor mode (as written to be read aloud to unseen audience) to the repetition of news "headlines". As was seen earlier (2.2), Quirk has also related the announcement of station identification to the fact that news listeners cannot be seen (Quirk, 1982:7). Earlier in this chapter (2.2 above), it was also seen that Bell has provided evidence to the effect that the style of news language from Radio 'Auckland's three stations adapts to suit different target addressees (Bell, 1977). The present data has been collected from two radio services (BBC and Radio Damascus, see the corpus description in 1.2.2) but each is operating a number of radio stations targeted to a specific audience. This will, among other things, make it possible to test if the news editor adjusts the use of the features responsible for the organization and structuring of discourse in accordance with audience.

Thus in connection with radio news broadcasts as a variety of English and Arabic, the questions being addressed in this work are ultimately seen to be interpreted within the framework of this variety. These questions would include: (1) do the textual elements being studied function in the way they do thanks to their being a realization of the variety; and (2) are there any differences in the distribution of these elements in different groups of text in the corpus? and why? One of the most prominent factors to consider here is that the news is written to be spoken to unseen listeners, and that the news editor has a specific and explicitly stated role. Another aspect of the editor/listeners parameter, as has been mentioned in the previous paragraph, is the distribution of the textual elements being studied in different groups of texts in the corpus to examine the adjustment to different audience. Hence the interest is in the frequency in the group of texts; but the next step would be to examine positional occurrence and its frequency within the one text or parts of it.

2.7.2 The overall structure of Radio News Discourse

A rapid look at a typical radio news text suggests that its overall structure is fairly neat and simple. But simple and neat looking as it is, it poses serious questions to approaches to the issue of overall discourse structure. Gregory and Carroll have explained the repetition of the "headlines" in the light of the mode of discourse ("Written to be read aloud", Gregory and Carroll 1978:44). But the question as far as discourse structure is concerned can be formed in the following manner: how does one "news item", whether in "the headlines" or body of the news bulletin,

relate to the one which occurs before or after it? Let us examine the following typical example of news "headlines" from an average long news text (about 10 minutes).

- (4) The Arab Summit Conference in Morocco has been cut short because of differences over the Saudi Middle East peace plans.

The Israeli foreign minister is to hold urgent talks in Washington about the Sinai peace-keeping force.

The countries which provide most of the funds for the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation have protested against wasteful spending.

The United States says that Mexico shares its concern over political trends in Nicaragua.

(WS:03223)

Although from our knowledge of the way in which the news broadcast is organized, we can recognize the four unrelated utterances (items) as belonging to one news broadcast (when delivered on the radio), and although we correctly expect that each of these "items" will be elaborated upon later, yet from the linguistic realization in 4 (above), it is not possible to relate these utterances (items) to each other. The frame or schema approach (reviewed in 2.5.4 above) may state that in news "headlines" one can put a number of unrelated "items" together; but this would be of little value. Nor would it be possible to establish illocutionary force relations between any two of the utterances in 4 above, in order to see their "coherence" in the fashion suggested by Widdowson (Widdowson 1978:52).

But what is more difficult to account for in terms of the frame and illocutionary force theories is the inclusion in the news text from which 4 (above) was taken, of a number of news "items" which are not mentioned in the "headlines", as the following "item".

- (5) President Reagan has authorised another food grant to Poland to help overcome the food shortages there. A White House spokesman said that thirty million dollars worth of flour, cereals, milk and corn will be distributed over the next six months. He added that the grant demonstrated the United States' commitment to the peaceful resolution of Poland's difficulties. The United States has contributed food and credit for food worth eight hundred and twenty million dollars to Poland over the past twelve months.

(WS:03440)

Like most news "items", (5) is not relatable to any other item or part of the text on the grounds of its content or conceptual relevance. In fact, the inclusion of news "items" in the news is determined by external reasons (political, socio-cultural etc.) well beyond the concern of current linguistic analysis.

To tackle this feature of discourse structure in Radio News Broadcasts, the present study starts by focusing on the explicitly organizing elements in news discourse, elements that have already been noticed as a feature of radio news style (Quirk, 1982:8), but have not been recognized as carrying out an organizational aspect (i.e. a function related to the overall discourse structure). Having investigated explicitly organizing elements (Chapter Three), the present work goes on to analyse other metatextual interactive elements in news discourse in an attempt to see if they can reveal something about the overall structure of radio news broadcasts.

To be more specific, in the case of each function to be investigated, we will study its actual (instantial) occurrences in the data, and its potential (probable) occurrences. One important

feature of the occurrence is the positional occurrence of the function in the overall structure, i.e. the density of the function in a given part of the news broadcast. The study of these textual functions takes us to the level of discourse functions and the more general question of language function.

2.7.3 Textual functions in Radio News Discourse

In this work certain metatextual (interactive and/or organizational) elements are studied from a number of aspects. Firstly we try to see how they function in relation to the rest of the discourse; secondly their grammatical constituents are described; and thirdly they are studied in relation to the overall structure of discourse. Carrying this out amounts to using this level of discourse function in order to study discourse organization and structuring. This proposal would evoke a number of theoretical issues: firstly, the function of organizing discourse and its relation to the overall discourse structure, and secondly since the functions studied are metatextual and/or interactive, they will allow us to relate them to Sinclair's "planes of discourse" (discussed in 2.6.3 above). As Sinclair has suggested:

- (6) If research continues to confirm that two distinct planes of discourse are necessary in an adequate model, the next question is the relationship between them.

(Sinclair, 1981:7)

Thirdly, the grammatical realization of discourse functions will enable us to touch on the theoretical relationship between

51
67

(metatextual/interactive) discourse function and the linguistic system. The inevitability of this question has been clearly expressed by Halliday, who writes:

- (7) So even if we start from consideration of how language varies - how we make different selections in meaning, and therefore in grammar and vocabulary, according to the context of use - we are let into the fundamental question of the relation between the function of language and the nature of the linguistic system.
(Halliday, 1970:23)

The discussion of these issues has to be carried out in the light of the result of the present analysis of the corpus under study. (See 8.2 below).

But now something should be said concerning the method by which the data is to be approached in order to identify and study a given discourse function. Firstly, utterances that exhibit similarities in their interactive, organizational or metatextual features are identified. Then the phenomenon is delimited by contriving a set of criteria for recognizing the occurrence of these elements in the corpus. After the phenomenon is identified, the second step is to provide a "working" definition. Then the characteristics or features of the function are studied, thus establishing the aspects of the functions at hand. Having probed the nature of the function being studied in this way, we then move to study the grammatical realizations of the utterances performing the function. Finally the structural position of the function and its relevance to overall discourse structure is examined. To sum up we ask: what is the

function? how can we identify it? what are the features of the function? what are its types (manifestations) in the data (if it has more than one type)? what are its grammatical constituents? and what is its distribution in the groups in the corpus and in the individual radio news broadcast?

The discussion of the role of a given function in the overall discourse structure should inevitably tackle the question of the prediction of the function. To use the term "structure" in a strict sense means that the study of the function (or element) should identify the possibility of its occurrence in different positions. As Sinclair has put it, "linearity in language is that only one element of structure is in the process of production at any point in the representation of utterances (Sinclair, 1980:111). The possibility of occurrence can reach the point of certainty in cases where one function (or element) will necessarily predict the occurrence of one or more discourse units (functions etc.). In such cases the first element is predicting something; in Tadros's term it is "predictive" (Tadros, 1981). But if the positional occurrence of the first function (or element) itself is to be predicted, then it is not predictive, but predictable, i.e. can be predicted. Halliday has clarified this later aspect of prediction when he said

"given that we know the situation, the social context of language use, we can predict a great deal about the language that will occur, with reasonable probability of being right. The important theoretical question is this: what exactly do we need to know about the social context in order to make such a prediction?"

(Halliday, 1978:32).

It is hoped that the investigation of metatextual organizational and interactive functions and their occurrence in the structure of discourse, will help us gain some insights into the prediction (predictiveness and/or predictability) of these functions, and identify the factor(s) (situational or otherwise) responsible for their prediction.

Footnotes

(1)

The Chairman of the BBC, Mr G. Howard (as well as others such as Lord Annan) maintains that the BBC news coverage is not "neutral" concerning vitally important issues to society such as "terrorism". But "impartiality" is aimed at by trying to strike a balance between different sides in a given conflict (G. Howard, Broadcasting and Politics, London, BBC (1982)).

(2)

A content analysis approach to radio and newspaper news reporting in Arabic has been adopted by a number of researchers, see Al-Hameed (1979) for a review.

(3)

The case for standard English is vigorously argued by Quirk in his "The English language in a global context" in a book containing a collection of papers originally delivered on the occasion of the 60th Anniversary of the British Council; R. Quirk and H.G. Widdowson (Eds.) English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literature, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press (1985).

(4)

The theoretical power and interest in Halliday's model known as systemic linguistics is that it suggests three high level language functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual (1970), and explores the correspondent areas in the linguistic system in the clause that realizes these functions, transitivity (1967-8), modality (in Kress Ed. 1975) and cohesion (1976). In addition it elaborates on the linguistic phenomenon in its social environment, proposing a three dimensional criteria for classifying "register" (Halliday and others (1964) and Halliday 1978).

(5)

These include "Lexical density and register differentiation" by Ure, and a more recent book on the relationship between variety classification and grammatical structure (see Ure, J. and Ellis, J., 1985 in the bibliography).

(6)

Later some linguists have given the study of "register" a diachronic dimension by including developmental study of variety in one or more languages. For this line of development see J.R. Martin's "The development of register", in J. Fine & R.O. Freedle, Developmental Issues in Discourse, New Jersey, Ablex Publishing Corporation, 1983 (1-39).

(7)

The translation of Buhler's terms is taken from Lyons (1977:51).

(8)

Aristotle elaborates on these two parts of the tragedy by saying "By complication I mean everything from the beginning of the story up to the point where the hero suffers a change of fortune; by denouement, everything from the latter point to the end." (Aristotle, 1963, 32).

CHAPTER THREE

DISCOURSE ORGANIZING ELEMENTS AND THE OVERALL STRUCTURE OF RADIO NEWS BROADCASTS

3.0 This chapter studies the function of certain metatextual elements found in Radio News Discourse, and the bearing of these elements on the overall structure of news broadcasts.

The general layout of a news broadcast seems simple enough: a string of news topics following each other, with a possible summary before and after. This "format" is systematically adhered to in the corpus, and, moreover, it can be safely assumed to be recognized and anticipated by the news listenership.

The apparent simplicity of the overall structure of news discourse conceals a number of important questions. For one thing, it would be interesting to see if this overall structure is linguistically signalled, and if it is, then how and to what extent. The investigation of news overall structure will illustrate the organizational function of the elements studied in this chapter. It will also shed light on the relationship, if there is any, between consequent news items and their ordering.

3.1 The phenomenon of Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs)

Upon examining a sample of news texts, we find that they open with an "introductory" utterance which is typically followed by the summary of the news. Then a detailed version including some reminders of the on-going activity, would follow. Before the end, there is a repetition of the summary which ends with a closing

utterance. If the news content, in its summary and detailed forms, is isolated, we are left with a number of statements which announce and comment on the activity at different stages of its progress. Thus in (1) below, (a) introduces the news, while (b and c) announce stages of the activity, and (d) announces the end of the news text 1.

(1) a) Twenty-two hours Greenwich meantime. BBC World Service. The news, read by Ashley Hudson.
(WS:03827)

b) This news comes to you in the World Service of the BBC.
(WS:04004)

c) And now to end the news here are the main points again.
(WS:04108)

d) And that is the end of the news from London.
(WS:04124)

3.1.1 Definition of DOEs

We will call such elements in a news broadcast "Discourse Organizing Elements". Discourse Organizing Elements, or DOEs, in Radio news can be defined as metatextual utterances which refer to, and organize, a part or the whole of the news discourse, and whose main aim is to maintain the channel of communication by addressing the listeners propria persona. This definition captures three characteristics of DOEs. Firstly, the metatextual aspect means that DOEs are not part of the news content per se, but they rather say something about the whole of a news text or part of it. Secondly, ⁽¹⁾ DOEs maintain the relationship between speaker and listeners, which makes them candidates for what Sinclair calls the interactive plane of discourse (Sinclair, 1981). This interactive feature of

Discourse Organizing Elements is seen in the use of greetings in the introduction and, particularly in Arabic, address forms (See 3.3.1.1.(3) below). Thirdly, most often, DOEs comment on the chunks ① of discourse that follow them, and thus they are prospective (see 3.2.2 for a discussion of this aspect of DOEs).

3.1.2 Distribution of DOEs in the corpus

We will examine the distribution of Discourse Organizing Elements with two questions in mind: (1) whether DOEs are used in all eight groups of news texts in the extended corpus; and (2) whether there are similarities in the frequency of occurrence among some or all of the groups. As far as the first question is concerned the eight groups in the corpus make use of these elements in a relatively similar fashion (the two Arabic groups manifest some contrasts that will be discussed later in 3.3.1.1.(6) and elsewhere).

Moving to the question of frequency of occurrence of DOEs, it is found that the average occurrence of DOEs and the number of news items per text vary from one group to another (see Table 2, column 4). This is not surprising, since the length of news texts in the corpus varies from two minutes to half an hour. Looking at the frequency of DOEs, one should therefore consider the number of news items and the average length of each in a news text. The group which contains the longest texts (BBC, RF: 30 minutes) uses the largest number of news items, an average of 13 per text; while the group with the shortest texts (BBC, RFs: 2 minutes) uses an average of 6 items per text (see Table 2, column 5). Another short-text

group (RT: 5 minutes) has an average of 8 items per text. The medium-long groups (about 10 minutes each) vary: 10.1 items per text in RF, 10.2 items per text in RDE, 9.6 items per text in WS, and 8.4 items per text in RDA. The only exception in this respect is AS: 10 minutes, where the average is 6.8 items per text, which is less than that of RT group where the texts are only 5 minutes each. Thus, with one exception, the increase in the length of a news text entails an increase in the number of items per text.

Concerning the number of DOEs per news text (Table 2, column 8), we find that long news broadcasts (RF: 30 minutes) use an average of 15.6 DOEs per text; while short news broadcasts (RFs: 2 minutes) use only 1.75 DOEs. Two occurrences of DOEs would be the minimum, since there must be at least one DOE to introduce the news and another to end it. Therefore about 6 occurrences seem to be missing in the transcription ⁽¹⁾. Medium-long news broadcasts from RF show the relatively middle average of 6.8 DOEs per text (including 31 occurrences of DOEs introducing a reporter); which compares with the average of 3.8 DOEs per text from the World Service (whose sample has a similar length). However, we find that the medium-long news texts (about 10 minutes each) from BBC Arabic Service 4 DOEs per text), Radio Damascus Arabic 5.2 DOEs per text) and Radio Damascus English 4.2 DOEs per text, have a lower average frequency of DOEs than those of Radio 4 medium-long texts, because only the latter uses DOEs to introduce reporters. Thus, the time duration factor reveals that the longer the news text is the more DOEs it contains; moreover, Radio Damascus English and Arabic

news texts have a higher frequency of DOEs than BBC English and Arabic texts.

No of texts	Radio Service	No of words	No of items tot. per text		Av. of words per item	No of DOEs tot per text	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5	BBC Radio Four (30 minutes)	8780	65	13	135	78	15.6
26	BBC Radio Four short (2 minutes texts)	7840	155	6	50	46	1.76
5	BBC World Ser. (10 minutes)	5600	48	9.6	116	19	3.8
5	Radio Damascus English (about 15 mins)	6960	51	10.4	136	21	4.2
5	Radio Damascus Arabic (about 10 mins)	4930	42	8.4	117	26	5.2
5	BBC Arabic Service (about 10 mins)	4610	34	6.8	135	20	4
12	BBC Radio Four (10 minutes)	20880	122	10.1	170	82	6.8
16	BBC Radio Two (5 minutes)	13920	128	8	109	71	4.4
79		723520					

TABLE 2: The frequency of occurrence of DOEs in different groups of texts in the extended corpus

Finally, three groups of news texts in the corpus use BBC's reporters to report on news topics in person. Such reports are introduced by DOEs, which are included in the averages of DOEs in column 8, Table 2. Now comparing the total averages of DOEs in these three groups reveals that RF long news (30 minutes) has a

total average of 9.2 DOEs introducing a report; while medium texts from RF use an average of 2.5 per text; and short RT texts use an average of 2.3 DOEs introducing a report per text (see table 4 below). In other words, the longer the news the more reports, and DOEs to introduce them it contains. In brief, the longer the news text is, the higher the number of items and DOEs it uses. In one exceptional case (AS) the number of items goes down. And we observe that Arabic news from BBC, RDA, and RDE news use relatively more DOEs than the rest of the groups in the corpus.

3.2 The scope and function of DOEs

Discourse Organizing Elements are "formulae" to a considerable extent, as evident in the repetition of the same utterances; and to that extent they are transparent of their conventional nature. But in addition to this formulaic aspect (Gumperz, 1982:140), DOEs manifest other textual properties which can be seen in the scope of reference and function of these elements.

3.2.1 The scope of reference of DOEs

Discourse Organizing Elements refer to a part or the whole of the news broadcast. This they do by manipulating deictic elements and "generic" terms.⁽²⁾ Let us examine the following examples:

- (2) a) BBC news at six o'clock. Good evening. This is
Brian Martin.

(RF: 01701)

- b) This news comes to you in the World Service of the BBC.
(WS: 04004)

- c) BBC Radio news.

(RF: 02211)

d) And that is the news at five past twelve.

(RT: 18030)

e) Now to end the news; here are the main points again.

(WS: 04406)

f) The headlines again.

(WS: 16938)

g) Roger May now reports.

(RF: 01906)

The scope of referring in these instances of DOEs, except in (2.g), is determined by what we will call a "generic term" such as "the news" in (2.a, b, c and d), "the main points" or its equivalent "the headlines" in (2.e and 2.f) respectively. This generic use of "the news" explains the presence of the definite article at the opening of the discourse, which assumes that "the news" is known to and recognized by the listeners. Generic terms such as "the news", in addition to their generic reference, stand in a phoric relation to the same forms where they occur in the same news broadcast. (The reference of the generic term "the news" pertains to the question of discourse unity as we will see later (3.4.2.2)). It should be added that a generic term may refer to the totality of the text as in "the news" above, or to a part of it as in "the headlines" (2.f) or to one news item as in

(3) And the main news tonight -

(RF: 01619)

or in the Arabic term "alnaba'al'axiir" (The last news item).

(AS: 16805)

Also specifying the scope of referring of DOEs are the discourse deictic elements found in some DOEs. Thus in

(2.d) And that is the news at five past twelve,
(RT:18030)

"and" is not a coordinator linking two grammatical elements (Van Dijk 1977:52), but it rather functions partly as a discourse deictic linking the present utterance to what has gone before and partly as a discourse filler marking speech rather than formal written language (cf. the "pragmatic and" used partly as a filler in Farag 1986:65-66). Though this "and" is found in other groups, still it is most frequent in Radio Two, which is less formal. "That", however, is the main referring element in the combination "and that" (2.d above), and it does not refer to any particular identity in the previous discourse, since its reference is to preceding discourse per se. "That", moreover, has a periodic overtone (a contrast to "here" and "this"): since "that" indicates what has gone before and states that it has finished. In a similar way "now" in "now to end the news" (2.e) does not have a time reference, but it is a discourse deictic element, and "here" in "... here are the main points again" (2.e), does not refer to place but is a discourse deictic referring to the following stretch of discourse. Thus, discourse deictic elements help determine the scope of reference of the DOEs in which they appear.

3.2.2 The function of DOEs

The scope of reference of DOEs and the fact that they are not a part of the news itself points to the metatextual nature of their function. This aspect of the function of DOEs does not exclude them from having a message of their own. Thus as figure 2 (below) shows, a DOE opening the news broadcast contains up to six

elements or sub-messages, each of which may constitute a message in its own right to some listeners. After all it is easy to envisage that some may want to check the time or identify the broadcasting service, etc.

However, DOEs function essentially as part of a larger discourse, and are ultimately interpretable in reference to the extra-linguistic factors of participants and type of communication event (see Hymes 1972; and for a discussion of this aspect of news broadcasts, see Quirk, 1982). Here is an example of a DOE opening of a news text:

- (4) Radio Four
BBC news at six o'clock. Good evening. This is
Clive Ruskin.
India is sending a ship to Sri Lanka to move some of the Tamils in the riot area to the North of the island. Three left-wing parties in Sri Lanka have been banned.
It has been the hottest July of the century. And today's heat-wave has brought long queues of traffic on the road, ...

(RF: 01301)

Clearly, the DOE (underlined in 4 above) stands apart from the news content; moreover, we find the same formulae such as "BBC news" appear repeatedly in the corpus (RF: 01701; RF: 02301). However, part of the difference lies in that the function of DOEs is mainly addressed to the listener; and hence the use of greetings and some address forms such as the plural "you"~and its Arabic equivalent "kum". This aspect of DOEs puts them on what Sinclair (1981:2) has termed "the interactive plane" of discourse.

Another property of the DOE in (4) is that it introduces the whole news, and thus it is prospective, which is an aspect of the property of interactiveness (Sinclair 1981:15). The predictive power of DOEs, however, remains at a high level indicating that the following chunk of text is the "headlines" or the "news texts", as opposed to predicting the exact detailed nature of the "predicted element", which is the case in Tadros' "predictive structures." (Tadros, 1981).

The predictiveness nature of DOEs underlines their more important function of organizing discourse by punctuating and controlling the stages of development of news discourse. The organizing power of a DOE as in 4 (above), is derived from its position in the structure. Thus in the same way as the position of "over" is manipulated to mark the end of a radio wireless message (Levinson, 1983:302), and the position of "hello" defines its function in a telephone conversation (Schegloff, 1979), so does the position of a DOE support its function as an organizing element. It is the organization and signalling of different stages of discourse development which is at stake here, and which provides the basis for the classification of DOEs (3.3 below) and the discussion of their relevance to the study of the overall discourse structure of radio news broadcasts (3.4.2.2).

3.3. Types of DOEs

Looking at the layout of the radio news, we find that it is signposted by DOEs. Still the organizing function of DOEs derives from their positions in the overall structure of the news discourse.

No. of texts	Radio Service	No of ODOEs		No of MDOEs		No of CDOEs		No of summary	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		total	per	total	per	total	per	total	per
		no.	text	no.	text	no.	text	no.	text
5	BBC Radio Four (30 minutes)	5	1	69	13.8	4	0.80	5	1
26	BBC Radio Four (2 minutes)	21	0.80	0	0	25	0.96	0	0
5	BBC World Service (10 minutes)	5	1	10	2	4	0.80	5	1
5	Radio Damascus (15 minutes) English	5	1	5	2.2	11	1	5	0.60
5	Radio Damascus (Arabic) (10 minutes)	5	1	17	3.4	4	0.80	5	1
5	BBC Arabic Service (10 minutes)	5	1	11	2.2	4	0.80	3	0.60
12	BBC Radio Four (10 minutes)	12	1	59	4.9	11	0.91	11	0.91
16	BBC Radio Two (5 minutes)	16	1	39	2.4	16	1	0	0

TABLE 3: The frequency of occurrences of different types of DOEs and its percentage per text ;

Structurally, DOEs can be classified into three types:

1. Opening Discourse Organizing Element (ODOE): an ODOE is an utterance which sets the scene for and announces the beginning of the news.
2. Medial Discourse Organizing Element (MDOE): a MDOE occurs within the news to remind the listeners of the identity of the Radio Service, to announce the beginning of the news summary, or to introduce a correspondent's direct report.

3. Closing Discourse Organizing Element (CDOE): A CDOE is an utterance which signals the end of the news broadcast.

The terms "opening", "medial, and "closing" have been used by conversational analysts (see Schegloff 1968, and Schegloff and Sacks 1973) to refer to comparable parts of conversation).

In the following sections, the textual function and the formal constituents of the three types of DOEs will be studied in detail.

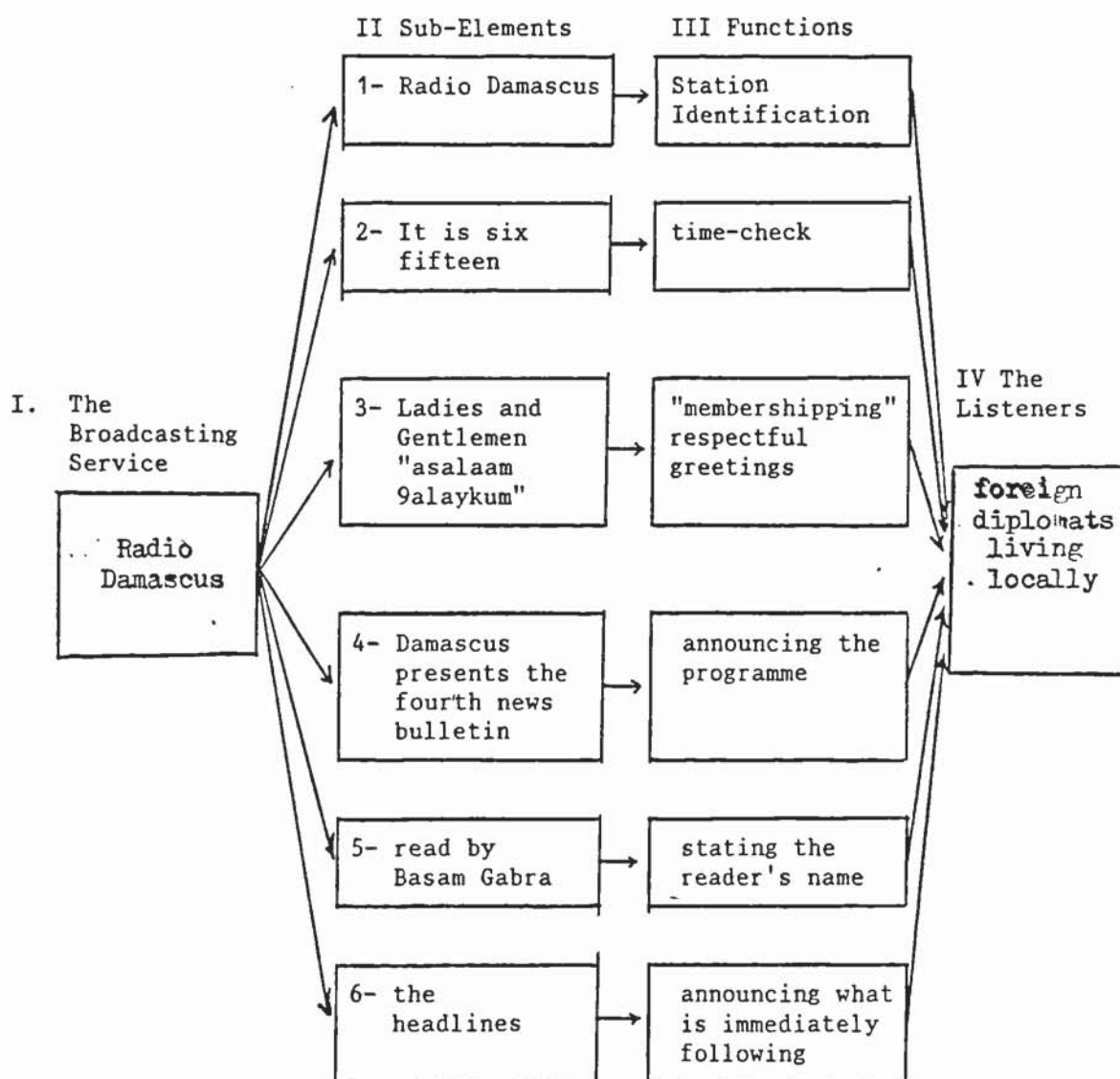
3.3.1 Opening Discourse Organizing Elements (ODOEs)

It has been observed that an Opening DOE may contain up to six elements, each of which conveys a separate message to the listeners, and that the organizing function of an ODOE is conceived of in the relation of such elements to the rest of the discourse. What we will examine here is one aspect of this relation, i.e. how a certain utterance is interpreted as a comment on the rest of the content (message) of the current discourse, in the light of another aspect of this relation, namely the position of the element at a given point in the discourse. Put succinctly, we will try to see how things like checking the time or giving the name of the news announcer at the beginning of the news, regardless of its content, are interpreted as procedural signals indicating the beginning of the news. Secondly we will study the linguistic forms realizing ODOEs.

The number of elements in an ODOE differs according to the length of the news; and an element may differ in length and

elaboration in different languages (eg. using long forms of Arabic greeting). The shortest ODOEs are found in RFs: 2 minutes news, and consist of service identification and announcing the "news". The longest ODOEs occur in Arabic (AS) and (DRA) and contain six elements in an ODOE:

Figure (2): An Opening DOE from Radio Damascus



(1) station identification, (2) time-check, (3) "membershopping" respectful greetings, (4) announcing the programme, (5) stating the reader's name, and (6) announcing what is immediately following (Figure 2). In the following sections, we examine the procedural use (Levinson 1979:371) and the formal constituents of each of these elements in turn.

(1) a) Station identification: Service (or channel) identification is the enunciation of the official name of the Radio service, a convention practised widely in radio broadcasting. In the case of radio news broadcasts, the phenomenon has been called "verbalization" by Quirk, who observed its emotional value during the Second World War (Quirk, 1982:7). Still service identification occurs not only at the beginning of the news but also between almost all radio programmes. Clearly, when transmitting on the air, especially when many services are broadcasting in the same language and to the same target audience, it is desired to identify the service by repeating its official name, having a distinctive style of delivery and the use of music or o'clock chimes (Big Ben in the case of the BBC). However, the procedural aspect of service identification is seen in cases where the listeners expect the news and know the service identity, therefore they interpret the repetition of its official name to signal the beginning of the news broadcast. In many cases the newscaster repeats the identity of the service, although it has been just mentioned by a previous broadcaster. The second service identification seems to reinforce the message that "the news" is about to start.

b) Lexico-Grammatical constituents: the main constituent here is a nominal group which states the official name of the service and which allows a limited variation. Radio Damascus Arabic uses "'ithaa9atu dimasq" (Radio Damascus) or "'ithaa9atu aljjumhuuriya al9arabiya alssuriya min dimasq" (The Radio of the Syrian Arab Republic). With the BBC, the service has to be specified as "Radio Four" (or alternatively, BBC, Radio Four), or BBC World Service, or "Radio Two" etc. However, other forms are found in a few cases in Arabic. Thus we find:

- (5) a) hunaa landan (here is London) (AS: 15207)
- b) haathihi dimasq... (This is Damascus) (RDA: 15819)
- c) This is Damascus (RDE: 04419)

In fact, even in English where only a nominal group (eg. BBC Radio Four) is used, it is understood as "(this is) BBC Radio Four". What we need to examine closely here is the demonstrative to see if it is used (to take Fillmore's terms) "systematically" or gesturally or deictically (Fillmore 1971:223). Many a context can be envisaged in which "hunaa" (here), and "haathihi" in (5) above are deictic, in the sense that they are interpretable by reference to a non-linguistic factor. "hunaa", for instance may refer to the wavelength where Damascus Service can be received, or it may refer to the voice or style of delivery of Radio Damascus. But the deictic reference of the demonstratives in (5) seem most likely to be to the Radio Service or the channel concerned in each case.

(2) a) time-check: the time is stated verbally by the news broadcaster, and o'clock strikes are often used to give the

exact time and sometimes to identify the service as with Big Ben in the Arabic Service. When we listen for the news, we often know the time and take the o'clock chimes to mark the beginning of the activity. Levinson has noticed this "procedural" use of stating the time in the court (Levinson, 1979:371).

b) Formal Constituents: the linguistic form here is again a nominal group: which may have a qualifier as in "BBC news at six o'clock" or a modifier as in "('axbaar) alssaoudisa wa alrrub9" (the quarter past six (news)). Sometimes, checking the time in Arabic news is realized in a complete sentence as in "alssaa9a allssaabisa wa alrrub9" (it is a quarter past six) (RDA: 11603). In both cases the time reference is in itself enough to specify the referent, and thus they are not time deixis as "now" in "now here is the news" would be. The above cases of telling the exact time are not deictic because, like "Tuesday the first of January", rather than "today" which is used in reference to the same date, they do not need an extra-linguistic factor to specify their reference (Lyons 1977:667 and Fillmore 1971:230-233). In such cases, however, the listeners have to use their knowledge to specify whether it is six in the morning or evening. It should be added here that checking the time in the World Service uses and specifies Greenwich meantime, because different times apply in the listeners' locations.

(3) a) "membershiping" respectful greetings: in opening DOEs address forms are used in Arabic news, RDE and the World Service. Greetings are found in Arabic and English, except in (RFs, 2 minutes) news summary, and in the World Service news, where,

in the latter case, differences in the times of the day would exclude time bound greeting forms such as "good evening". If the analogy of introducing oneself is used in the case of the news broadcaster, naturally we would expect greetings; after all greetings are very frequent in face-to-face interactions and in introducing other radio programmes. The use of greetings to mark the start of a language event has been attested by Schegloff (1979) who observed the discourse opening function of "hello" in a telephone conversation. Greetings in the introduction to a news broadcast are *not merely used phatically to establish a channel with the listeners*, but the choice of a rather formal greeting form has to do with the seriousness of the occasion and thus the level of formality. Still, as far as the organization of the news discourse is concerned, greetings signal the beginning of the activity.

b) Formal constituents (address forms): Arabic uses the traditional vocative form "'ayuhaa alsaada almustami9uun alkiraam" (Q (respectable) listener) (AS: 12904), a linguistic form for attracting the attention of the addressee, and is found in other radio programmes. A second form of address in Arabic news is "sayidaatii wa saadatii" (ladies and gentlemen) (AS: 15211). A third address form is seen in the Arabic second personal plural pronoun "kum" as in "tuqadim laykum" (present to you) (RDA: 14711). In English address forms are not used in opening DOEs in any of the news broadcasts in the corpus. This is explicable in that English greetings even in face-to-face interaction are less likely to use address forms than Arabic. The particular importance of these address terms is that they explicitly indicate the interactive

function of the utterance which contains them (i.e. ODOE), although the choice of these rather than other available address forms has to do with the level of formality in the relationship between speaker and listeners in the news broadcasting situation. Finally, it is noticed that address forms in themselves are not organizational, but the whole utterance of which they can be a part is organizational (3.2.2).

c) Lexico-grammatical constituents (Greetings): the forms of greetings used in English news are limited in choice and correspond to the time of the day, eg. good morning, good evening. They, moreover, strike a level of formality that matches the impersonal style of news broadcasts. In Arabic, three kinds of greeting formulae are found and two can be used in the same opening DOE. The first formula, which can be found with any of the other two, is the traditional Islamic greeting "alssalaamu 9alaykum" (peace upon you). This greeting formula is time free (can be used at any time of the day) and is found in many different social situations. The second Arabic greeting form is the time bound "masaa' alxayr" (good evening). The third form of greeting is peculiar to Arabic and makes use of the verb "tuḥayii" (greet). It can be exemplified in "Dimašq tuḥayiikum ..." (Damascus greets you ...) (RDA: 14711).

(4) a) announcing the programme (the use of generic term): by discourse genre is meant the term which defines the discourse type of language event as exemplified in

(6) a) BBC news at six o'clock ... (RF: 01701)

b) ... and here is our last news bulletin for today.
(RDE: 06007)

c) ... wa 'ilaykum našrata al'axbaar.
(and to you the bulletin of news)
(AS: 14118)

The term "generic term" is used here to describe this use of the lexical item "news", which, together with service identification, is found in every opening DOE in the corpus. Comparable uses of linguistic entities have been found by different linguists and researchers, eg. in this book or in this chapter (see Lyons, 1977:668 and Tadros 1984).

b) Lexico-grammatical constituents (announcing the programme): stating the type of language event at the beginning of the news is realized in utterances such as (6 above). Sometimes instead of using a nominal group with a modifier and/or a qualifier as in (a), the generic term is included in a sentence, in which an adverb occurs as a subject as in 6.b. In such cases 6.b & c the demonstrative refers to the coming text, ie. to discourse itself as has been noticed by Fillmore in his example "this is the ABC news" (Fillmore 1971, 233). However, the important thing to notice here is that the generic term in cases such as 6.a above refers to the discourse, ie. the news per se, and not merely to the consequent occurrences of the same item in the same news text. Surely, the reference of the generic term (news) in all the instances quoted in 6, cannot be to the phenomenon of the news. This is supported by the definiteness of the "news", since the definite article "informs the addressee that some specific entity is being referred to..." (Lyons 1977:654).

(5) a) stating the reader's name: this element of an opening DOE is found in the majority of long and medium long news broadcasts. It is difficult to account for the conventions of stating the announcer's name, because unlike many other radio programmes, the news tends to be impersonal in style (Quirk 1982:9) and its voice is what Lerman (1983) calls the "Institutional Voice" (IV). Still, stating one's name is a common practice when a person is introducing him/herself. Moreover in relation to the rest of the news discourse, giving the announcer's name is part of the introduction to the activity of broadcasting the news.

b) Lexico-grammatical (name of the announcer): the announcer's name occurs as part of a sentence as in (7.a and b) or it is in a separate sentence (7.c) below:

(7) a) ... the first news bulletin read by Rasheed Heider
(RDE: 04429)

b) ... yaqra'uhaa sufyaan jabr ...
(read by Sufyan Jabr) (RDA: 12404)

c) This is Brian Martin. (RF: 01701)

7.a and b make use of the verb "read" and its Arabic equivalent "yaqra'", which "the news" in 7.a is a subject. "This" in 7.c, however, needs further examination. Schegloff has observed that in a telephone conversation, "this" is used to introduce the caller, because the reference of "this" in "this is x" is to the voice of the caller. This would seem a suitable explanation for using this to introduce the announcer's "voice", since a radio broadcaster, like a telephone caller, is not seen by his/her interlocutor. But

we know that "this" is also used to introduce a news broadcaster at the television; and it is even used to introduce one person to another, a widely used form (8):

(8) This is x.

Two points should be made concerning the use of "this". Firstly, "this" in (7.c and 8) has a deictic function; in (6.c) it refers to the "performer's" (ie. reader's) voice and style and designates him as a bearer of responsibility in cases of mistake. In this sense, if the news is transcribed, utterances such as (6.c) "this is Brian Martin" loses its media voice referent. Secondly, being a part of a well-established procedure in the activity of news broadcasting, utterances such as (6.c) have gained the meaning (x is the reader of the news). Though not as strictly constrained as what Gumperz (1982:159) calls a "routine", still these utterances as they occur in an opening DOE are formulaic in that they repeat a limited variation of introducing the announcer's name.

(6) a) announcing what is immediately following: this is done by using a term referring to "the headlines" or "the main points" in English, and "almuujaz" (the summary) in Arabic. This element of opening DOE is found in almost every Arabic news broadcast in the corpus, whereas only BBC Radio Two makes use of it in this position in English. The reference to a part of the current discourse is in itself a sign to the organizational function of this utterance, which breaks the discourse into recognizable chunks.

b) Formal constituents (stating the coming part of discourse): one form is found in either Arabic or English:

"almuujaz" (the summary), and "the headlines" (RT: 18508). "The headlines" is interpreted as "Here are the headlines", just as "BBC radio news" is interpreted as "this is BBC radio news". As far as the "neutrality" of the definite article in deictic reference is concerned (Lyons 1977:654), "the" in "the headlines" is not neutralized, but serves to specify the referent of "headlines" which in turn refers symbolically like any other lexical item.

3.3.2 Medial Discourse Organizing Elements (MDOEs)

Like all other radio programmes, news broadcasts have verbal presentations at the beginning and end. But, in addition, news broadcasts contain organizing elements, commenting on the current discourse within the news. These Medial Discourse Organizing Elements (MDOEs) inside the news broadcast manifest specific organizing functions and formal characteristics. Their organizing function is, like that of ODOEs, determined by their position in the discourse. Let us look at some examples of MDOEs:

- (9) a) This news comes to you in the World Service of the BBC.
(WS: 04004)
- b) National and international news from the BBC. Before half past six, ... and ...
(RF: 02002)
- c) min Landan alqism al9arabii bihay'at al'ithaa9a
from London the Arabic Service in the BBC,
albriiṭaaniya, sayidaatii wa saadatii,
Ladies and Gentlemen,
nuwaafiikum bihaathihi al'anbaa'.
we present to you this news.
(AS: 15423)
- d) The headlines again.
(RF: 02837)

From the examples in (9) we can distinguish four functions of MDOEs: (1) MDOEs that signal the continuation of the speech event; (2) MDOEs that introduce a direct report (or reporter); (3) MDOEs that refer to a part of the discourse itself; and (4) MDOEs that interrupt the current news to insert a newsflash. In the following section these four types will be discussed in detail.

3.3.2.1 Types of MDOEs: textual function and lexico-grammatical constituents

(1) a) Medial Discourse Organizing Elements (MDOEs) expressing continuation of discourse: here we find a case which seems peculiar to news broadcasts, since the presenter takes the opportunity to interrupt the flow of discourse, at a natural break between two items, to verbally state: (1) the identity of the radio service, (2) the type of language event and (3) the fact that the event is in progress. This type of MDOE has no other organizing function except to orientate the news listeners. In this sense, continuation MDOEs, in addition to being comments on the service and discourse, are clearly on the interactive plane.

b) Lexico-grammatical constituents: four formal characteristics can be recognized in continuation MDOEs in the corpus. Two are obligatory, found in all continuation MDOEs, and two are optional. The first obligatory form makes a reference to the speech event made by using the generic term "news" or its Arabic equivalent "anbaa'" or "axbaar", preceded by a discourse deictic element as in (10.a) "this news ..." and (9.c) "... haathihi al'anbaa'," (this news). "This" here refers to the discourse itself, since we cannot interpret "this news" unless we know the

news being referred to. This means that where "this" is omitted in such a context as in "National and international news from the BBC ..." (9.b), we have to assume that the reference is to "this" (ie. current) news for the right interpretation of (9.b). Of course, the same utterance, "national and international news..." will have a different interpretation (ie. referent) if it appears in or is quoted by another radio service or speaker, ie. in another text. The second obligatory lexico-grammatical characteristic of continuation MDOEs is the service identity, a fixed proper noun which has a definite reference and which has been discussed in relation to opening DOEs (3.3.1(1)).

The third formal feature of continuation MDOEs, which is found only in some cases, is the use of address forms, as in the Arabic "sayidaatii wa saadatii" (Ladies and Gentlemen) (9.c). In English, the address form "you" is found in the BBC World Service (9.a) "This news comes to you ..." but not in (9.b) "national and international news from ...". However, even in cases like (9.b) these utterances are doubtlessly interactive, and thus concern the inter-personal dimension of discourse rather than its content. The fourth and final lexico-grammatical constituent, which occurs in some continuation MDOEs, is realized in a verb as in (9.a) "This news comes ...", or the same verb used in the continuous tense which is found with the adverb "still", translated from the Arabic "maazaalat" (is still) as in the following from Damascus Radio news: "This news, Ladies and Gentlemen, is still coming to you ..." (RDE: 06204).

Arabic news in the corpus makes use of the verb "nuwaafiikum" (bring to you), (AS: 15624) or "ta'tiikum" (comes to you) (AS:12209). Again we notice the tendency of using address forms in Arabic in cases where they may be dropped in English.

(2) a) MDOEs introducing a direct report (or a reporter): this type of MDOE is only found in long and medium-long broadcasts from Radio Four and in Radio Two (5 minutes) news broadcasts. Naturally, we find more such reports in a long (30 minutes) news than a 10 minutes news from Radio Four: (9.2) and (2.5) report per text respectively (see column (8) Table 4). This type of MDOE is not made use of in the rest of the groups of texts in the corpus. Two limitations seem to make it difficult for a radio station to use direct reports in news broadcasts. The first problem is technical in that for direct reporting radio services would need reporter specialists in different kinds of news topics who are spread all over the world, and would need to have the communication facilities to receive their reports in good time for inclusion in the news broadcasts. These technical problems may explain the absence of direct reporting in Damascus Radio Arabic news. The second limitation is posed by the difficulties of translating direct reports; a direct report has a personal appeal; therefore if translated it may well not retain the reporter's individual style of delivery, personal appeal and even its own authority. Problems resulting from translation may explain the absence of such reports from BBC Arabic Service news.

Typically, after some elaboration on a news topic, a clear shift to the interactive plane takes place. As a result the news

Table (4) : No. of occurrences of different elements in ODOEs in the corpus and the no. of different sub types of MPOEs.

No. of Types	Radio Service	Notification of elements in Opening Discourse Organizing Elements						Medial Discourse Organizing Elements		
		1 Service Identification	2 Time	3 Generic term	4 Greeting address	5 Announcer's name	6 Headlines	7 Continuity	8 Introducing correspondent per text	9 Reference to part of discourse
	BBC Radio									
5	BBC Radio Four (30 mins)	5	5	5	4	5	0	2	46 9.2	21
26	BBC Radio Four (2 mins)	21	21	21	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	BBC World Service (10) mins	5	5	4	0	4	0	5	0	5
5	Radio Damascus English (15 mins)	5	3	5	0	1	4	4	0	7
5	Radio Damascus Arabic (10 mins)	5	3	5	5	3	5	4	0	13
5	BBC Arabic Service (10 mins)	5	4	5	3	5	5	5	0	6
12	BBC Radio Four (10 mins)	12	12	11	0	12	0	0	30 2.5	29
16	BBC Radio Two (5 mins)	16	16	16	0	16	5	0	38 2.3	1
79	Total	74	69	72	12	46	19	20	124	82

topic gives way to a MDOE which introduces a correspondent or a report (9.d, e and f):

(9) d) Our correspondent, Mark Tully, is in Colombo
(RF: 01322)

e) Now with his assessment of Mr Lawson's statement,
here is our economic editor, Dominic Harrod.
(RF: 02422)

f) From Westminster, here is our political corres-
pondent, David Cass.
(RF: 01730)

The organizing function of such MDOEs is seen in the use of "here (is x)" (at this stage in the text) to introduce a reporter's contribution to the on-going discourse.

b) Lexico-grammatical constituents (introducing a reporter): the permanent formal feature of MDOEs introducing a direct report is the use of a proper name, which can be taken as the minimal requirement for introducing a person (ie. by uttering the name and leaving it for the interlocutor to get everything else from the situation. "Here", which frequently appears in this type of MDOE, is not a place adverb, but a discourse deixis referring to the following part of discourse. The third constituent, fairly common with these MDOEs, constitutes an appositive to the reporter's name stating the reporter's status and/or his specialization (see Chapter Seven (7.2.2.(1)) for a full discussion of function of the information used with proper names in the news and its formal function). The fourth frequent lexico-grammatical feature of MDOEs introducing direct report is place names. Because the news coverage has a geographical dimension to it, the place name where the news event takes place is mentioned, whether in the same city as the

radio service or in a different country. Thus we find, "From Westminster, here is our political correspondent, David Cass" (RF: 01330). In addition to the use of complete sentences such as the two examples above, introducing a reporter can be realized in a fragment as in, "From Los Angeles, Rod Sharp" (RF: 17626). The fifth formal feature found in direct report MDOEs is the favourite lexical item "report". This lexical item is used as a noun (10.a) or a verb (10.b):

- (10) a) This report from Asher Wallfish from Jerusalem.
(RF: 17713)
- b) From the plane Michael Stewart reports.
(RT: 18134)

The sixth and final formal element of MDOEs introducing a report is "now" as in (9.e) "Now with his assessment of Mr Lawson's statement, ...". The basic function of "now" in this instance is a discourse deictic indicating the stage of development of the current discourse; therefore "now" in (9.b) is not primarily concerned with physical or psychological time references. As we shall see later, this use of "now" as a discourse deixis is found with other types of MDOEs (see the following section).

(3) a) Medial Discourse Organizing Elements (MDOEs) referring to a part of discourse: this type of MDOEs refers either to the summary or to the details of the news broadcast; and thus it is not found in RFs (2 minute) news which does not contain a summary, or in RT (5 minutes) news in which no repetition of the summary is found. It is most frequent in RF long (30 minute) news (about 4 occurrences per news text) and occurs once per text in the

WS news broadcast in the corpus. Typically, this type of MDOEs states that the previous or following part of the news discourse is either a summary or the details of a given news text.

- (11) a) The news in detail from Radio Damascus. (RDE: 05708)
- b) One other headline. (RF: 01011)
- c) Finally, the headlines again. (RF: 01611)
- d) Now to end the news, here are the main points again. (WS: 03506)

In other types of language events such as conversation, the organizing function is not found to be so directly tilted to refer to and organize a chunk of discourse. Still radio language shares this awareness of handling verbal messages with various fields of telecommunication such as the teleprinter and on-line computer communication (a system which uses the telephone to link a computer terminal to a data base).

b) Lexico-grammatical constituents (introducing a part of discourse): the formal features of this type of MDOE are very similar to those studied in 2.b (pages 26-27) in connection with introducing a direct report. Firstly, we find a noun phrase which indicates the part of discourse being referred to: "details" (11.a), "one headline" (11.b) or "the main points" (11.d). This shows that news editors are conscious of the chunking of discourse and that they have developed their own conventional terms to refer to different parts of discourse.

The second prominent element in this type of MDOE is the use of a discourse deixis to refer to the stage of development of the current discourse. "Now" in (11.d) "Now to end the news ..." is not an adverb of time but like "now" in (10.e) refers to the following stretch of discourse and what has gone before. This use of "now" is similar to one found in the combination "and now" which is found in this type of MDOE and which reminds us of "and that", a combination that has been discussed earlier in (3.2.1), because both combinations have "and" as first element and a discourse deictic element as a second. "here" in (12.d) is also a discourse deictic element referring to the coming part of discourse. Like "this", in its discourse deictic function, "here" contrasts with "that" in as far as the latter exclusively refers to the preceding discourse (see Fillmore 1971:227-228). Adverbs such as "again", in "... the main points again", and "finally", in "Finally the main points" are common in MDOEs referring to a part of discourse. Both adverbs underline the organizing function of the utterances in which they appear. Radio Four makes use of other adverbs with clear organizing functions such as "other" in (11.b) "one other headline" and "also" in "also before the next half hour". (RF:00513).

In this type of MDOE the generic term "the news" is used as in (11.a) "the news in detail ..." (12.d) and "Now to end the news, ...". Moreover Arabic makes use of the address form "sayidaatii wa saadatii" (Ladies and Gentlemen) and "ilaa hadaraatikum" (to your excellency) as in:

- (12) sayidaatii saadatii xitaaman lihaathihi alnnuŝra
 Ladies and Gentlemen to end this news
 'ilaa ḥaḍaraatikum mulaxaŝan ...
 to your excellency a summary ... (AS:15727)

4) Interrupting MDOEs: in this final type of MDOEs, the flow of discourse is interrupted at any point in the development to insert a newly received news topic or to update a current one. Only two such occasions are found in the corpus, and both occur in relation to a major news topic. One cannot expect to find a standardized conventional formula used to signal the interruption. The following example occurs when more news is received about a current news topic, the arrival of Cruise missiles in Britain.

- (13) Now more on the arrival of American Cruise
 missiles at Greenham Common Airbase. (...)
 (RF: 02025)

Only "now" needs to be considered here. "Now" here is a discourse deictic that signals a shift to a new part of the discourse and also to the interactive plane. One important difference between "now" in (13) and discourse deictic "now" with other types of DOEs is the difficulty of inserting "and" before it to make a compound discourse deictic "and now" (see 3.3.2 (3b)). "And" in "and now" would be providing a link to previous discourse which "now" in (13) cannot do, because the stretch of discourse referred to by "now" in (13) is not organized to follow but just interrupts the flow of the previously organized discourse.

3.3.3 Closing Discourse Organizing Elements (CDOEs)

Like the beginning of news discourse, its end is signalled verbally. The closing elements, however, are not absolutely

necessary, since anyone who is following a whole text knows that after a final summary the news broadcast ends (some cases in the corpus do not have Closing DOEs, see Table 3, columns 5 and 6). However, the verbal signalling of the end of radio programmes is widely practised, because any visual or environmental clues found in television or real life interaction are absent. Where a Closing DOE is used, it explicitly ends the news content (message): still it owes this organizing function first and foremost to its structural position at the end of the discourse. Here are some examples of CDOEs from different groups of texts in the corpus:

- (14) a) And that is the end of the news from London. BBC
World Service. (WS: 04124)
- b) BBC Radio news (RF: 02211)
- c) That is, Ladies and Gentlemen, the end of our news
bulletin from Radio Damascus (RDE: 05616)
- d) bihaathaa sayidaatii wa saadatii tantahii
 This Ladies and Gentlemen ends
alannašra alrraabi9a lil'anbaa' qadamnaahaa
 the fourth newsbulletin presented
 liḥaḍaraatikum min dimašq.
 to you from Damascus. (RDA: 15205)
- e) And that's the news at five past twelve. (RT: 18630)

The minimum elements in a CDOE are service identification and the generic term "news" or its Arabic equivalent "anbaa" or "axbaar". These two elements have been discussed in relation to other types of DOEs, and are underlined in (14) above. In Arabic news and in news from Radio Two and the World Service two other elements are found in Closing DOEs. Firstly, there is the use of a

lexical item to indicate the end of the language event. The word "end" as a noun (14.a and c) and its Arabic equivalent "tantahii" (ends) as a verb in (14.d) are favoured. The second element found in some CDOEs is the discourse deixis "that" and its Arabic equivalent "haathaa" (this). The choice of "that" contrasts with "this" which refers to the following stretch of discourse (3.3.2.1(1.b)). The organizational signalling of "that" is seen in its periodic gesture; "that" is the news, ie. the news has ended .

3.4 Overall Structure and DOEs in Radio News Discourse

Considerations of the discourse organizing function of DOEs lead us to the question of the theoretical status of such elements in relation to the overall structure of discourse. To start with we should address the question whether DOEs can be accounted for within the framework of a rank-scale model of discourse suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), or a textual schema in the sense manipulated by Winter (1976) and Swales (1981). Having discussed the above question, we conclude with a summary of the aspects of the organizational function of DOEs, and an examination of this function in relation to the overall structure of the news broadcast.

In the following table Gregory and Carroll's observation (1978:44) about the summary-details-summary structure of the news is implemented. In Table (5) the first column contains the first summary; the second contains the expanded version of the items in the summary; and the third contains a repetition of the summary. The study of DOEs in relation to other parts of the news will, because of the scope of the organizing function and the position of

DOEs, necessarily lead to questions well beyond the discourse units of summary/expansion of which only three are found in a typical news broadcast.

3.4.1.1 DOEs and rank-scale discourse structure

If discourse structure is taken as structure in a strictly technical sense, a matter far from being settled (Halliday, 1978:134; and Burton 1981:63), the elements of this structure should be organizable in a rank-scale, a scale of structural units in which the small unit is included in the one directly above it on the scale (see Halliday 1961). Table (5) shows that news discourse yields itself to a systematic division of summary-expansion-summary. Frequently, the border between these parts is overtly signalled by a medial DOE. Thus, on the paradigmatic axis the first structural unit below the news as a whole is what can be called summary/expansion unit (Fig.3). Summary and expansion are taken to be at the same point on the rank-scale because: (1) any part of the news discourse is included in one of these major chunks; (2) a summary or an expansion of a new item is a "complete" news item in itself (the expansion repeats the summary with elaboration); (3) each of these elements in a news discourse shows the same structural constituents (see 3.4.1.2) and (4) there are news broadcasts without the summary as in Radio Two news in the corpus.

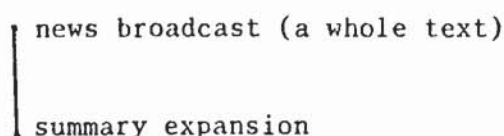


Figure (3): The rank-scale of overall discourse structure of RND (1)

It should be noticed here that a summary or an expansion is

signalled or in fact organized by DOEs, which are not part of the summary or expansion, but constitute a kind of "framing move" to use Sinclair and Coulthard's term (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:22).

Before moving to examine the internal structure of the summary/expansion, we should say a word about the factors ("outside the linguistic system" (Halliday 1978:134)) that determine the above discourse structure peculiar to news discourse. Perhaps, the paramount factor here (observed by Gregory and Carroll 1978:44) is the spoken mode, combined with the fact that the speaker has no access to the audience to ensure that the message has been conveyed. Therefore, the speaker has to allow for those listeners who miss a part of the message because of inattentiveness, memory limitation or switching on their radio set during the broadcast. The second external factor in determining the news structure is the length of time (and consequently length of text) available, which necessitates the presence of summary (Radio Four, 30 minutes news texts), the use of a short version of news item without summary or expansion e.g. Radio Two 2 minutes news, or the absence of the repetition of the summary, e.g. Radio Four: 5 minute news (see Volume Two, Appendix II).

3.4.1.2 The structure of the unit summary/expansion

In the search for a discourse unit below the summary/expansion, the function and distribution of DOEs give us a guideline. Firstly, the scope of reference of DOEs, ie. its range of organization, need not be the whole of the news, the summary or the expansion, since some DOEs confine their discourse reference to

one news topic, (ie. one news item). Secondly, the news item is marked out by the distribution of DOEs, which occur, with the exception of report introducing MDOE (3.3.2.a(2.a)), only at item boundary, but not within an item. Although not every change of news item is signalled by a DOE, item boundary is easily decided, since news topics are very different from one another (see 5.3.1 below). The news item as a unit of discourse is well illustrated by major news topics, which occur first in the summary, and then in the expansion and in the repetition of the summary. A look at the first item in columns (1, 2 and 3) in Table (5) show the independence of the item as a discourse unit below that of summary/expansion (fig. 4 below represents the rank-scale).

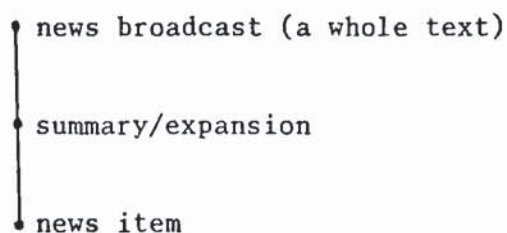


Figure (4): The rank-scale of overall discourse structure in RND (2)

It is significant that the item as a structural unit is ultimately validated on the ground that it deals with a topic which is often widely different from the topic of the previous or preceding items. (See 6 for items in one news text in different services). Now although this property of self-containedness of a news item helps us identify an important unit in the structure of news discourse, it still poses a serious challenge to certain "coherence" theories, and even brings the structural unit of news discourse into question. Firstly, the relationship between item (1) and item (2) (or item (2) and item 3) in the news text in Table (5)

Table (5): Summary expansion and news item

BRIEFING SUMMARY	EXPANSION	REPETITION OF OF SUMMARY
<p>Opening Identification: Radio 4. DOE BBC news at six o'clock. Greetings: Good evening, this is Brian Baker.</p> <p>Four thousand jobs are to go in BL's truck and bus division, which has a work force of about eighteen thousand. -----</p>	<p>2a British Levland is to carry out a drastic slim- ming down operation in its truck and bus division. The work force will be reduced by more than a fifth.</p> <p>BL say the aim of this re- construction plan is to make the group more competitive. But it means more than four thousand redundancies, many of them in Lancashire, an area already hit by high un- employment. In fact, overall the number of workers in the division will be reduced from eighteen thousand to fourteen thousand. The news brought an immediate hostile reaction from the Unions. One Union leader said the Government was only interested in asset strip- ping, not the long-term future of BL. Here is our industrial correspondent, Peter Smith. -----</p> <p>The thread manufacturers J and P Coates are to get rid of about a thousand jobs at Paisley near Glasgow over the next two or three years.</p> <p>One of the firm's two Paisley plants, the F. Lee Mill, is to close. Coates intends to invest £4 million in the other plant, A. mill, provided that Govern- ment help is available. The firm hopes that job reductions will be achieved largely by natural wastage and voluntary redundancies. -----</p>	<p>Four thousand jobs are to go in BL's truck and bus div- ision, which has a work force of about eighteen thousand. -----</p>

	<p>Britain's balance of payment's figure announced this afternoon shows that our foreign trade has combined a surplus of exports over imports, though both sales and purchases were lower in October than September.</p> <p>-----</p> <p>However, the disruption in the Civil Service caused by the pay dispute earlier this year means that there were no figures for foreign trade from February to September, and as our economics Editor, Dominic Barodexplains, the recent statistics show that Britain is doing less well after the blackout period when no figures were issued.</p> <p>-----</p>	
<p>The surgeon Paul Vickers has been sent to prison for murdering his wife and the judge said that he should stay there for at least seventeen years. Pamela Collison was found not guilty.</p>	<p>The surgeon Paul Vickers has been found guilty of murdering his wife by poisoning her with the anti-cancer drug CCEU.</p> <p>The judge at Teeside Crown Court sentenced him to life imprisonment with the recommendation that he serves at least seventeen years. Vicker's former mistress, Pamela Collison, was found not guilty of Mrs Vicker's murder. But later she pleaded guilty to two charges ...</p>	<p>The surgeon Paul Vickers has been sent to prison for murdering his wife and the judge said that he should stay there for at least seventeen years. Pamela Collison was found not guilty.</p>
(...)	(...)	(...)

cannot be accounted for by Widdowson's conception of coherence as a relationship between illocutionary force in two utterances (Widdowson 1978:52). Nor, for that matter, would Winter's clause relations (1974) or what Hutchins (1977: 21) calls semantic progression hold at this level of discourse structure, since none of

these concepts can conceivably account for the relation between the following items cited above in Table (4).

- (16) a) Four thousand jobs are to go in BL's truck and bus division, which has a workforce of about eighteen thousand.
- b) The Northern Ireland Secretary, Mr Prior, has made an unexpected visit to the border area in County Fermanagh.
- c) Waddingtons has withdrawn the bomb disposal game.

The greater challenge would be targeted towards the structural unity of news discourse and can be seen in the fact that a news item can be taken out of a news broadcast without any consequent damage to its overall structure. In fact there is no way to know that an item has been omitted, at least not on linguistic evidence anyway.

Now the question whether a textual schema can be found insightful concerning the above issues becomes relevant. In this respect, we notice that the symmetrical structure of summary-expansion-summary is promising as a news schema. This is also reinforced by the systematic serial way in which each summary item is expanded later. When it comes to the relation between one news item and another in news discourse, a textual schema cannot plausibly be established on linguistic relations between items. It may, however, be suggested that to work out a textual schema for news discourse, a single pragmatic notion is needed to account for the ordering of news items in a news broadcast. Relevance to audience, it may be suggested, is a suitable notion for choosing and

ordering news topics; this would place national news first followed by foreign news. However, two problems would arise from such an assumption. Firstly, relevance to audience will not allow for grouping relevant (ie. related or similar) topics together; nor would it provide a way for ordering different foreign news topics which are relevant to the audience. The relevance to audience principle is also violated to give way to an important foreign news item as in (RF: 01302) when the news about Sri Lankan riots occurs before news related to a British audience. One way of maintaining the current presentation of textual schema could be to allow for certain pragmatic notions to supersede the main notion of relevance to audience. Thus, an important item will come before one relevant to audience but of less importance. Moreover, all other things being equal, relevant (ie related) topics can be grouped together as in the example in Table (5) where the first item deals with compulsory redundancy in British Leyland, the second with redundancies in J & P Coates and the third deals with trade balance figures. Without going into further details, we can say that although notions such as relevance to audience (see 5.3.1 for discussion of audience in relation to the use of attribution) and what Levinson (1983:314) calls topical coherence do explain certain cases of organizing news items and thus can serve as guidelines for local organization of news discourse, still this is a far cry from the strict "information structure" sequencing envisaged by Winter (1978) or the regular patterning of moves identified in introduction to scientific articles (Swales 1981).

3.4.1.3 The structure of news item

The average length of a news item is between 90 and 150 words. But major items, or stories of the day, which extend up to about 600 words are frequent in Radio Four 30 minutes news texts. Since the news item is a rather large and complex unit, and consequently cannot be easily considered the smallest unit of news discourse, the search for elements that make up the structure of the item is a crucial one. It has already been observed that, with one exception (3.3.2.1(2)), DOEs do not penetrate the news item unit. But if the search for structural elements in the news item leads us to compare an item as it occurs in the summary with its correspondent expanded version, we notice an important regularity in the structure of the expanded version. The first part of each expanded item has the same content as the summary item, and thus it acts as topic introduction to the expanded item. The following is an example from Table (5) where all topic introduction of items in the expansion are marked out by dots.

- (17) Four thousand jobs are to go in BL's truck and bus division, which has a workforce of about eighteen thousand.

British Leyland is to carry out a drastic slimming down operation in its truck and bus division. The workforce will be reduced by more than a fifth. BL says the aim of the reconstruction plan is to make the group more competitive. But it means more than four thousand redundancies, many of them in Lancashire, an area already hit by high unemployment. In fact, overall the number of workers in the division will be reduced from eighteen thousand to fourteen thousand. The news brought an immediate hostile reaction from the Unions. One Union

leader said the Government was only interested in asset stripping, not the long-term future of BL. Here is our industrial correspondent, Peter Smith:

Although the topic introduction echoes the "topic sentence" theory (Christensen, 1963) and although it tells us something about the first part of the news item, it is yet to be seen, upon further examination of other structural elements, if this can be taken as a breakthrough in the search for a structural unit below the item or a regular sequencing process capable of sustaining a textual schema. Let us explore what follows the topic introduction in (17) above to see what elements can be identified (if any at all).

(17a)

1. topic introduction	British Leyland is to carry out a drastic slimming down operation in its truck and bus division. The workforce will be reduced by more than a fifth.
2. first side's viewpoint	BL say the aim of the reconstruction plan is to make the group more competitive. But it means
3. editorial explanation and comment	more than four thousand redundancies, many of them in Lancashire, an area already hit by high unemployment. In fact, overall the number of workers in the division will be reduced from eighteen thousand to fourteen thousand. The news brought
4. expanding (adding to) news topic	an immediate hostile reaction from the Unions.
5. second side's viewpoint.	One Union leader said the government was only interested in asset-stripping, not the long-term future of BL.
6. medial DOE introducing	Here is our industrial correspondent, Peter Smith: [a report]

The labels used above are by no means settled or certain. The third utterance, for instance, spells out the implication of the redundancy plan, and thus it explains the plan; but it can be taken as providing more details about the current news topic, or giving an editorial comment. The uncertainty about assigning any of these "functions" to this utterance poses a well recognised problem for

discourse analysis, a problem justifying Burton's observation that: "... researchers who have collected data from other [than classroom] situation" (...) have encountered considerable problems in trying to use and adapt the Sinclair-Coulthard model." (Burton 1981:61) "... I revised and considered the list [of acts]"(ibid:56). To resolve the difficulties arising from speech act based theories of coherence and discourse structures (used by Sinclair and Coulthard 1975), Levinson has observed that the activity type being realized in language is to be taken into account in order to interpret the relationship between utterance and function (Levinson, 1979:374).

Still the sequence of five "functions" presented in (17a) cannot be adopted or sustained as a basis for the internal structure of the news item. This is because in addition to the difficulties of assigning functions of the sort mentioned above, a wide variation of patterning is found in news items. The problem in assigning a function, or functions, to an utterance is not that of multiplicity of functions which some utterances perform at once (Levinson 1983:311) but in the functions themselves. Even in apparently straightforward cases of assigning a function to an utterance as in expanding a report by presenting a point of view (17a), a number of questions remain to be answered. What, for instance, is the editor's communicative purpose in using a given discourse function? What are the lexico-grammatical realizations of a given discourse function, and thus the boundary of one function in relation to another? How can discourse functions which are not primarily interactive as Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) but which express content (on the autonomous plane, to use Sinclair's (1981)

The second difficulty with adopting the sequence of elements approach in news items as presented in (17a) is that it cannot be employed: not even in news items of similar length. If an "information structure" is to be proved, one has to identify a number of functions in news items (covering every utterance in the item) and prove some regularity of ordering them. This is too ambitious to be attempted within one study. However, if improvised labels are used in an attempt to see the sequences found in different news items and compare them with the first item analysed in (17a), it is found that the sequences show wide variations.

- (18) a) Item 1 (Table 5): topic introduction -- point of view + editor's explanation + comment + etc.
- b) Item 2 (Table 5): topic introduction -- more information about topic + point of view
- c) Item 3 (Table 5): topic introduction -- editor's explanation + introducing a reporter
- d) Item 4 (Table 5): topic introduction --

The only regularity found is the occurrence of "topic introduction" at the beginning. However, the result in (17) of looking for a regular sequence in "expression" is no nearer to a regular pattern, but rather reminds one of works on "coherence" in which long and numerous combinations of elements are proposed as patterns in the text(s) being studied (this is the case in Hobbs, 1982). For the reasons mentioned so far in connection with the regular sequence approach, the search for regular sequences that cover the whole of the news discourse cannot be pursued further in the present work which is primarily concerned with interactive utterances.

3.4.2.1 The organizing function of DOEs in Radio News Discourse

The organization of news has been shown to owe its structure to the conventions followed by news editors, and to the organizational function of DOEs. Three aspects of the organizing function of the DOEs stand out: (1) its metatextual reference, (2) interactive function and (3) its prospective potential.

(1) We have seen that the referent to the stretch of discourse being organized is determined by the deictic or lexical reference of the DOEs. Thus some DOEs concern the organization of the discourse as a whole, ie. the "overall organization" (Levinson, 1983:308), as in the case of opening or closing DOES (3.3.1) and 3.3.3); or a part of the discourse, ie. local organization as in the cases of medial DOEs which can introduce the whole of the expansion or just one item (See 3.3.2.1).

(2) DOEs are interactive and thus, although what they organize are chunks of discourse, they are, first and foremost, addressed to the audience in a way the news message is not. That these elements function on the interactive plane is evident in the manipulation of address forms (discussed in 3.3.1 (3) above).

(3) DOEs look forward. This prospective feature of DOEs, it has been shown earlier (3.2.2), is to some extent predictive. They signpost the news discourse in a general fashion to enable the news listeners to anticipate the nature of what is to come (eg. a summary of the news, or the last item) rather than predict the content of what is to come. The closing DOE is however "retrospective" to use Sinclair's term (Sinclair 1980).

3.4.2.2 Discourse structure and DOEs

We have seen that DOEs can be used to identify the main divisions of the news discourse. Moreover, DOEs, together with other features, mark the boundary of news items within the larger parts of summary or expansion by virtue of their distribution (they occur between items) and by virtue of referring to one item in some cases. Here we would like to see if DOEs can provide some clues about the relationship between one news item and its preceding or following one, a question that theories of speech acts and semantic progression have failed to solve.

If a sample of DOEs is examined carefully, it is found that they refer to the news as one event, since at one level they set out to organize the totality of the news. Thus in 18a or 18b the reference is to the totality of the news text:

- (18) a) BBC news at six o'clock ... (RF: 01701)
- b) And that is the news at five past twelve (RT: 18609)

Thus DOEs treat the news broadcast as one instance of discourse language event in cases where they refer to a part of the news as in 19a and 19b:

- (19) a) And now to end the news, here are the main points again
(WS:04108)
- b) alnaba' al'axiir (the last news item)
(RDA: 12806)

However, it should be said that this external evidence of the news discourse unity does not advance the case of the relationship between one news item and its immediate neighbour. We

saw earlier that the movement from one item to another is not related to content, illocutionary force or information, but the items are just listed together in a news text. This listing of items in news discourse (a mere stringing of one thing after another thing of "the same" nature) seems to reflect a listing convention that has been developed at an early stage of producing news as a specific type of discourse. The local organization of news items (their choice and/or sequencing) can be captured by certain pragmatic notions such as relevance to audience; but the usefulness of these notions remains limited (see 3.4.1.2 above) as far as the present issue is concerned. That the news broadcast is presented by the news editor and received by the listeners as one language event remains behind any notion of relevance, and ultimately behind the unity of this, and possibly other types of discourse.

3.4.2.3 Discourse organizing function and other textual functions in Radio News Discourse

It has been said that the organizing function of DOEs is determined by their structural position as much as to their referential function. The structural position, however, leaves the organizing function outside the news item itself, and thus has no chance to contribute to the organization of the internal structure of the item. We conclude that the organizational function of DOEs operates at a high level of textual structuring; the level of the units of summary/expansion and item discussed earlier (3.4.1.2). Therefore, DOEs, which provide the outline of news discourse structure at this high level, cannot claim to penetrate the structure of the news item. Meanwhile, the textual structuring of

elements inside the news item can be captured by the study of prominent discourse functions recurrent in news items. In studying such functions, the emphasis is on structural position within the news item as well as on the pragmatic notions that lie behind their existence. Attributing statements to their sources (Chapters 4 & 5) and providing background information about news topics and proper names in the news (Chapter 6 & 7) are two functions chosen in this study. In addition to providing insights into the news items' textual structuring, like DOEs, these two functions are mainly used to modify or to add information to the news message itself.

Footnotes

(1)

This group of Radio News texts was obtained from a larger collection made and transcribed by P. Frantzis for the purpose of teaching (see 1.2.2.2 for a description of the corpus).

(2)

The term "generic" is used to refer to genre (cf. Halliday's term "generic structure", Halliday 1978,133). Also see page 89.

CHAPTER FOUR

ATTRIBUTION FUNCTION IN RADIO NEWS DISCOURSE (1):

PRELIMINARIES AND TYPES OF ATTRIBUTION FUNCTION IN THE CORPUS

4.0 It can be easily observed that sometimes the news editor resorts to hedging his/her commitment to the news statements (cf. Richardson 1980). This confirms the view expressed by Kress (1984:136) and Bell (1984:100) that the news editor's mediation can be lessened by shifting the responsibility of the propositional content of a given statement to a source other than the editor. The present chapter studies this shift of responsibility in the restricted corpus (restricted corpus contains 25 long news texts and 26 shorts news summaries, see Chapter One (1.2.2.2.) for details of the restricted corpus) calling it "Attribution Function". Two aspects of this function are to be investigated: (1) elements of Attribution, definition and consideration of criteria for Attribution, and (2) Attribution as a function of shifting the point of view to an entity other than the news editor to signal detachment in BBC news discourse and to underline the editorial line in Radio Damascus News Discourse. Other aspects of this function, including its textual patterning, are to be studied in the next chapter.

4.1 Attribution in Radio News Discourse: preliminaries

Sometimes, radio news reports material that has previously appeared in oral or written discourse. In reporting such material, under the constraints of his/her world knowledge at the time of transmitting the news, the communicative purpose of the news activity, and the compactness of news discourse owing to time

limitation, the news editor has to make decisions as to which part of the previous material to include and where he/she stands from its content. A particularly important judgement made by the editor is whether the propositional content of a statement from a previous text can be reported from the editor's point of view as in 1 (below), or whether the editor's commitment should be hedged to a large or small degree as in (2 and 3) respectively.

- (1) One boy has drowned and one other is feared drowned
in separate incidents in holiday resorts.
(RF: 01405)
- (2) An international arms dealer has claimed that the
Anglican missionaries detained in Iran were released
in exchange for machine guns.
(RF:00510)
- (3) The Judge, Mr Justice Purchas, said that the evidence had
been overwhelming
(RF:00718)

From the editor's point of view, the proposition "the boy has drowned" in (1) is presented baldly as a statement of fact. The proposition expressed in (2) i.e. "the Anglican missionaries ... were released in exchange for machine guns" is heavily marked as Attribution by the use of the reporting verb "claim". While the statement that "the evidence had been overwhelming" in (3) is assigned to a source other than the editor, the more neutral reporting verb "said" does not make the editorial disassociation from the reported utterance in the marked form found in (2). (2) and (3) are using responsibility shift.

Before indulging in a detailed discussion of Attribution Function, we need to identify the scope and elements of this

function, attempt a definition of Attribution in news discourse, and discuss the criteria that can recognize Attribution.

4.1.1 The scope of Attribution in the present study

It has already been said that Attribution Function presupposes a previous text (which has been uttered previous to this reiteration or paraphrase in the news broadcast) and involves a shift in the point of view (thus responsibility) from the editor to another source, a shift that reduces the commitment of the editor to the statement being reported. Still, the scope of Attribution needs to be further specified. Firstly, what is being reported from previous discourse must be (as in (4) below) a proposition and not a single word, term or its synonym as in (4) below.

- (4) The proposal put forward by Britain's representative,
Mr Neil McFarlane called for the segregation of rival
supporters in stadiums...

(RFs: 09025)

The use of a word from the previous discourse has little bearing on the propositional content of the statement in which it appears; and therefore the question of editor's commitment is not raised in the same way as when the statement as a whole is being attributed as in 2 and 3 above.

Secondly, the present investigation excludes a few cases of direct report, usually a nominal group referring to a particular event as in (5) and (6) below.

- (5) the so-called tea-break strike ... (RF: 01133)

- (6) the so-called casual ticket sales ... (RFs: 09028)

The editor's non-commitment is signalled here by the use of "so-called" which makes the nominal that follows it a direct quotation. However, direct quotation of this kind is too rare to become a prominent feature of news discourse. But more important is the fact that because terms and words tend, when they gain currency, to be used with no reference to their source or initiator (as Swales 1986 has observed), great uncertainty may be faced in identifying the individual words taken from previous discourse. Moreover, here we are interested in the phenomenon of attributing the whole of a proposition.

4.1.2 Definition of Attribution Function in Radio News Discourse (RND)

A definition of Attribution Function should capture the essential feature of shifting the point of view to a source other than the editor. This shift in point of view enables the editor to report the attributed statement as the responsibility of the original source. Thus, Attribution Function in radio news can be defined as the use of news statements which are presented from the point of view of their original source so that the editor's commitment to them is lessened (hedged) to some degree (in BBC news) or given support (in RD news); such statements should be distinguished from news statements presented from the editor's point of view, which imply acceptance by the news editor as being the state of affairs as far as his/her knowledge is concerned.

The terms statement, point of view and original source need some clarification. Firstly, although attributed statements are

most frequently realized in reported clauses, still the term "statement" is essential here, since as Hintikka (1962:6) has said, only what can be put as a statement can be true or false, and thus disputable. It is important to notice that what is being attributed is a complete statement and not components of one.

- (7) The Archbishop of Westminster, Cardinal Hulme, has asked the CND leader, Monsignor Bruce Kent, to see him later this week ... (RF: 01708)

- (2) An international arms dealer has claimed that the Anglican Missionaries detained in Iran were released in exchange for machine guns. (RF:00510)

In narrating (7) the news editor is interfering in as far as the choice of the content of the statement in the first place, and then in paraphrasing the Archbishop's words, which are not known to us as listeners to the news. Therefore, (7) is not a case of Attribution but in (2) the attributed statement is mediated in such a way that the speaker is distinguishing himself/herself from it. While cases such as (7) are excluded from considerations of Attribution, the attributed statements being studied here are clearly and straightforwardly attributed to their original source as in (2).

The second term, point of view, refers to the mechanism which enables the editor to present the statement being reported from the angle of another entity. This change in point of view must be explicit as defined by Kuno (1975) and McKay (1976), and not a mere inclusion of a reference to an entity other than the speaker. Thus as Werlich (1976) has successfully demonstrated, neither of the following two examples is to be considered as a case of change to

the speaker's point of view.

(8) Apollo 8 took off ...

(9) The crew fired the rocket engine

(Werlich 1976:61)

Though the action of firing of the rocket is done from the crew's point of view, still the statement as a whole is presented from the speaker's point of view and he/she is responsible for its truth, i.e. committed to it. In cases of Attribution we are concerned with, the change in point of view shifts the responsibility to the original source of the attributed statement. It has to be mentioned here that in discussing responsibility and commitment in Attribution Function, the analysis is carried out from the editor's perspective. This is recommended by the declared editorial policy of radio services (see Chapter Two) and the fact that audience support for or doubt about a given statement constitutes a variable that changes with members of audience in accordance with the listener's knowledge and belief (see 5.3.1 for Attribution and audience).

The third term used in the definition, the original source, refers to an entity which can be held responsible for the attributed statement. This source can be a person, an organization or another text (e.g. report or statement). It can also be completely absent as in the case of a passive reporting clause in (10).

(10) It has been reported that

Whether opaque as in (10) or overtly stated, the source of Attribution is the entity that is held by the news editor to be responsible for a given statement which is being reported in the frame of Attribution.

4.1.3 Elements of Attribution Function in RND

The definition of Attribution Function provided in the previous section makes use of the two basic elements in Attribution Function: 1) an attributed statement and (2) a source of Attribution. Generally speaking, the attributed statement, which is usually realized in a dependent clause, carries the news content when it is reporting an event. The attributed statement may, however, express the feeling or judgement of its source, in which case the source would be prominent while the statement content would be familiar. Still no matter which of the two elements of Attribution is the new information, the Attribution Function commends itself to the news editor for the purpose of shifting the point of view and responsibility away from the news editor.

The second element, the source of Attribution, is often realized in the subject of a reporting clause. The source could be omitted in the case of the passive structure. The entity of the source of Attribution is not always a human being, but could also be an organization or a text (eg. a report or a statement). The main two elements of Attribution are shown in Figure (5) below.

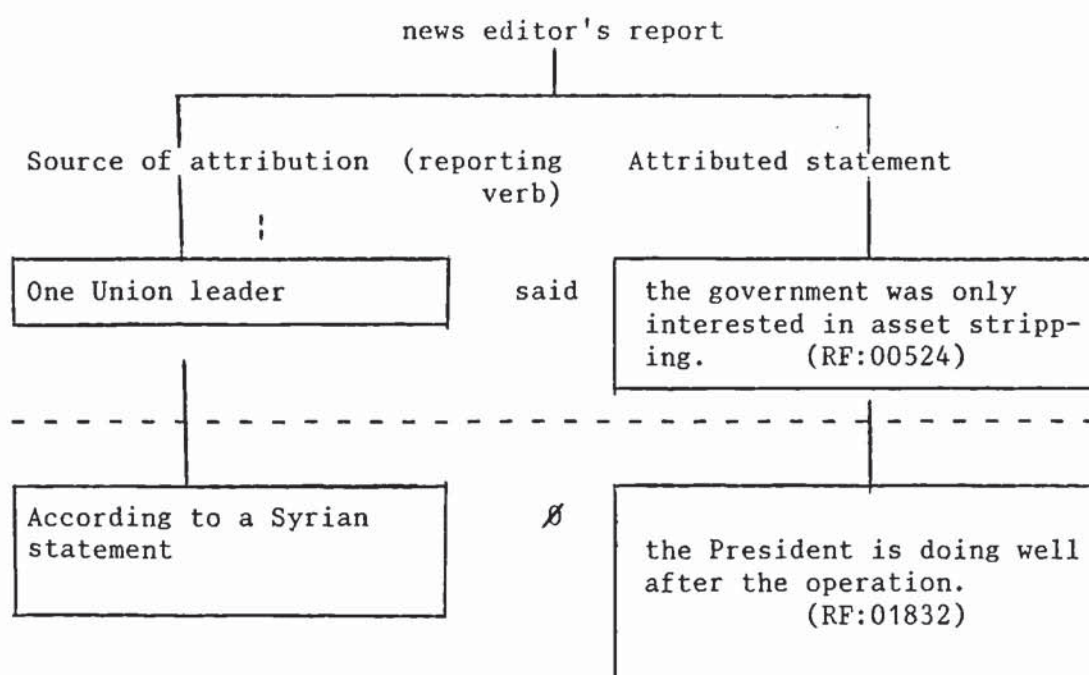


Figure (5): Elements of Attribution in radio news reporting.

We notice the use of a reporting verb in the first instance and a "reporting adjunct" (cf. Tadros's term "adjunct of reporting" (Tadros, 1981:267), in the second instance which does not use a reporting/reported grammatical structure. No matter what grammatical structure it uses, to determine if a given case is one of Attribution two steps have to be taken: (1) recognizing the two elements of Attribution outlined above, and (2) specifying the relationship between these two elements. Establishing criteria for determining Attribution Function rests on these considerations.

4.1.4 Textual and pragmatic considerations concerning the establishment of criteria for identifying Attribution Function

A considerable amount of the evidence for Attribution is textual as Weizman's criteria show (Weizman 1984). Although the

choice to use Attribution Function is primarily determined by the statement, which motivates the editor's detachment, and the source of Attribution, which may be biased or have a vested interest in the statement attributed to it, yet ultimately Attribution Function has to be seen in relation to the rest of the discourse in which it appears. Textually, the view of the editor concerning the attributed statement is detectable (in addition to the lexical choice of the reporting verb) in the rest of the discourse where the editor may include another attributed statement expressing a counter point of view to the previous case of Attribution. To determine the degree of editor's commitment to the attributed statement, it is vital that this textual evidence is taken into account.

In cases of Attribution where the editor does not include another Attribution expressing a view opposing the first case, we have to make use of our knowledge of the world for deciding the degree of the editor's commitment to the attributed statement. The knowledge of the world is, to a large extent, a shared knowledge between editor and listeners; but more importantly, it is a knowledge of the world which is being presented in the discourse through the editor's eyes.' Thus in (11) though no textual evidence using the propositional content of the attributed statement or a counter view is found in the rest of the discourse, yet we "know" that the Minister of Transport has the knowledge and power relevant to the use of the bridge.

- (11) The Transport Minister, Mr Nicholas Ridley, has told MPs that from midnight tonight, round the clock restrictions on traffic using the Severn Bridge will be lifted.

(RF: 02807)

In fact the knowledge of the world allows us to take what the minister says about the bridge in 11 (above) as part of regulation, and the statement itself as having the full weight of ministerial authoritative power.

Pragmatic consideration of world knowledge should also be called upon to treat more subtle cases of attribution. In such cases, the attributed statement is found not to have a non-attribution paraphrase or a counter view in the rest of the discourse, yet we know that it is controversial and potentially has a counter view. The attributed statement in 12 (below) will be judged on the basis of world knowledge to be partisan and one-sided, since it presents the Labour Party view about something that can be claimed by any of the major British parties.

- (12) One of the contenders for the Labour party leadership, Mr Roy Hattersley, has said the collapse of the Conservative vote in the by-election proves that votes are there for Labour to win back.

(RF: 01533)

In the absence of textual evidence in the form of a counter view or a non-attribution paraphrase of the content of the attributed statement (underlined), our knowledge of the world indicates that the position of a senior Labour party politician and his expected statement in support of Labour make the proposition too partisan for the news editor to use without attribution. In order to establish explicit criteria that can capture the degree of news editor's commitment to attributed statements, textual evidence (in the form of counter view or paraphrase) and pragmatic consideration (used in (12) above) are vital. However, as the following section

shows, these are not the only feasible criteria for Attribution function.

4.1.5 Informal (intuitive) criteria for identifying Attribution Function in RND

The basic observation that cases of Attribution in news discourse show different degrees of editor's commitment (or non-commitment) towards the attributed statement can be illustrated by the use of informal criteria in the form of intuitive tests. Let us examine the following examples:

(13) 13a1 An international arms dealer has said that the three Anglican missionaries detained in Iran were released in exchange for machine guns.
(Constructed)

a2 An international arms dealer has claimed that the three Anglican missionaries detained in Iran were released in exchange for machine guns.
(RF: 00510)

a3 If an international arms dealer is to be believed, the three Anglican missionaries detained in Iran were released in exchange for machine guns.
(Constructed)

13b1 Buckingham Palace said she [the Princess of Wales] was in the early stages of labour.
(RF: 08304)

b2* Buckingham Palace claimed she was in the early stages of labour.
(Constructed)

b3* If Buckingham Palace is to be believed she was in the early stages of labour.
(Constructed)

13c1 Mr Whitelaw [the Home Secretary] told MPs that he endorsed the philosophy behind it [a report].
(RF: 01039)

c2* Mr Whitelaw claimed that he endorsed the philosophy behind it.

(Constructed)

c3* If Mr Whitelaw is to be believed, he endorsed the philosophy behind it.

(Constructed)

The implications of accepting (13a2) and (13a3) is that the attributed statement in these cases can be intuitively conceived of as a belief⁽¹⁾ of the source, who, though knowledgeable about arms deals, may well have a particular interest in making his revelations. The "claim" and "if" tests cannot however be so readily accepted in (13b2) and (13b3). This is because, as we will see in full discussion of such cases later (4.2.3), the sincerity of a Buckingham Palace statement about the Princess of Wales' delivery is not a matter of mere opinion. In fact, though the editor is not totally committed to the attributed statement in (13b1), still unlike (13a), such a statement stands a good chance of dropping the Attribution Function (see 4.2.3 for a full discussion of this type of Attribution). In (13c1), the attributed statement is a performative and thus the statement of the Home Secretary is not open to dispute, but it announces the government's policy from an ex-officio position.

The intuitive judgement obtained by "claim" and "if" tests provides us with some insights into the functioning of different types of Attribution. But such insights, intuitive as they are, are outweighed by the need for a more objective and explicit set of criteria for Attribution founded on textual and pragmatic considerations (4.1.4).

4.1.6 Attribution criteria and activity types of news events

Explicit criteria for determining and classifying different types of attributed statements should make use of textual and pragmatic evidence in order to specify the circumstances under which a source of Attribution makes its (attributed) statements. Taking circumstances into account has been emphasized by Hintikka (1962:7-10), who studied the logic of belief and knowledge. Most importantly in the present context, this will involve studying the identity and status of the source, the kind of statement it is making, and the relationship between them. Thus, the criteria would identify the candidate for the Labour party leadership as a party politician and identify his statement as a partisan statement which can in this instance be made by other parties' politicians about their own parties (see Mr Hattersley's statement in 12 above). In another case (13b1 above) the criteria should be sensitive enough to recognize that Buckingham Palace (i.e. the official spokesman for the Royal Family) has the knowledge, and would, in normal circumstances, seek sincerity and consistency in announcing the princess's child's delivery.

In making such decisions about the source of Attribution and about its statements, following Levinson (1979), we consider the role of the source in the activity in which the utterance has been made. Moreover, since the activity types of different news events differ widely from one news item to another (eg. political debate, court procedure, road accidents etc.), the question of drawing upon different areas of world knowledge about activity types is paramount. The fact that different news items in a given news text

report different activity types reinforces the news item boundaries and its internal structuring. It, moreover, brings to the forefront the question of the relationship between one news item and the rest of the news text in which it appears (for elaboration on the internal structuring of news items and Attribution Functions see 5.2 below).

4.2 Types of Attribution in BBC English and Arabic RND

The use of Attribution Function in BBC news discourse enables the news editor to report attributed statements from the point of view of their original source and thus signal a degree of detachment from (i.e. non-commitment to) the attributed statement. Five realizations of Attribution Function can be recognized in BBC radio news discourse: (1) Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution, (2) Pragmatic Attribution, (3) Institutional Voice Attribution, (4) Correspondent Attribution and (5) problematic types of Attribution. 2, 3 and 4 are to do with the status of the source of Attribution and his/her statement can be creditable in being a part of the source's authoritative institutional or professional power or not. But what is significant and is argued here to be the basis for the present classification is that the news editor's commitment to each of 2,3 and 4 varies.

4.2.1 Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution in BBC RND

In "Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution", the editor signals overtly his non-commitment to the attributed statement, and for this purpose shifts responsibility of the statement to its original source. Since Attribution is explicitly signalled, this type of

Attribution stands at the extreme end of non commitment (i.e. heavy hedging) of the attributed statement. Moreover, being explicit makes this case of Attribution easy to recognize. Two subtypes of explicit signalling Attribution can be distinguished: (1) a lexical signal in the reporting element and (2) the inclusion in the discourse of a counter point of view.

The first sub-type of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution is realized in a lexical choice by the editor of the reporting verb as in the following example:

- (14) An international arms dealer has claimed that the Anglican missionaries detained in Iran were released in exchange for machine guns.

(RF: 00510)

Just as the choice of a certain element in discourse signals prediction (Tadros 1981) or a stage of discourse development (Hoey 1979), the lexical choice of "claim" in 14 (above) indicates the editor's detachment from and non-commitment to the attributed statement. Though the international arms dealer is in a position to know about arms trade and deals, still he has a vested interest in such deals and in revealing this information. The news editor, therefore, is open to accusations of partiality as Bell (1984:100) has shown, if the Attribution Function is dropped without substantial evidence to support the editor's reporting of the statement from his/her point of view, i.e. as a fact.

The second sub-type of Lexical and/or Counter-claim Attribution signals detachment by the inclusion in the

discourse of a counter view about the propositional content of the attributed statement. Here is an example of this sub-type:

- (15) The Venezuelan government has expelled two Iraqi diplomats for alleged spying. The two men were said to have received information from a Venezuelan official who had been arrested. The Venezuelan government minister has said the Iraqis were probably spying for another country, and the evidence so far pointed to Cuba. An Iraqi Embassy spokesman said he was sure that the diplomats were not involved in spying.

(WS: 03427)

If the editor had presented these two statements from his/her own point of view (ie. without any explicit indication of the source), he/she would be contradicting him/herself. If, *on the other hand*, he/she had dropped Attribution from one, he/she would be subscribing to the view of the non-attribution statement. But by presenting this "exchange" of the disputing parties, the editor has signalled detachment and non-commitment as to whether the two diplomats were spying or not. Sometimes, a case of Counter Claim Attribution is combined with the Lexical choice of "claim". But the main point remains that Lexical, Counter Claim or a combination of the two constitute the extreme and explicit case of hedging.

In many instances of Counter Claim Attribution, the content of the attributed statement may be predicted, but this by no means weakens the editor's need to use Attribution in order to (1) avoid contradiction and (2) signal his/her non-commitment to any side in a dispute. Thus, the editor cannot conceivably say (15a) or (16a) instead of (15) and (16), which actually occur in the corpus.

- (15) Later Monsignor Kent [CND leader] said there is no way it could be claimed that CND is pro-Soviet.

(RF: 01815)

(15a) It could not be claimed that CND is pro-Soviet.
(constructed)

(16) He [the Conservative Party Chairman] said Monsignor
Kent could not tell the difference between democracy
and dictatorship.
(RF: 01820)

(16a) Monsignor Kent could not tell the difference between
democracy and dictatorship.
(Constructed)

Such known views, which are known to represent the stand of each
respective side, would prove too overtly partisan for the editor to
assert; hence the use of Attribution in (15) and (16) above.

4.2.1.1 Criteria for Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution

We have seen in the previous paragraph that the signalling of
non-commitment in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution may take
the form of a lexical choice of a "claim" type of verb and/or the
inclusion of a counter point of view. Lexical signalling is almost
exclusively realized in the verbs "claim" and "allege" as main verbs
of the reporting clause (see 5.1.2 for elaboration on the form of
Attribution Function). This narrow choice of reporting verbs
reflects the high degree of standardization of news discourse.
However, a few cases that use what Tadros (1981:267) calls
"reporting adjunct" are found to express as much non-commitment as
"claim" does. "According to" in 17 (below) is an example of a
reporting adjunct explicitly indicating the editor's non-commitment
to the attributed statement.

- (17) Home-grown Christmas trees will be of better quality this year and will cost the same as last year, according to the British Christmas Tree Association.
(RF: 00832)

Another case in which explicit signalling of attribution does not use a verb is exemplified in 18 (below):

- (18) The French planes have reportedly struck bases belonging to Iranian revolutionary guards and their Shi'ite allies, causing heavy damage.
(WS: 03839)

"Reportedly", which can be called a reporting adverb (see 5.1.2 below), seems to express as much reservation towards the target and the effect of the raid as does "claim" in the constructed example (18a). However, there is a difference in the information content, namely the source of the report is not explicit in (18).

- (18)a The French have claimed that their planes struck bases belonging to Iranian revolutionary guards and their Shi'ite allies, causing heavy damage.
(Constructed)

The second criterion for lexical and/or counter claim Attribution stipulates the presence in the same stretch of discourse of a counter view relating to the propositional content of another case of Attribution. Two typical examples using counter views have been given above. In one, (15), two conflicting views about the activities of two Iraqi diplomats are presented, and in the other, (16), disputable claims about CND are reiterated. However, the counter claim might be somewhat indirect as in the following.

- (19) BL say the aim of this reconstruction plan is to make the group more competitive. (...) One Union leader said the Government was only interested in asset-stripping, not the long-term future of BL.

(RF: 00518)

It is known that the British government has a big say in BL's affairs; consequently by criticizing the government's economic policy the Union leader is seen to be indirectly questioning the aim of BL's redundancy plan.

The notion of shared knowledge between editor and listeners is important for judging the source of attribution as unreliable source in cases of Pragmatic Attribution, and as Institutional Voice in Institutional Voice Attribution (dealt with in 4.2.3 below). It should be said here that the strength of a source is not logically or structurally predictable, but rather intuitively judged. This seems to be due to the fact that from the point of view of a given culture which shares some knowledge about a given source, many sources of Attribution are explicitly and institutionally defined (IV sources such as the Prime Minister), but many also are not and need to be judged in a different way from the above ones by intuitive criteria (test) 'used in 4.1.5 (above). Such tests cannot indicate definitely the strength of the source. Still in plenty of cases of Pragmatic Attribution the attributed statement is disputable and thus offers an implicit indication that signal this type of Attribution.

It is important to notice in this connection that cases like 20 and 20a (below) are not considered cases of Counter Claim Attribution, because although the attributed statements come from

different sources, they agree with, rather than oppose, each other:

- (20) The statement released by them said that at the meeting in Dar es Salaam they accepted the West's suggestion that the Namibian constitution should
(20a) guarantee fundamental rights ... The group's leader [SWAPO], Mr Sam Nujoma confirmed in a speech in Zambia that his movement would guarantee white minority rights.

(WS: 03108)

In fact the SWAPO leader's statement confirms the previous statements of other African states. Therefore, (20) and (20a) do not qualify as cases of Counter Claim Attribution. This, however, does not suggest that the editor is committed to the attributed statements in 20 and 20a (as will be shown in a full discussion of this type of Attribution in 4.2.3.).

4.2.1.2 Types of source and statement in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution and their frequency

Naturally the views of individuals, organizations or countries may be too partisan and thus presented as "claims" attributed to their original source. In the four services of the BBC in the corpus, the sources of Attribution used in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution are of six kinds: (1) individual, (2) organization or group (or its spokesman), (3) publication (announcement, communique etc.), (4) press agency, (5) country and (6) opaque source. The organization, number (2), can be a government or a political party; while the press agency, number (4), can be a professional association (e.g. Reuters) or a government voice (e.g. Tass). The opaque source, number (6), refers to cases in which no source is provided as in the use of the passive in (21), or a

vaguely specified source such as "the news" or "report" in (22) below:

- (21) It was said that Ronald Zen (...) made the threat in writing through an American journalist working in London.

(RFs: 07714)

- (22) tufiidu al'anbaa' bi'anna ...
the news (purports) that

(AS: 12019)

The types of statements attributed to the six sources in cases of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution range from personal claims, as in the case of the arms dealer's example (2 above) to claims made by countries at war (Iraq and Iran, see 03703).

The total number of occurrences of Lexical and/or Counter Claim attributes stands at 79, or 5.80% of the total number of sentences in the BBC corpus (Table 6 below). But big differences are found between different BBC services: RFs: 1.57%; RF: 3.90%; WS: 7.05%; and AS: 15.20. To account for these discrepancies we have to examine news summary and expansion, since the lowest frequency of this type of Attribution occurs in RFs news summaries (a point which will be taken up later 5.2.2). Also to be considered in this connection is the extra-linguistic factor of audience (as Bell has shown, Bell 1977, 1984), since these services are addressed to difference audiences (see 5.3.2 for a comparison of audience and Attribution Function.)

type of source, textual evidence		RF (410) sentence No of occ. %	WS (255) sent. No.of occ. %	RF, (445) sent. No.of occ. %	AS (250) sent. No.of occ. %	total no. of sentences (1360)
1 organization; group etc.; spokesman	lexical signal of doubt	6 1.46	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	7 0.51
2 organization; group etc.; spokesman	textual counter view	3 0.73	7 2.74	2 0.44	18 7.20	30 2.20
3 organization; group etc.; spokesman	lexical signal & textual counter view	5 1.21	0 0	1 0.22	4 1.60	10 0.73
4 publication	textual counter view	0 0	2 0.78	3 0.67	1 0.40	6 0.44
5 publication	lexical signal of doubt	1 0.24	0 0	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
6 press agency	textual counter view	1 0.24	0 0	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
7 country	lexical signal of doubt	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
8 country	textual counter view	0 0	6 2.35	0 0	6 2.40	12 0.88
9 opaque	lexical signal of doubt	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
10 opaque	textual counter view	0 0	0 0	1 0.22	11 4.40	12 0.88
11 Total		16 3.90	18 7.05	7 1.57	38 15.20	79 5.80

Table (6): Type of source and textual evidence and their combinations in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution

It should, moreover, be noticed that the majority of occurrences of Lexical and/or Counter Claim (sixty-nine out of seventy-nine, see column 6, Table 6) present opposing views, in some cases combined with a lexical signal of non-commitment (line 3, Table 6). The significance of this is seen in the use of the reporting verb "say"; this does not in itself strengthen the editor's commitment or

guarantee that the attributed statement is less disputable however; it is neutral in this respect. From the editor's point of view, the use of a counter view is a method used, in the words of a BBC news journalist "to balance the story".⁽¹⁾ Still in relation to the rest of the news or to other types of Attribution, the frequency of counter view occurrences is small (see Chapter 5 for the proportion of news items using counter views).

In summary, in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution the news editor's judgement is tilted in favour of using an explicit signal of non-commitment because the statement being reported is too partisan. The explicit signals are: (1) the use of a "claim" type of verb in the reporting clause, and/or (2) the inclusion of a counter view. These two signals are basic elements in the criteria for recognizing Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution. Finally, the frequency of this type of Attribution amounts to just less than 6% of the total of sentences in the BBC corpus. It is most frequent in the AS and WS, but least frequent in RFs news summaries 1.57%. (See line 11, Table 6).

4.2.2 Pragmatic Attribution in BBC

The attributed statement in this type of Attribution is as much open to dispute as those of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution. But here the attributed statement stands without either a lexical signal or a counter view to indicate the degree of editor's detachment or non-commitment. Yet the knowledge of the world indicates that it is no more than a claim or an expression of the "opinion" of its source. In this sense, it is another case of

heavily hedged Attribution. Let us examine an earlier example again.

- (12) One of the contenders for the Labour party leadership, Mr Roy Hattersley, has said the collapse of the Conservative vote in the Penrith and Border by-election proves that votes are still there for Labour to win back. He told a meeting in Middlesborough that the real choice facing the country was between Conservatives and Labour.

(RF: 01533)

In this typical example of the current political debate in Britain in which different sides have well-known views, in spite of the absence of a reported counter view, the news editor cannot, without being accused of partiality (as pointed out by Bell 1984:97-100) present the attributed statement in non-attribution form as in 12a.

- (12a) The collapse of the Conservative vote in the Penrith by-election proves that votes are still there for Labour to win back. The real choice facing the country is between Conservative and Labour.

(constructed)

As in the CND debate (discussed in 35 below) in which each side reiterates its predictable views, the Labour politician is responding in a predictable fashion to a stereotype situation. This, however, does not lessen the editor's need for Attribution, since it is clear that the source of Attribution, Mr Hattersley, has a vested interest in the attributed statement.

Characteristically, all types of Attribution turn to the addressee: ie. function primarily, but not exclusively, on the interactive plane of discourse (Sinclair, 1981, see Chapter 2 for discussion of the interactive function). But the appeal to the addressee in pragmatic attribution is an appeal to the shared

knowledge about Mr Hattersley and the political atmosphere in Britain at the time the utterance in question was produced. This shared knowledge suggests that Mr Hattersley's statement is potentially disputable, ie. there is a potential counter view.

In other instances of Pragmatic Attribution, the source is giving his version of an event, and not an opinion or evaluation as in 12 above. Let us examine the following example:

- (23) The police in Pakistan say that they have shot dead one of the leaders of the Al-Jihaad guerrilla group and captured two other men in a police raid in Karachi.

(WS: 03130)

Here, it is open to dispute whether a guerrilla leader was shot or not, since no word from the guerrilla group or neutral source is reported. In this, as in other cases of Pragmatic Attribution reporting events, it is possible that the whole incident has not taken place, that the group concerned has not issued a statement, or that a statement was issued but not included in the news. In any case, the editor has not committed her/himself to the truth of the attributed statement in 23 above, since the statement in question is potentially disputable, and the source's reliability is not established as part of the editor-audience world knowledge. In fact it is known that the police and government in Pakistan are on the same side in the conflict with the guerrilla group, and thus we have a good reason to question their partiality.

4.2.2.1 Criteria for Pragmatic Attribution in BBC RND

The first criterion used to decide on cases of Pragmatic Attribution is a positive one in that though there is no explicit signal as in the case of lexical and/or counter claim attribution, still it stipulates the potential existence of a counter view. The existence of a potential counter view is suggested in all controversial statements, which is the case of Mr Hattersley's statement in 12 (above), and the case of the Pakistani police statement about the death of a guerrilla leader in 23. Sometimes, the potential counter view is reflected in the opposing views and in the vested interest of the sources participating in making the news. Thus, we saw that Mr Hattersley's evaluation of the political atmosphere in Britain in 12, is likely to differ from that of the Liberal party for instance. In a similar token, the Pakistani police report of an event (23 above) is likely to differ from that of the opposition's. Thus the news editor uses Attribution to distance himself/herself and also in order not to give the statement the status of a fact.

The second criterion of Pragmatic Attribution is negative in that a case of Pragmatic Attribution will not accept any criteria devised for other types of Attribution Function. The exclusion of the first type, Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution, is easy enough, because it is explicitly signalled. But Pragmatic Attribution has to be distinguished from what will later be called Institutional Voice Attribution (4.2.3). The propositional content of Pragmatic Attribution statement cannot possibly appear in a non-attribution declarative form, while statements of Institutional Voice

Attribution can (a point to be elaborated upon in 4.2.3. below). In addition, the Institutional Voice source has authoritarian power to make the statement attributed to him/her, and therefore his statements are not as much disputable as those of Pragmatic (negative-rated) Attribution (see 4.2.3.0 1 for elaboration).

4.2.2.2 Types of source and statement in Pragmatic Attribution and their frequency in BBC RND

The type of sources found in Pragmatic Attribution are the same as those of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution. The number of occurrences of Pragmatic Attribution is also comparable with that of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attributions. Table 7 states the types of sources and statements and their frequency in Pragmatic Attribution in BBC corpus. The source of Pragmatic Attribution can be an organization (line 1, Table 7), voicing its views or account which is potentially disputable as in Roy Hattersley's statement.

- (12) ... He told a meeting in Middlesborough that the real choice facing the country was between Conservative and Labour.

(RF: 01536)

The second source of Pragmatic Attribution (line 2, Table 7) is a statement etc. which is traceable to a specific identity. eg.

- (24) The statement released by them said that at the meeting in Dar es Salaam they accepted the West's suggestion that (...)

(WS: 03108)

Press agency (25 below) is the third source of Pragmatic Attribution, and it appears only once.

- (25) Wa naqalat wakaalatu alṣaḥāafa alfaransiya (...) 'anna
The French New Agency report that
alsujanaa' taḥaduū ta9liimat alsijin,...)
the prisoners have defied prison regulation (...)
(RDA: 14019)

type of source & statement		RF (410) sentence No.of occ. %	WS (255) sent. No.of occ. %	RFs (445) sent. No.of occ. %	AS (250) sent. No.of occ. %	Total sent. (1,360) Tot. %
1 organization group etc., spokesman	view of organ. group, etc., spokesman	8 1.95	9 3.52	14 3.14	8 3.20	39 2.86
2 organization group etc., spokesman	view of organ. etc. & potential counter view	1 0.24	7 2.74	4 0.89	2 0.8	14 1.02
3 publication	view of organ. group etc., spokesman	0 0	3 1.17	5 1.12	0 0	8 0.58
4 publication	view of organ. & potential counter view	1 0.24	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	2 0.14
5 press agency	view of organ. group etc., spokesman	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
6 country	view of organ. group etc., spokesman	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	5 2.00	6 0.44
7 country	view of organ. etc. & potential counter view	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
8 opaque	view of organ. group etc., spokesman	0 0	5 1.96	3 0.67	6 2.40	14 1.02
9 opaque	individual's view	0 0	0 0	1 0.22	1 0.40	2 0.14
Total		10 2.43	28 10.98	27 6.06	22 8.80	87 6.39

Table (7): Type of source and statement and their combinations in
Pragmatic Attribution

The fourth source of Pragmatic Attribution is a country as in (26).

- (26) qaala al9iraaq 'annahu damara safiinatayn lil9aduw...
Iraq said it has destroyed two enemy ships ...

(AS: 14607)

Finally (lines 8 and 9, Table 7), we find attributed statements which are not attributable to any specific identity, since either the passive or an empty source such as the "news" is being used.

The frequency of occurrence of cases of Pragmatic Attribution is a little higher than that of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution (6.34% and 5.80% respectively, out of the number of sentences in the BBC corpus). Among the type of source and statement, more than half the cases of Pragmatic Attribution are statements expressing the views of government, organization, group, or their spokesman. Second in frequency is Attribution to an opaque source, which is particularly high in AS, where more than a quarter of Pragmatic Attribution has opaque source (compared with less than a fifth in WS and one in seven in RFs). AS and RF use Pragmatic Attribution less than Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution (As 8.8% Pragmatic Attribution compared with 15.2% Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution; RF 2.43% Pragmatic Attribution compared with 3.96% Lexical or Counter Claim Attribution).

In the AS and WS the high frequency of Counter Claims in Lexical and/or Counter Claim accounts for the drop in Pragmatic Attribution. In RF, however, the proportion of both types of Attribution is low, which could be explained by the use in this group of texts of correspondents reading their own reports which

express their evaluation and account of news events. The WS and RFs use Pragmatic Attribution more than Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution. This seems to stem from the summary nature of RFs that does not allow for counter views and full argument, and the WS practice of presenting views of (foreign) government departments (eg. the police in Pakistan in 16; the Chief of the Staff of the El-Salvador Army (WS:03523), or the President of Sudan (WS:03435)), leaving out the view of the opposing side in the conflict. Still in the WS the total occurrences of Pragmatic Attribution is 10.98% and Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution 7.05%, which is three times higher than those types in RF, a matter that receives further examination in Chapter Five (5.3.1 and 5.3.2).

In summary, the hedging of the news editor in Pragmatic (negatively-rated) Attribution is no less than in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution, though no overt signal of doubt is found in the discourse. On the ground of knowledge of the world, the attributed statements in Pragmatic Attribution are found potentially to have counter views and the source to have a vested interest in what it is saying. The strength of the editor's detachment from the attributed statement is shown in the fact that nowhere in the discourse would the propositional content of Pragmatic Attribution statement appear in a non-attribution form, (i.e. as a factual statement) something which is found in the case of the Institutional Voice Attribution (to be treated in the next section 4.2.3).

The sources found with Pragmatic Attribution are the same as those of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution and the statements are potentially disputable. The frequency of Pragmatic Attribution

is also comparable with that of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution (6.39% Pragmatic and 5.8% Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution, see table 19). Pragmatic Attribution is less frequent in AS and WS than Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution, which reveals the nature of conflicting topics and different audience in these two cases (fully discussed in 5.3.1).

4.2.3 Institutional Voice (IV) Attribution in BBC RND

In Institutional Voice (IV) Attribution, the source has both the knowledge and the authority to make known a decision or an event expressed in the statement attributed to it. In addition, in many, but by no means all, cases of IV Attribution the source has no interest in the statement as such. On the other hand, the statements attributed to IV are neither explicitly signalled, as in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution, nor are they so strongly disputable. Textually, it is possible for statements attributed to IV to appear in the same discourse in a non-attribution declarative form. Still like Pragmatic Attribution, in IV Attribution our knowledge of the world is the main basis of our judgement about the source and statements attributed to IV sources. Let us examine some typical examples of IV Attribution:

- (27) Announcing his decision, King Hasan of Morocco said
the conference has been postponed.
(WS: 03235)

- (28) A United Nations spokesman has said that Israel and Syria have agreed to another six-months extension of the mandate of the UN's peace-keeping force in the Golan Heights.
(WS: 03125)

(29) The judge, Mr Justice B., said that the evidence was overwhelming and ...

(RF: 00718)

(30) Buckingham Palace said she [the Princess of Wales] was in the early stages of labour.

(RF: 08304)

The news editor is not committed to the attributed statements (underlined) in the examples above. But in each case the source has the knowledge about and the authoritative institutionalized power to make the statement. In (27) King Hasan is playing host to the summit, and thus has the knowledge about the conference in which he is participating. Moreover, it is not in his interest to admit that the conference has failed and has to be postponed. The sources in (28) and (29), through the roles they are performing in different activity types, are acting within institutionally defined roles⁽²⁾. Finally, the Buckingham Palace spokesman has the knowledge about and authority to announce the state of the Princess of Wales. Speaking from Institutional Voice (IV) i.e. within the limits of the source's institutionalized power, endows Buckingham Palace with power. As Lerman (1983) has observed:

The IV is a dominant and privileged voice. Its themes and discourse are uniquely its own; they can be stated only by one who speaks "for the nation" or for any institution.

(Lerman: 1983:77)

Therefore, Lerman has found out in his study of political interviews that a person in high office may attempt to hide behind IV by arguing that his/her action (as in President Nixon's Watergate scandal) is covered and motivated by the IV authority.

Resulting from this institutionally defined role and limited but authoritative statements of the IV source, are two features not found in Lexical and/or Counter Claim or Pragmatic Attribution. The first is seen in our hesitation in accepting (31) and (32) below:

- (31)? A United Nations spokesman has claimed that Israel and Syria have agreed to another six-month extension of the mandate of the UN's peace-keeping force in the Golan Heights.
- (Constructed)

- (32)? The judge, Mr Justice B. claimed that the evidence was overwhelming.
- (Constructed)

The United Nations spokesman (31 above) is appointed for the purpose of announcing decisions and agreements made under UN auspices and thus his announcement cannot be conceived of as a "claim". While, in his summary of the case, the judge, in a different kind of situation from that of the UN spokesman, is empowered by his judicial status to make such utterances as in 29a and 32. Therefore the reliability of the statements of IV source is greater than those of the two types of attribution studied above. However, although, unlike Lexical and/or Counter Claim or Pragmatic Attribution, IV Attribution cannot be readily presented as a "claim", still the news editor finds it necessary to use the reporting clause, in order to indicate that his commitment to the attributed statement is not complete. This means that on the cline of commitment (or hedging) IV Attribution is not as heavily hedged as the other two types studied so far.

The second feature resulting from the circumstances of the IV source and statement provide textual evidence that on the line of

confirmational commitment the editor is not so detached from IV statements as those of Lexical and/or Counter argument or Pragmatic Attribution. This textual evidence is demonstrated in the possibility of having the IV Attributed statement repeated in the same discourse in non-attribution declarative form; as in the following example:

(33) The Defence Secretary, Mr Michael Heseltine, tells MPs that the American cruise missiles are at the Greenham Common Airbase.
(RF: 01704)

(33a) The first American cruise missiles have arrived in Britain.
(RF:01717)

Evidently, the detachment of the news editor from the attributed statement in 33 is not very strong, since he/she is ready to present it from his/her point of view as in (33a). In other cases of this sort, the news editor may report in non-attribution declarative form a statement which presumes the attributed statement as in the following news item (34).

(34) A couple who battered and neglected a 19 month old baby have been found guilty of manslaughter and cruelty at Norwich Crown Court. Christina Ceasar and Andrew Clark were both sentenced to five years imprisonment each. The judge, Mr Justice B. said that the evidence was overwhelming and ...
(RF: 00715)

In (34) the news editor repeats the judge's words "that the evidence was overwhelming", but he/she has presupposed this evidence when he/she describes the couple as "who battered and neglected" their child.

The mild hedging in (31) and (32) and the possibility in some cases of using non-attribution form as in (33a) designate IV Attribution as a sensitive stage of uncertainty about the propositional content of the IV attributed statement. In most cases, but not always, this is a necessary stage between factual non-attribution reporting as in (33a) and attribution reporting as in (27)-(32) and (32) above.

4.2.3.1 Criteria for Institutional Voice (IV) Attribution

Statements attributed to Institutional Voice (IV) amount to announcements of decision, plans or accounts of events made by an IV source about a matter within the knowledge and capacity of the source. In some cases the attributed statement is agreed upon by all sides in an event; in others the content of the attributed statement may be evaluated, but it is always undisputed.

Two criteria are necessary to establish IV Attribution. The first should ensure that the source is acting as an IV source, and that its statement is within his/her authoritative power and as such enjoys a measure of reliability.

The second criterion states that the IV Attribution statement expresses the agreement of two sides. It has been said that the IV source does not necessarily have a vested interest in its statement. Some cases are found (eg. joint communique) in which the agreement of two sides is reported. In other cases, two or more opposing sides would not dispute the content of the attributed statement (eg. that the Cruise missiles have arrived in Britain (in 33)), but would

comment criticizing the situation arising from the attributed statement, as in (35) below.

- (35) And CND say that the Government has handed over the destiny of the British people to President Reagan.
(RF: 02209)

The attributed statement in (35) does not dispute the arrival of the missiles; in fact it presupposes it. This evaluation of the situation itself is disputable. And so are the cases in which an IV source evaluates or interprets a certain issue as in 35 above, and 36 below in the latter of which the Chancellor is evaluating the Government's economic policy.

- (36) Presenting his autumn statement, Mr Lawson [the Chancellor of the Exchequer] said the Government had found a winning combination which he intended to keep by sticking to the policies which had brought it about.
(RF: 02911)

From our knowledge of the world we know that the Chancellor's statement in (36) is hotly disputed, because the Chancellor is not speaking within his institutionally defined role. Cases of evaluation like (35) and (36) above are classified as heavily hedged Pragmatic (negatively rated) Attribution.

However, consideration of the source and statement alone cannot establish the following rather subtle case.

- (37) The United States says that Mexico shares its concern over political trends in Nicaragua.
(WS: 03230)

To see if the attributed statement in (37) is disputable, the face-saving principle of politeness (Brown & Levinson 1978) has to be taken into account. It is a known practice that in foreign diplomacy discourse, extreme care is taken to observe sensitivity and ensure precision in drawing policy statements and treaties. Underlining this seems to be a desire for face-saving, which would stop the US from issuing a statement that would embarrass a friendly country (Mexico). Perhaps more significantly, the US would lose face if Mexico denied the claim. Still, politeness is one consideration for the source which has to balance its statement between politeness and friendship on the one hand, and (political) gains and objectives on the other. Thus, for face-saving considerations, (37) is classified as an instance of IV Attribution, a type in which the US, like any IV source, is ultimately responsible for its statement.

Finally, two points should be taken into consideration in delimiting the boundaries of IV Attribution. The first has to do with the Attribution of future time statements, which will be dealt in (4.2.6.1) below. The second point defines the boundary between IV Attribution and what will be called Ex-Cathedra Attribution, which will be discussed in (4.2.6.3) below.

4.2.3.2 Types of source and statement in IV Attribution and their frequency

The combination of source and statement of IV Attribution varies from one BBC radio service to another in the corpus, and so does their frequency of occurrence. The sources found acting as IV include: (1) country, government etc. (or its spokesman); (2) a

publication, a statement, communique etc.; (3) a public investigation committee report (which occurs only in the case of Lord Scarman's report (RF:00614); (4) judge, and (5) opaque. The statement of the IV source, on the other hand, must be uttered and received in the source's institutional capacity.

Governmental groups' announcements account for more than 70% of the cases of IV Attribution (line 1, Table 8), and 5.6% of the total number of sentences, compared with AS: 6%, RFs: 4.94% and RF: 2.43%. If statements about governments and groups attributed to opaque source (line 3, Table 8), are added, AS (the only user of opaque source in the BBC corpus) becomes a good second with 9.8%. RF and RFs are the only users of a small proportion of public figure reports and judge as IV source of Attribution, which reflects the choice of news topics in these two services.

The overall frequency of IV Attribution is higher than that of Lexical and/or Counter Claim or Pragmatic Attribution: IV: 8.52%, Lexical and/or Counter Claim: 5.80%, and pragmatic: 6.39% of the total number of sentences. AS shows the highest frequency of using IV Attribution: 14% followed by WS: 12.94%; while RFs and RF use IV Attribution less than half as much: 6.29% and 4.87% respectively (See total line, Table 8). It was found earlier that AS and WS make greater use of Lexical and/or Counter Claim and Pragmatic Attribution than RF and RFs (see 4.2.1.3 and 4.2.2.2 above), and thus present more conflicting views, and show more reservation and non-commitment on the part of the editor. Here again AS and WS use IV Attribution twice as much as RF and RFs, which has to be explained (together with the higher frequency of other types of

Attribution) by reference to the extra-linguistic factor of audience (see Chapter 5.3 for elaboration on the factor of audience).

Type of Source & Statement		RF (410) sentence № %	WS (255) sent. № %	RFs (445) sent. № %	AS (250) sent № %	Total 1360 № %
1 organization group etc. (spokesman)	state.of organ., group etc. deciding policy or plan	10 2.43	30 11.76	22 4.94	15 6.00	77 5.66
2 publication	state.of organ., group etc. deciding policy or plan	2 0.45	1 0.39	0 0	1 0.40	4 0.29
3 opaque	state.of organ., group etc. deciding policy or plan	0 0	0 0	1 0.22	12 4.80	13 0.95
4 public report	state.of public figure report	2 0.48	0 0	1 0.22	0 0	3 0.22
5 judge	state.of judge	5 1.21	0 0	3 0.67	1 0.40	9 0.66
6 individual	state.of individual view	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
7 medical	state.of medical constitution	1 0.24	0 0	0 0	0 0	1 0.07
8 individual	state about organ., group etc.	0 0	1 0.39	0 0	1 0.40	2 0.14
9 opaque	medical statement.	0 0	0 0	1 0.22	0 0	1 0.07
10 opaque	statement, communique, etc.	0 0	0 0	0 0	2 0.80	2 0.14
11 publication	publication	0 0	0 0	0 0	2 0.80	2 0.14
12 organization, group etc. (spokesman)	statement, communique etc.	0 0	0 0	0 0	1 0.40	1 0.07
Total		20 4.87	33 12.94	28 6.29	35 14.00	116 8.52

Table (8): Type of source and statement and their combinations in Institutional Voice Attribution

4.2.4 Correspondent Attribution

This is a case in which the news editor attributes news statements to the service's own correspondents who may be either experts in certain fields, or who are on the spot where news events are taking place. Non-commitment cannot be the editor's main motivation when the editor is reporting his/her own correspondents. Thus from the editor's point of view 38-40 cannot be presented as "claims", i.e. questionable propositions.

- (38) The BBC Bonn correspondent says there are also signs that the Soviet Union wants to co-operate with West Germany in nuclear energy research.
(WS: 02932)

- (39) The BBC correspondent in Beirut says the situation is desperate with little time to a ceasefire.
(WS: 04208)

- (40) wa yaquul muraasilun lihay'ati al'ithaa9a
alibriiṭaaniya
And a BBC correspondent says
bi'anna alḥukuuma alnayjiiriya taṣ9ur bilqalaq ...
that the Nigerian government is concerned ...
(AS: 12021)

It is clear in all three examples above that Correspondent Attribution does shift the responsibility from the BBC as a news providing service, to an individual correspondent who, as far as the BBC is concerned, is assuming responsibility for his/her own observation or evaluation of news events. On the other hand, the editor would not include in the same discourse a counter point of view to signal explicit non-commitment. On the cline of non-commitment/complete commitment, statements attributed to BBC correspondents are as near as Attribution can be to complete commitment, i.e. a bold (unattributed) statement.

(Correspondent att.) the statements portray	WS 255		AS 250		Total 505	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 attitudde or reaction of people in the news	6	2.35	6	2.40	12	2.37
2 correspondent's explanation	1	0.39	6	2.40	7	1.38
3 possible development	2	0.78	3	1.20	5	0.99
4 more information about something in the news	4	1.56	1	0.40	5	0.99
5 a relevant point (correspondent view)	1	0.39	2	0.80	3	0.59
6 somebody else's claim	1	0.39	0	0	1	0.19
7 correspondent's witness	1	0.39	0	0	1	0.19
8 correspondent evaluation of news	2	0.78	0	0	2	0.39
Total	18	7.05	18	7.20	36	7.12

Table (9): Types of statement in correspondent attribution

In correspondent attribution, the source is always the service's own correspondent. The attributed statement, meanwhile, can state an attitude (38) or an evaluation of a given situation (39) above. In addition to these two types of correspondent statement, Table 9 shows that statements attributed to correspondents may provide an explanation of news events (line 2, Table 9, relevant information from the correspondent's point of view (line 5, Table 9) or the

correspondent's own eye-witness account of news events (line 7, Table 9).

Correspondent Attribution is used in WS and AS only, since RF provides reports of its correspondents in person, while RFs is a mere 2 minute summary. The total number of Correspondent Attribution cases is 36, i.e. 7.12% (7.05 in WS and 7.20% in AS) out of the total number of sentences in WS and AS (bottom line of Table 9). This amount of occurrence of Attribution Function is to be added to the already high percentage of Attribution in the AS and WS groups of news texts.

4.2.5 The cline of Attribution types

It has been mentioned in the discussion of Lexical and/or Counter Claim and Pragmatic Attribution that these are heavily hedged cases of Attribution. Figure (6) below shows the four types of Attribution discussed so far and the relations that hold between them.

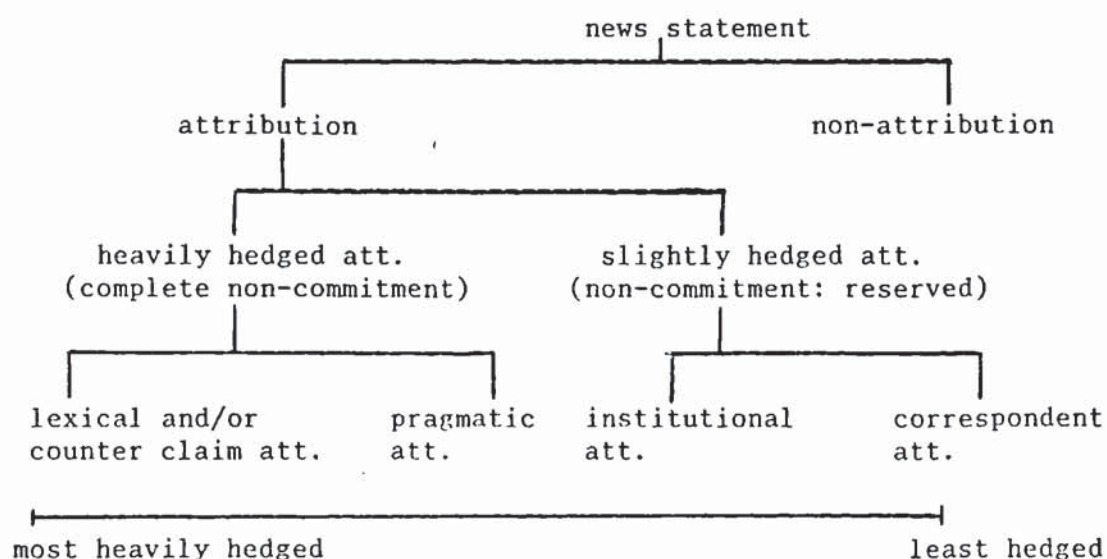


Figure (6) The cline of attribution (bottom line)

The following table states a number of "characteristics" found in heavily hedged and slightly hedged types of Attribution.

heavily hedged types of attribution	slightly hedged types of attribution
(1) + "claim" type of verb	(1) + "say" type of verb
(2) + counter claim	(2) - counter claim
(3) + overt vested interest	(3) - overt vested interest
(4) + potential counter claim	(4) - potential counter claim
(5) - institutional voice (source)	(5) + institutional voice (source)
(6) - own correspondent (source)	(6) + own correspondent (source)

Table (10) Characteristics of heavily or slightly hedged Attribution

4.2.6 Problematic types of Attribution

4.2.6.1 Attribution of future time statements

The assignment of truth value (and thus potential for dispute) to future statements deserves special treatment. In the corpus, statements with 'future time reference are attributed to authority (government, countries etc.) and in two cases only, to opaque source.

- (41) Mr Lawson [the Chancellor of the Exchequer] said the government will continue to press to bring down public borrowing.

(RF: 02410)

- (42) Afterwards, the American negotiator, Mr. Paul Nitze, said the talks would be continued.

(WS: 04007)

- (43) He [the Head of Nuclear Energy in Argentina] said
that the Uranium will be used for peaceful purposes.
(WS: 04302)

Unlike the previous types of Attribution, the events referred to in each of these three cases (41-43) have not taken place by the time the utterance was made, and may, for any reason, not come about. But still the future modality itself as expressed by the source of Attribution is being attributed to its source, and thus the news editor is detaching him/herself from the responsibility which would be implied if the statement was presented from the editor's point of view as in

- (41a) ... the Government will continue to press to bring
down public borrowing.

(Constructed)

or

- (42a) ... the talks would be continuing.

(Constructed)

It was seen earlier (in the analysis of IV Attribution 4.2.3) however, that announcements of policy and plans by people in charge can possibly appear without the reporting clause (ie. not using attribution). But in 43 above in addition to attributing futurity, the editor, due to the sensitivity of the content of the attributed statement (the future use of nuclear research), is unlikely to drop the reporting clause to say (43a).

- (43a) The Uranium will be used for peaceful purposes.

(Constructed)

Countries, governments or organizations give statements about future plans, or even speculate about the future (see Prediction (44) below). But this occupies a small proportion of news

discourse: the attributed statements with future time reference amount to 41 occurrences, less than 3% of the sentences in the BBC corpus. All except three cases have government, organization etc. or their representative as a source of Attribution (see lines 1, 12 and 15, Table 11).

A future-time statement may be mitigated by its original source to be presented as a mere forecast or approximation:

- (44) ... and it was forecast [by the Chancellor] that it [output] would rise by a further three percent next year.

(RF: 02404)

- (45) Referring to the possibility of tax increases in next year's budget, Mr Lawson said, this was subject to a wide margin of uncertainty ...

(RF: 02415)

In (44) the editor is attributing the future statement "output would rise" and indicating, by the choice of "forecast" as a reporting verb, that it is a mere forecast. But in (45), the "uncertainty" about the attributed statement is expressed by the original source of the statement. Cases such as these show the level of subtlety and awareness of presenting information in news discourse, not only by the news editor but by the news makers (original source) as well.

4.2.6.2 Attribution of conditional statements and epistemic modality

Two types are included in this section: (1) Attribution of conditional statements and (2) Attribution of epistemic modality. In the first case, truth value judgement, the basis of disputing statements, does not apply in the same way as in cases of one

Table (11): Types of source and statement in Problematic types of Attribution

type of source & statement		RF (410) sentence		WS (255)		RFs (445)		AS (250)		1360 sent.	
		N _o	%	N _o	%	N _o	%	N _o	%	Tot. N _o	%
1 organization, group etc., or (spokesman)	state. of organ. group etc. with future time ref- erence	14	3.41	8	3.13	9	2.02	7	2.80	38	2.79
2 organisation, group etc., or (spokesman)	state of organ. group etc., prediction	6	1.45	2	0.78	2	0.44	0	0	10	0.73
3 organisation, group etc., or (spokesman)	state. of organ. group etc., (obligation)	1	0.24	0	0	0	0	1	0.40	2	0.14
4 organisation, group etc., or (spokesman)	state of organ. group etc., (conditional)	1	0.24	2	0.78	2	0.44	0	0	5	0.36
5 ex cathedra	state. spoken from ex cathedra	3	0.73	2	0.78	4	0.89	0	0	9	0.66
6 ex cathedra	statement spoken from ex.cath. with future time ref.	2	0.48	1	0.39	0	0	0	0	3	0.22
7 organisation, group etc., or (spokesman)	state. about inner (or mental) state	2	0.48	2	0.78	7	1.57	1	0.40	12	0.88
8 individual	state. about inner (or mental) state	1	0.24	0	0	1	0.22	0	0	2	0.14
9 public figure	state. of public figure, report (conditional)	1	0.24	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.07
10 public figure	state. of public figure report	2	0.48	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.14
11 individual	state of indiv. (conditional)	0	0	1	0.39	1	0.22	0	0	2	0.14
12 statement, communiqué, report	state. of organ. group etc. with future time ref	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.40	1	0.07
13 statement, communiqué, report	state of organ. , group etc. (obligation)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.40	1	0.07
14 statement communiqué, report	state. of com. reports, govern. statement (obligation)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.40	1	0.07
15 opaque	state. of organ. group etc. with future time reference.	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.80	2	0.14
16 opaque	state. of organ. group etc., making prediction	1	0.24	0	0	1	0.22	0	0	2	0.14
17	stat. stating a probability	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.40	1	0.07
Total		34	8.29	18	7.05	27	6.06	15	6.00	94	6.91

proposition. The complexity which arises in cases of conditional statements can be illustrated by the following example.

- (46) He [a kidnapper] demanded a ransom of a million dollars and said that Mr Heineken would be killed if police continued their search for him.

(RFs: 08916)

By using Attribution Function, the editor has shifted the responsibility of the attributed statement(s) to the kidnapper. But one is still left with a difficult task if the part of the attributed utterance being hedged is to be specified. In disputing one attributed statement (which is the case in all types of Attribution outside this section 4.2.6.2), one is simply questioning its truth. But if the truth of an attributed utterance (containing a set of statements), as in 46 (above), is to be disputed, then which part(s) of it is to be falsified or questioned? The first, the second or both statements can be negated as the following show:

- (46a) Mr Heineken would not be killed, if police continued their search for him.

(Constructed)

- (46b) Mr Heineken would be killed, if police did not continue their search for him.

(Constructed)

- (46c) Mr Heineken would not be killed, if the police did not continue their search for him.

(Constructed)

(46c) is in converse relation (see Lyons, 1977:153) with (46) the editor's version in the corpus. But (46c) does not contradict the attributed statement in (46) because both have more or less the same message, but (46) is affirmative while (46c) is negative.

(46) ... Mr Heineken would be killed if police continued their search for him.

(46c) Mr Heineken would not be killed if police did not continue their search for him.

(Constructed)

The editor has hedged on (46) by using Attribution, therefore he/she cannot assert (46c) which is saying a similar thing in the negative.

(46a) and (46b) dispute the attributed statement in (46), each in its way. (46a) states that Mr. Heineken is not safe if the police continue searching for him; (46b) states that Mr Heineken is safe if the police did not continue searching for him. Therefore, hedging the attributed statement in (46) means that either (46) or (46b) can be used as a basis to doubt its truth.

This analysis of attributed conditional utterances is not a step towards saying that the logic of the reported clause (or quotation to use Davidson's term) is divorced from that of the reporting clause as Partee (1973) has argued in support of Davidson (1968). The relation between these two constituents will be studied later (5.1.1). But suffice it here to make the point that conditional statements cannot be handled as single propositions can in regard to attribution function.

The frequency of Attribution of conditional statement is very low (0.57%) out of the total number of sentences in the BBC corpus. They are often attributed to Institutional Voice (IV) source (see lines 4, 9 & 11, Table 11).

The second type of Attribution in this section, epistemic statements, has its own problems. The use of Attribution here does shift the responsibility away from the editor, but cannot be said to

cast doubts on the attributed statement, since again it is not easy to establish true/false values in cases like the following:

- (47) The Lord Scarman report on the Brixton riots says the police and community leaders must share some of the blame.

(RF: 01002)

It has been seen earlier (4.2.3) that IV Attribution statements are not readily open to dispute, and that the reporting clause can possibly be dropped (see 4.2.3.1, above.) But in the case of epistemic modality, the editor has no choice but to use Attribution, because the attributed statement cannot be reported from the editor's point of view, and thus (47a) is not an option.

- (47a) The police and community leaders must share the blame.
(Constructed)

Yet the counter view to the attributed statement in (47) could be (47b) or (47c) below.

- (47b) The police and community leaders must not be blamed.
(Constructed)

- (47c) The police and community leaders must not share the blame.
(Constructed)

The editor is attributing the epistemic modal and the statement in which it appears to its original source, Lord Scarman.

Finally, the number of epistemic Attribution statements is a tiny proportion (0.36%) of the sentences in the BBC corpus, and their sources vary from an organization issuing statements about their affairs, to public figures (47 above), and government communique (see lines 13, 14, 16 & 17, Table 11).

4.2.6.3 Attribution of Ex-Cathedra statements

This is a case of a performative used as an attributed statement. The source of Attribution must be in a position and the right circumstances for giving his/her utterance the "illocutionary force" (Searle 1969:62-4), the power, to act by saying the utterance. Following Searle (1969) and Lakoff (1974:9) it is held here that these cases are outside true/false judgement. Thus they resist dispute or questioning when attributed as in

- (11) The Transport Minister, Mr Nicholas Ridley, has told MPs that from midnight tonight, round the clock restrictions on traffic using the Severn Bridge will be lifted.

(RF: 02807)

- (13c) Mr Whitelaw [the Home Secretary] told MPs that he endorsed the philosophy behind it [a public report].

(RF:01039)

By saying "round the clock restrictions on traffic using the Severn Bridge will be lifted", the Minister is making a declaration of opening it to traffic, and thus bringing about this piece of regulation. The same in (13c1) by saying: "I endorse the philosophy behind the report", the Home Secretary is announcing the government's stand on the issue. In Ex-Cathedra attributed statement (underlined in (11) and (13c1) above), the question of disputing the truth of these statements does not arise. Thus by using the Attribution Function instead of a simple declarative statement (declarative means here simple, non-performative as Fraser (1970) has used the term), the editor seems to focus on the authority (the Minister who is performing the act) which provides important information to the audience.

Lines 5 and 6 in Table (11) show that Ex-Cathedra attributed statements are very few in the BBC corpus (0.88% of the total number of sentences), and they do not occur in the AS news in the corpus.

4.2.6.4 Attribution of inner (mental) statements

Inner or mental attributed statements "verbalize", to use Halliday's term (Halliday in Kress 1976:167), the inner state of an individual, and it is by no means definite whether access can be obtained to this phenomenon of "private language" as Wittgenstein argues (Wittgenstein 1958:269). In attributing a statement of inner feeling or mental state, it seems that the editor has to use the reporting/reported structure to present somebody else's inner experience from the experiencer's point of view.

(48) Mr Reagan has said he's confident he will win
(RF: 06608)

(49) She [a Russian lady] had been told to go [outside the country] within a week and she said she was very happy.
(RFs: 08212)

Without the reporting clause (not using Attribution), (48a) and (49a) are rendered ambiguous between being reported from the editor's point of view (like all other simple declarative sentences) or from the experiencer's point of view by assuming the omission of the reporting clause (ie. using free speech, Leech 1971, 104).

(48a) Mr Reagan is confident he will win. (Constructed)

(49a) She [the Russian lady] was happy. (Constructed)

The use of Attribution Function in (49) above shifts the point of view which is necessary for the peculiar nature of inner statements. And, moreover, the Attribution Function here shifts the

responsibility to the experiencer of the inner feeling (ie. the source of Attribution).

12 out of 14 cases of inner states are by sources representing government, group etc. (see line 7, Table 11). The other two are by individuals. Inner statement Attribution is most frequent in RFs (8 out of 14 cases), and appears only twice in AS.

4.3 Attribution Function in Radio Damascus (RD) News Discourse

Two basic observations about the use of Attribution Function in RD news discourse highlight the nature of this function in the RD corpus and distinguish it from Attribution Function in the BBC corpus. Firstly, when Attribution is used, no counter view(s) to dispute the content of the attributed statement is included in the discourse; nor are attributed statements presented as "claims". This means that there is no explicit signal of non-commitment, which is the case of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution in BBC news discourse (see 4.2.1 for Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution). The second basic observation about RD use of Attribution Function reveals that in most cases the general or specific content of the attributed statement occurs in the same stretch of discourse in a non-attribution declarative form. In the light of these two observations, the absence of an explicit signal of Attribution and the presence of a paraphrase of the content of the attributed statement, the question which arises is: what is the function of Attribution, ie. shifting the point of view, and thus responsibility, to the original source in RD news discourse? The following sections attempt to answer this question.

4.3.1 Support Attribution in RD News Discourse

In producing news discourse, the RD news editor, unlike that of the BBC who set out to present the news "impartially" (Chapter Two) aim at reporting from the point of view of "the country". This commitment to the true version of events explains the absence of counter claims, but that is a decision prior to the production of the news discourse. Moreover, it does not explain why Attribution, which involves a shift in the point of view, should be used at all. Let us examine the following example of Attribution from RD English corpus.

- (50) Referring to the Israeli Middle East agreement, the Lebanese Deputy, Mr Adde, said that the government of Amin Gemyel made a fatal mistake by signing the agreement.
(RDE: 05411)

The first thing to remember about the attributed statement in 50 is that it is not being contradicted anywhere in the news text in which it appears. Secondly, against the background of Syria's known rejection of the Israeli-Lebanese agreement, by calling it a "fatal mistake", the attributed statement (in 50 above) provides yet another reason as to why it should be rejected. The fact that the editor has voiced encouragement to this line is textually evident in the tone and emotive gesture found in the summary preceding the expansion in which (50) appears.

- (51) Meanwhile, many Lebanese national groups have welcomed the birth of the Front and called for stepping up the struggle against the Israeli
- (RDE: 05241)

If in her/his own words, the news editor presents the Lebanese leaders as "calling for stepping up the struggle against the Israeli ..." (51 above), there is little room in the use of Attribution in (50 above) for detachment or non-commitment to the attributed statement.

On the contrary, by voicing criticism of the Israeli-Lebanese agreement (calling it a "fatal mistake"), the attributed statement in 50 above is lending support to the editorial line of "welcoming the birth of the National Front and calling for stepping up the struggle against the Israelis" in 51 above. This support function of Attribution is found to repeat the same point in more than one case in the same text. In (52) the ex-president of Lebanon reiterates his views on the Israeli-Lebanese agreement.

(52) Lebanon, Mr Franjiah [ex-President] said, can only be saved by the total Israeli pullout, rejecting the agreement and putting an end to the Falangist hegemony.

(RDE: 05340)

The content of the attributed statement here does coincide with and lend support to the editor's own reporting, ie. "the stepping up of the struggle against the Israelis ...". This relationship of congruity between the attributed statement and the editor's own reporting (or paraphrase) characterizes this type of Attribution in RD, which is called here Support Attribution.

In the light of the absence of a counter claim and the presence of an agreement of attributed statement with the editor's own declarative paraphrase, Support Attribution has an assertive role, which leaves no place for hedging of commitment, which was shown to

be the basis of Attribution Function in BBC news discourse. Moreover, Support Attribution is found to guide the selection of sources of Attribution. Thus 50 and 52 bring together two sources from Lebanon.

The view of yet another source about the same situation is found in (53):

- (53) A senior Italian commentator has said that Israel has failed to achieve the objective of the invasion of Lebanon, ...

(RDE:05434)

The content of the attributed statement is supportive to the line of "stepping up the struggle against the Israeli ...".

Another example of support for a major issue in the editorial guideline is seen in supporting the rights of the Palestinian people. In (54) below, the source of Attribution is the Head of State of the GDR.

- (54) wa qaala 'inna alniḍaala albaasil lihaathaa
And he [the Head of State in GDR] said that the struggle of this
alṣa9b nin 'ajli ḥuquuqih yajid alta9aaṭuf
courageous people for its rights finds sympathy
wa al'iḥtiraam fii al9aalami kulih
and respect all over the world.

(RDA: 11717)

type of source & statement		25 th sentence	26 th sentence	27 th sentence
		N RDE %	N RA %	N Total %
1 organisation, group, country or spokesman)	statement of an organ., group, etc. or (spokesman)	13 4.64	30 12.50	43 8.26
2 opaque	statement of an organ., group, etc. or (spokesman)	6 2.14	4 1.66	10 1.92
3 journalist, individual	statement of an organ., group, etc. or spokesman)	1 0.35	0 0	1 0.19
4 journalist, individual	journalist, individual's views	7 2.50	0 0	7 1.34
5 publication	statement of an organisation etc. or (spokesman)	1 0.35	0 0	1 0.19
6 publication	statement from a publication	0 0	4 1.66	4 0.76
7 opaque	statement from a publication	0 0	1 0.41	1 0.19
8 organisation, group, country (spokesman)	organization etc. and lexical signal of doubt	0 0	1 0.41	1 0.19
9	Total	28 10.00	40 16.66	68 13.07

Table (12): Type of source and statement and their combinations in RD Support Attribution

Supporting the rights of the Palestinian people is a major policy issue, and the content of the attributed statement in (54) is familiar; though the big difference lies in the different sources who lend support to this issue at different times. Cases like this (54) remind us of the attributed evaluative statements used in BBC Pragmatic Attribution (as 12, pages 10 and 22), where the statement is predictable, but still disputable at the same time.

The most frequent source of Support Attribution is an organization, group, country etc. (or its spokesman) stating its view about news events, 8.26% of the total number of sentences in RD corpus (see line 1, Table 12). The next most frequent sources are a journalist giving his/her opinion and comment (lines 3 and 4, Table 12), and an opaque source stating its view about a country, a government etc. (lines 2 and 7, Table 12).

The total frequency of Support Attribution in RD corpus stands at 13.07% of the total number of sentences, which is higher than

Lexical and/or Counter Claim and Pragmatic Attribution put together in RF:6.33% and RFs:7.63%. But it is less frequent than these two types in the WS 18.03% and AS:24% of the number of sentences. RDA, moreover, uses higher percentages of Support Attribution than RDE: 16.66% compared with 10% respectively, (line 9, Table 12), a fact which will be considered later in 5.3.2.

4.3.2 Institutional-Voice (IV) Attribution in RD News Discourse

Like Support Attribution (discussed in the previous section 4.3.1), IV Attribution in RD news discourse reports statements within the editorial guideline. But the difference between the two types of Attribution lies in the fact that an IV source, like that of the BBC, is not merely giving its views or evaluation but is making announcements of plans or decisions which the source is in a position to make. This means that although IV Attribution statements support the editorial guideline, they have an institutional power of their own as 55 and 56 illustrate.

- (55) In a similar comment on the Fez Summit agenda, the Moroccan Foreign Minister, Mr Abu Seta, is quoted to have talked to correspondents in Fez last night saying that among the draft resolutions was a formula coping with the situation inside Lebanon. Mr Abu Seta added that the formula had been unanimously approved by the Arab foreign ministerial conference.

(RDE:04914)

- (56) The Chinese Foreign Minister has said his country stands firmly against any foreign intervention in internal affairs of Central America.

(RDE: 05939)

The Moroccan Foreign Minister in whose country the Arab Summit is to take place is privy to the agenda and is expected to observe

diplomatic niceties in accordance with the face-saving principle (Leech 1983), (see another example of IV and face-saving consideration in 37 above). The Chinese Foreign Minister is announcing his country's policy on Latin America in (56) above, a matter well within his authority. The shift of point of view in 55 and 56 above does not indicate that the statements are disputable, but it asserts the validity of the statement since it is within the editorial guideline. Moreover, IV Attribution resists being doubted from the audience perspective, which cannot be said about support Attribution.

The criteria for deciding on IV Attribution in RD news discourse are the same as those of the BBC, namely that the source of Attribution is an Institutional Voice and that the attributed statement is within the capacity of the source. In some cases (as in the BBC) the IV source combines two sides (countries as in (57) below) expressing their agreement.

- (57) 'a9lana waziir alddifaa9 alhindii ... 'anna h̥ukumatahu
 The Indian Defence Minister has declared .. that his
 government
 wa alitihaad alssuvyiitii 'atafaqaa litaṣnii9
 and the Soviet Union has agreed to make
 ṭaa'iraat almiig ...
 MIG fighter planes

(RDA: 15009)

IV Attribution occurs less frequently in RD news than Support Attribution 5.86% (Table 13) and 13.07% of the number of sentences (Table 12) respectively. It is less frequent than IV in BBC news, in which it stands at 8.52% (Table 8 above). The low frequency of IV Attribution in RD news discourse seems to result from the comparatively high frequency of Support Attribution, which does not conflict with IV Attribution.

Type of IV source & statement		200 RD English N %	240 RD Arabic N %	520 Total N %
organization, group etc. or (spokesman)	decision, plan, agreement of organ. group, (spokesman)	14 5.00	13 5.41	27 5.19
statement, communique	statement, communique	2 0.71	0 0	2 0.38
opaque	plan, decision organisation, spokesman	0 0	1 0.41	1 0.19
Total		16 5.71	14 5.83	30 5.86

W 7

Table (13): Type of source and statement and their combinations in RD IV Attribution

4.3.3 Other types of Attribution in RD News Discourse

Like Support and IV Attribution in RD discourse, all types of Attribution included in this section are homogeneous with the editorial guideline. Except for one case, they are about what may or should happen, rather than news events that have taken place. The categories found here include: (1) attributed statement with future time reference; (2) statements of obligation; (3) statements of probability; (4) statements of condition and (5) Ex-Cathedra statements.

Attribution to future time reference is the most frequent: (13) out of (22) occurrences (lines, 1, 2 and 3, column (4), Table (14). 11 out of these 13 cases have government, group etc. as source of Attribution.

(58) The Commander of US Rapid Deployment Forces has said that next year similar drills will be carried out in the Upper Nile.

(RDE: 04905)

types of source & statement		280 sentence	240 sentence	520 sentence
		N RDE %	N RDA %	N Total %
1 organization, group etc. (spokesman)	organization etc. about the future	8 2.85	3 1.25	11 2.11
2 publication	organization etc. & about the future	1 0.35	0 0	1 0.19
3 radio	organization etc. & about the future	1 0.35	0 0	1 0.19
4 organization of group etc. (spokesman)	state. of origin stating ob- ligation	3 1.07	1 0.41	4 0.76
5 organization of group etc. (spokesman)	state. of org. group of probability	0 0	1 0.41	1 0.19
6 organization of group etc. (spokesman)	state. of org. group etc. & condition	0 0	1 0.41	1 0.19
7 Ex cathedra	statement said ex cath.	1 0.35	2 0.83	2 0.38
Total		14 5.00	8 3.33	22 4.23

Table (14): Type of source and statement and their combinations in RD other types of Attribution

As lines 5 and 6, Table 14 show Attribution stating a probable situation or using a conditional statement appear only once each in RD corpus, while Ex-Cathedra statements are used three times. The total number of occurrences of all these five types of Attribution amounts to 4.23% of the total number of sentences in RD corpus. It should be said finally that although the type of source and type of statement or their structure are similar to those found in respective types of Attribution in BBC discourse, still the function of these types of Attribution in RD News Discourse is to be best understood as a communicative strategy of persuasion.

Footnotes

(1)

This view was expressed by a BBC Radio Four journalist who wished to remain anonymous.

(2)

An individual vested with an institutional role may well be making false statements (the strength of the statement would then reveal the type of Attribution), but within the institutional role we can decide whether it is in the interest (or within the common practice) or otherwise of an individual in this role to make false or doubtful statements. Thus in the instance at hand, it is not in the interest of the King of Morocco to make false statements to the effect that the Arab Summit that the King was hosting had failed.

Chapter Five

ATTRIBUTION FUNCTION IN RADIO NEWS DISCOURSE (2): (FORMAL FEATURES, TEXTUAL STRUCTURING, AND NEWS AUDIENCE)

5.0 This chapter starts by describing the grammatical realization of Attribution Function. Then we move to study the textual patterning of Attribution in the news discourse as a whole and in the news item as a unit of the news discourse. Finally, the influence of the extra-linguistic factor of audience is examined in relation to the change of news topics and frequency of Attribution Function in different groups of texts in the corpus.

5.1 Some formal characteristics of Attribution Function in Radio News Discourse (RND)

With few exceptions (to be dealt with later) the Attribution Function is linguistically realized in reporting/reported clauses. In this section first the function and status of these two formal constituents of Attribution will be examined (5.1.1). Then the reporting verbs and tense choice will be studied in (5.1.2) and (5.1.3) respectively.

5.1.1 Reporting and reported clauses in the corpus

It has already been mentioned in Chapter Four (4.1.3) that the reporting clause in the Attribution Function (e.g. "British Leyland say ...") is addressed to the listeners to indicate the source of attributed statement, which in the news usually follows. The reporting clause also contains the reporting verb which, together with the source of Attribution, makes a comment on the reported clause, given by the editor to the addressees. In this sense the

reporting clause is primarily metatextual/interactive which makes it a candidate for the interactive plane as Sinclair (1981) has suggested. The reported clause, which realizes the attributed statement, on the other hand, presents the content of the news. And thus it is primarily on the autonomous plane of discourse to use Sinclair's term (Sinclair 1981). The reporting clause, moreover, shifts the point of view (Mackay 1976) to the original utterer of the reported clause. Consequently, it has been argued in the previous chapter in the example below,

1. BL [British Leyland] say the aim of this reconstruction,
plan is to make the group more competitive.
(RF: 00518)

the reported clause "the aim of the plan is to make the company more competitive," is not the editor's statement or view of the event. Since the Attribution Function essentially depends on shifting the point of view (by using a reporting clause) to present certain news content (a reported clause), it is hoped that this study of the formal status and relationship between the reporting and reported clauses will shed light on this shifting of point of view and hence on Attribution Function.

Following Halliday (1968), and Sinclair (1972), we consider the reported clause a subordinate clause. This interpretation holds that, among other things, only in reported clauses (to be distinguished from other kinds of that-clause) is language (i.e. previous text) being "processed" i.e. incorporated in as text (Halliday 1968:194). This will enable us to distinguish between cases like (2) which is a fact clause (not involving a shift of point of view, and thus involving no Attribution) and (3).

- (2) Britain's balance of payment's figure (...) shows that our foreign trade has continued a surplus of export over imports, ...

(RF:00534)

- (3) The firm hopes that job reduction will be achieved largely by natural wastage and voluntary redundancy.

(RF:00532)

(3) is not stating the fact of the matter, which (2) does, but BL's view which must have been expressed in a previous text (a statement, a report by the company etc.).

Another point which deserves a brief treatment at this juncture is the idea that no semantic or grammatical relation holds between the two clauses in a reporting/reported structure (the idea is suggested by Partee 1973 and Davidson 1968). Three points can be made here in favour of recognizing the interrelation between the two basic elements in a reporting/reported structure.

1) Kuno (1975) has successfully demonstrated that the rejection (and thus the ungrammaticality) of certain sentences using what he calls "indirect discourse", is due to the shift in point of view brought about by the reporting/reported structure as in the following examples.

- (4)a* That John was the best boxer in the world was claimed by him.

- (4)b* That John was the best boxer in the world was denied by him.

(Kuno, 1975:309)

This shows that grammatically the most crucial point in the reporting/reported structure is the relationship that holds between

them as clauses, because the shift in the point of view is brought about by the way the reporting clause functions in relation to the reported clause. But this inter relationship does not justify Davidson's analysis of the reported clause as traceable to one "demonstration" item in the reporting clause (Davidson, 1968), since although the that-clause in (2) is replaceable by a demonstrative, the sentence structure is not a reporting/reported one.

2) Although, as has been said earlier, the reported (dependent) clause is the content carrier in most cases of Attribution, two cases are found in which the reporting (i.e. independent) clause is informationally more important than the reported clause. The first is in cases of Ex-Cathedra Attribution (discussed in Chapter Four 4.2 above) in which the reporting clause is as important (i.e. essential for the proper interpretation of type of Attribution) as the reported clause. Let us examine an example of Ex-Cathedra Attribution.

- (5) Mr Whitelaw [the Home Secretary] told MPs that he
endorsed the philosophy behind it [a report] ...
(RF: 01039]

For the endorsement to be valid, it is important to state that the source is the Home Secretary and to shift the point of view to him. Thus, there must be a co-referential relation between the subject of the reporting clause and that of the reported clause. It was seen in Chapter Four (4.2.6.3) that for a case of Attribution to be Ex-Cathedra Attribution, the utterer of the attributed statement and the source of Attribution should be in Ex-Cathedra position. Otherwise the case would not be one of performative (doing by saying).

The second case in which informationally the reporting clause has a special importance is exemplified in 6 below in which the attributed statement expresses a known content, the condemnation of sport hooliganism.

- (6) ... he [the Sports Minister] said the disturbances could not be excused.

(RF: 02703)

The important thing, as was said in Chapter Four (4.2.3), is that the Minister's condemnation means that it is the British Government (in its constitutional capacity), which is condemning the disturbances.

3) Two other aspects of the reporting clause link it to the reported clause. These are the choice of a reporting verb and the choice of tense. These two aspects of the relation between the elements of reporting/reported structure will be discussed in (5.1.2 and 5.1.3 below).

We conclude the above three points by saying that although any text can be processed after "X said that ...," still the structural and informational relatedness of this clause and the one following it, is too strong to allow them to fall into two unrelated elements.

Now, we can consider the position of the reporting/reported clauses in relation to each other. In news discourse, the reporting clause typically precedes and the reported clause follows. But there are a few exceptions:

- 1) Sometimes the reporting clause interrupts the reported clause as in (7):

- (7) Lebanon, Mr Franjieh said, can only be saved by the total Israeli pullout, rejecting the agreement and putting an end to the Phalangist hegemony.

(RDE: 05340)

This is very rare in RF and WS, but often found in RDE, which also sometimes uses the reporting clause at the end, a practice found in newspaper English. One effect of this newspaper style is to put the theme (sentence theme) "Lebanon" for emphasis, and then give the source of Attribution. But it may prove difficult for radio listeners to follow if the interrupting element (the reporting clause in 7 above) becomes long.

- 2) Some reporting clauses are introduced by an ing-form as in (8):

- (8) Announcing his decision, King Hussain of Morocco said, the conference has been postponed ...

(WS:03235)

Again this structure is very rare in RF and WS, but found every now and then in RDE news. This could be the result of interference of English newspaper style during translation from Arabic.

- 3) There are two cases of rare occurrence realized in: (1) "reporting adjuncts". The reporting adjunct, to use Tadros' term (Tadros 1981:167), "according to X" is found twice in the corpus. "According to X" can occur before or after the reported clause.

- (9) Home-grown Christmas trees will be of better quality and will cost as much as last year, according to the British Association of Christmas Trees.

(RF:00832)

- (10) According to the Syrian statement, President Assad is doing well after the operation.

(RF: 01832)

The kind of reporting adjunct realizes the reporting element is an adverbial which is formed from a limited number of verbs like "allegedly" from "allege", and "reportedly" from "report" (but not saidly from say, or claimedly from claim). The reporting adverb indicates a complete non-commitment to the attributed statement as in (11).

- (11) In Zimbabwe, six white people have been arrested for allegedly plotting to endanger the security of the state.

(WS: 03021)

This position of the reporting adjunct, before the (attributed) verb, is the only possible position. Of course, until they are proved guilty, to say that the six people are plotting is a mere allegation. Structurally, the reporting adjunct provides a comment by the editor (addressed to the audience) on the reported clause. This macro comment function of the reporting element is also found in the other case of the reporting adjunct (e.g. "according to X" in (10) above).

Finally, a rare case is found in which the reporting/reported structure is followed by a sentence which is part of the text processed in the reporting clause. Thus this second sentence does not reflect the editor's point of view. Thus the second sentence in (12) below is an example of Attribution Function extending into two sentences.

- (12) Later Monsignor Kent said there was no way it could be claimed that CND was pro-Soviet. He would be glad to see Cardinal Hulme.

(RF: 01815)

Chatman (1978:181) has recognized the occurrence of "direct free style" which portrays the inner world of a fictional character in literary discourse. The occurrence of "free indirect speech" has also been recognized by Leech (1971:104). But in news discourse, the editor's point of view is assumed unless a shift in point of view is explicitly signalled. This is why Bell (1984:96-100) has considered the omission of the reporting part in a "should be" Attribution case as erroneous editing. Still, the few cases like (12) are neither cases of "free indirect speech" nor "direct free style", since the signalling of shifting the point of view does overtly occur, but in the preceding sentence, and is extended across sentence boundary. Just as a direct quotation may extend over a number of sentences, here the reporting clause shifts the point of view of more than one sentence, a practice which is very rare in news discourse.

5.1.2 Reporting verbs

The reporting verb (in the reporting clause) provides a frame for the attributed statement. This verb has been used to detect the editor's attitude towards the attributed statement (in Lexical Attribution 4.2.1). Most frequently, however, in order to highlight his/her impartiality, the news editor turns to lexically neutral verbs, particularly "say".

The desire for impartial reporting and a tendency for conformity and standardization make the verb "say" the most frequent reporting verb in the English corpus, which could be true of other varieties of language. The average of percentages of using "say" stands at

RF: 71.19%; WS: 82.96%; RFs: 71.90% of reporting verbs; see line (7) Table (15) below).

type of attribution	RF % of say	WS % of say	RF % of say	AS % of say	RDE % of say	RDA % of say
1. Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution	56.25	72.22	42.85	71.05	-	-
2. Pragmatic Attribution	80.00	67.85	77.77	86.36	-	-
3. Correspondent Attribution	-	100	-	66.66	-	-
4. Support Attribution	-	-	-	-	53.57	37.50
5. IV Attribution	75.00	96.96	78.57	42.85	75.00	73.33
6. Other types of Attribution	73.52	77.77	85.18	18.75	71.42	25.00
7. Average of total	71.19	82.96	71.09	57.13	66.66	45.27

Table (15): The percentage of using the reporting verb "say" in relation to other reporting verbs

Because of the greater use of Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution", (which uses verbs other than "say" (see line (1) Table (15) above), RF and RFs use "say" less than WS. WS also uses "say" (line (3) Table (15) above), 100% with Correspondent Attribution, in which no colouring of the editor's attitude affects the choice of the reporting verb. In RDA texts, in which Attribution supports the editorial line (as we saw in Chapter Four, 4.3.1), the average of percentages of using "qaala" (say) is 45.27%. BBC AS (translated news texts) uses "qaala" (say) 57.13% of the total number of reporting verbs, which is lower than BBC English texts. Even in its

own Correspondent Attribution (line (3) Table (15) above), the percentage is 66.66% compared with 100% in the WS. In RDE (translated from Arabic), the use of "say" averages 66.66%, which approximates RF 71.19% (see line (7) Table (15) above). Finally, these high percentages of using "say" are not found in different types of text, e.g. reporting previous literature in scientific articles (see Swales 1981:33-52).

It is also found that two verbs expressing doubt "claim" and "allege" are used only in RF and WS news texts (in the corpus). RF uses "claim" 31.25% in relation to other reporting verbs, compared with WS one occurrence and AS one occurrence (see Table (1), Appendix (3)). Reporting verbs other than "say" are also used to indicate neutral attitude towards the attributed statement. These include "report", "add" and "indicate" found 6.25% out of the reporting verbs in WS (see Table (2) Appendix (3)).

In Arabic "thakara" (mention) is used 13.15% in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution in AS (Table (1) Appendix (3)), and (17.14%) in AS Institutional Voice of Attribution (see Table (3) Appendix (3)). "thakara", (mention) is also used 25% of the number of reporting verbs in problematic types of Attribution in RDA (see Table (7) Appendix (3)). Another neutral verb in the Arabic corpus is "'a9lana" (announce), 12.50% of reporting verbs in problematic types of Attribution, and 21.42% in Institutional Voice Attribution RDA (Tables 7 & 6 respectively). An interesting choice in the RDE corpus is "stress", which is used 22.50% in Support Attribution (see Table (5) Appendix (3)), and its Arabic equivalent "lakada" is used 21.42% in IV Attribution (Table (6) Appendix (3) and 25% in

problematic types of Attribution in RDA (Table (7) Appendix (3)). The choice of the reporting verbs "claim" and "say" in BBC corpus enable the news editor to present conflicting views and present his/her "impartiality", whereas the use of the reporting verb "stress" and its Arabic equivalent "'akada" support my claim that the function of Attribution is to support the recognized editorial line.

5.1.3 Tense choice

Tense choice in reporting/reported structure in news discourse is governed by grammar and the nature of news events. For instance, grammar allows the use of the past (modal) in the reported clause to refer to a future event. The past tense, however, cannot be replaced by a present tense in (13) below.

- (13) the Soviet Union said the plane altered its course on
the instruction of American flight controllers.
(WS: 03007)

This is because the event being reported occurred in the past and will not be repeated.

Examination of the tense choice of this structure (quantified in Tables 9-16) Appendix 3) shows the time orientation of the news events and the grammatical options made. Tables 9-16 Appendix 3 support evidence of three formal features of tense choice in Attribution Function in the corpus. Firstly, BBC corpus uses the past/past (i.e. simple past in both reporting and reported clauses) in about a third of the total number of cases of Attribution: 35.44% in Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution (line one, Table 9 Appendix 3); 36.78% in Pragmatic Attribution (line one, Table 10

Appendix 3); 25% in Institutional Voice Attribution (line one, Table 11 Appendix 3). Secondly, the choice of present/present (i.e. simple present in both clauses) is low in different groups of news texts and with different types of Attribution except for Correspondent Attribution in BBC WS and AS, which uses present/present tense up to 52.77%, and present (including present continuous) in the reported clause amounts to 63% of tenses (lines 1,3,5&6, Table 16 Appendix 3). This reinforces the view that Correspondent Attribution explains and comments on news events, a function which lends itself to giving general statements rather than pinpointing a past or a future event as the following typical example of present/present tense shows.

- (14) our correspondent says the Nigerians believe that the longer the delay in sending the force, the more likely it is that it will need to go into battle immediately to regain ground from rebels in Eastern Chad.

(WS: 03101)

Thirdly, RD news texts (in the corpus) use the present in the reported clause more than BBC texts do. The present tense is used 33.91% of tenses compared with 24.01% past tense (including past perfect) in reported clauses in BBC corpus. RD texts use the present up to 33.91% and the past tense 41% of tenses in reported clauses. This ten percent decrease in present tense in reported clauses in RD is compensated for by 23% using nominal (clause) in the reported side. Because the nominal is timeless (i.e. has no tense choice), it is nearer to a general statement true at all times as (15).

- (15) wa yaquul aljaanibaan 'anna hunaaḡ ḡaaja 'ilaa
 and the two sides say that there (is) a need to ...
 9amaliyat daf9 jadiida fii almufaawaḡaat ...
 a new process of pushing on with the negotiations

The English translation of (15) above would use the verb "be" in the reported clause to become "there is a need ...". However if an English clause with "be" were to be translated into Arabic, a verb equivalent to "be" can be used. The presence in Arabic of an optional "be" in this case explains the rarity of nominal reported clause in BBC Arabic texts, since they are translated from English text (which would of course always use a verbal element in the reported clause). To end this point here are two examples that represent the tendency to use present tense reported clause in RD, which results in their being general statements of evaluations or attitudes that are true regardless of the specific time of the news event (or broadcast).

- (16) ... wa qaal [bayaan] 'inna ṭariiḡ dimašḡ alwaadiḡ
 ... and said [a statement] that the way to Damascus (the
 clear)
 'aḡṣar min ṭariiḡ waaṣintun ...
 is shorter than the way to Washington ...
 (RDA: 13720)

- (17) alssayid raṣiḡd karaami, ra'iis wizaran'a lubnaan al'asbaḡ.
 Mr Karami, the Ex Prime Minister of Lebanon.
 yu'akid Mujadadan 'anna suuryaa hiya qal9at
 stresses once again that Syria is fortress
 alṣumuud ...
 of steadfastness ...
 (RDA:15824)

The metaphor used in (17) above and the statement that "Syria is the fortress of steadfastness" can be used to refer to a wider span of time more than statements which refer to a particular event.

To summarize the three points about tense choice in the reporting/reported clauses, it can be said that BBC (Arabic and English) corpus tend to report past events (60% past tense in the reported clause), while RD (Arabic) corpus tend to use fewer past tense reported clauses (41%) (see Tables 13-14 in Appendix 3). BBC Correspondent Attribution uses less past tense reported clauses (27%) (see Table 16 Appendix 3). The use of more present tense in RD (Arabic) and past tense in BBC (English) stems from the difference in the type of news statements being reported as in (16) and (17) above); while low use of nominal clauses in BBC Arabic texts and the abundance of present tense in RD English texts are two results of translation as the discussion above has shown (see 15 and the discussion that follows it). In (5.1.1) it was seen that in the reporting/reported structure the reporting element (whether a clause, a reporting adjunct or reported adverb) provide a macro-comment on the second element (reported clause). In (5.1.2) the choice of reporting verb (adjunct or adverb) was found to provide a lexical "frame" reflecting the news editor's attitude toward the reported clause. Finally in the above section (5.1.3) we have seen that the tendency of tense choice in the reported clause reflects the type of news statement (and probably the type of news event) being reported.

5.2 Attribution function and the overall-structure of RND

In Chapter Three it was argued that Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) act as signposts that guide the listeners from the beginning (first summary) through to the expansion of news items and to a repetition of the summary. DOEs, moreover, (potentially)

indicate the news item boundary. Structurally, the item, it was established, starts with a topic introduction which is expanded in the rest of the item (3.4.1.3). It was concluded in (3.4.2.3) that in order to be more specific, one needs to consider the structural patterning of certain prominent metatextual/interactive functions such as Attribution. Brown and Yule (1983:22) suggest that regularity of patterning is a central concern of the discourse analyst: " ... a regularity in discourse is a linguistic feature which occurs in a definable environment with a significant frequency" (ibid). In this section the regularity of patterning of the Attribution Function and the positions potentially open to it in Radio News Discourse will be discussed.

5.2.1 Attribution Function in news item expansion

In the following news item (18) the Attribution Function occupies its typical position.

- (18) At the United Nations, Argentina has once again called upon Britain to negotiate over the question of sovereignty of the Falkland Islands. The Argentine Foreign Minister, speaking at the beginning of a General Assembly debate on the Islands, said that fortifying them was not a viable policy. He also claimed that it would turn the South Atlantic into another area of East-West conflict. And he called on other NATO powers to dissuade Britain from continuing with its present policy. The debate is continuing.

(RF: 02104)

The introduction of the topic reiterates a well known policy of Argentina: thus that Argentina is making this call for negotiation is not a disputed issue. Hence in introducing this topic (see 3.4.1.3 for topic introduction) the editor uses a simple declarative

sentence reporting the "call for negotiations" from his/her point of view. But on moving to the details of the issue (see 3.4.1.3 for the definition of "detail"), namely the comment that "fortifying them is not a viable policy" (a view which is disputed by Britain), the editor detaches her/himself by explicitly attributing this piece of detail to the source. Another statement attributed to the Argentine Foreign Minister, states that the consequence of militarizing the Falklands is to "turn the South Atlantic into another area of East-West conflict." (18) shows that in cases where one party in a conflict want to supply its own detailed reasoning, then the editor may seek non-commitment by employing Attribution. (18) is also typical in that it presents the event which has taken place (the call for negotiation) in simple declarative form, but it signals non-commitment to the particulars of the source's views or accounts.

This position (i.e. details of news item) is also favoured for attribution in RD news discourse, too. Typically we also find a direct unattributed reporting of the content of a given statement, declaration etc., in the summary. Usually, this news report gives a label to the content of the news statements as "intaqada" (criticize) in (18).

- (18) 'intaqada dinis hiilii naa'ib ra'iis hizb al9umaal
 Denis Healey, the deputy leader of the British Labour Party
 albriiṭaanii
 has criticized
 siyaasat 'idaarat riigan 'itijaah 'amriikaa alwista.
 the policy of the American Administration in Central America.
 Wa qaala 'anna H.naaka maxaawif min wuquu9 kaariṭa 9askariya
And (he) said that there are fears of a military disaster
 natiijat haathihi alssiyaasa. Wa thakarat ruwaytar 'anna
as a result of this policy. Reuter has mentioned that

hiilii almutahadi**9** bism almu9aaraḍa albritṭaatiya wa
Healey the spokesman for the British opposition and
 almas'uul 9an alṣṣu'uun alxaarijiya, 'awḍaha 'anna riigan
[Labour] foreign affairs spokesman, has explained that Reagan
qad 'assa'a fahma alwad9 tamamen li'anahu lan yumkin
has completely misunderstood the situation, because it is
not possible
hal maṣaakil 'amriikaa allaatiimiya bilwasaa'il al9askariya.
to solve Latin American problems by military means.
 wa qaal ...
 And (he) said

(RDA: 13916)

After having directly "labelled" Mr Healey's act as a criticism of the American policy in Central America, the editor uses the Attribution Function to provide support for his/her reporting from the source's own contribution (i.e. the American administration has completely misunderstood the situation ...) In (20) below the editor attributes statements which reflect opposing views towards the topic being reported.

- (20) West Germany has signed an agreement worth thousands of millions of dollars to buy piped gas from the Soviet Union.

[summary]

- A West German Company has signed a contract with the Soviet Union to buy natural gas piped from Siberia in one of
 5 the biggest trade agreements between the Soviet block and the West. The company said the contract for the delivery of ten and a half thousand million cubic metres of gas a year for twenty-five years would start in 1984. The BBC Bonn
 10 correspondent says there are also signs that the Soviet Union wants to co-operate with West Germany in nuclear energy research. He said this was hinted at in a recent visit to Moscow by the Premier of West Germany. The gas deal, worth thousands of millions of dollars, follows lengthy
 15 negotiations with West European companies and banks for the construction of the Siberian pipe-line. It will stretch three thousand miles from Northern Siberia to Czechoslovakia on the West German border, and there the gas will be supplied to France, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria and Holland. The United States has voiced its concern over
 20 the project, alleging that it will make Western Europe depend on Soviet energy supply.

(WS: 02919)

The statement attributed to the company (line 6 in 20 above) is not controversial, but factual. Still these are facts which are presented by the company and from its point of view. The contribution of the BBC correspondent (line (9) (20) above) does not dispute the company's statement or the main news topic, but sheds light on the background of the Soviet attitude. At the end of the item, however, the statement attributed to the United States states the American "allegation" that "it [the pipeline agreement] will make Western Europe depend on Soviet energy supply". This view is not shared by the news editor and hence the heavy hedging. However, though the signing of the agreement is being criticized by the Americans, that the agreement has been signed is not disputed. Hence the choice of simple declaration (non-attributed) form in the topic introduction and the summary of the time in (20) above. We have also seen in (18) and (19) above, that the topic introduction there is not reported in attributed statements, although Attribution is used later (inside) the news item.

Upon examining the frequency of Attribution Function in the "detail", it is found (line 3b Table 16 below) that the overwhelming tendency is to present the topic without the use of Attribution and then indicate non-commitment or provide support to some of the details by using Attribution (as in 18-20 above). Thus RF uses Attribution Function 21.2% of the total cases of Attribution in the topic introduction, compared with the rest of occurrences (about 79%) in the "details", i.e. elaboration on the news topic. WS uses Attribution 42.10% in the topic, compared with about 58% in the details (see 3.4.1.3 for "topic introduction" and "details"). The

largest frequency of Attribution Function in topic introduction is found in the AS texts (which use a very high percentage of Attribution Function, 93.93% of the items use Attribution (see line 2, Table 16). 16% of Attribution by RDE is in the topic introduction and 17% by RDA, leaving the bulk (83-84%) to the details. Finally, 25% RFs use of Attribution is in the topic introduction and 75.35% in the details. In addition, it is noticed that Correspondent Attribution in WS and AS is always in the details, which reinforces the case made for its commentary-like function in Chapter Four (4.2.4) above. These numbers mean that the established place for Attribution Function (when it is used) is in "the details" rather than in the first position in the news item which introduces the topic in the item "expansion" or news "summary".

5.2.2 Attribution Function in the first position in news summary and news expansion

We have seen that the textual positioning of Attribution Function is in the body of the news item. Sometimes, however, the very event or topic being reported is held in contention as in (21):

- (21) One of the contenders for the Labour Party leadership Mr Roy Hattersley, has said the collapse of the Conservative vote in the parliamentary by-election proves that votes are still there for Labour to win back. He told a meeting in Middlesbrough that the real choice facing the country was between Conservative and Labour (...)

(RF: 01533)

Since the item is about Labour's ability to win votes, the editor in order to protect him/herself from accusation of bias, finds it

necessary to signal non-commitment so that he/she would not be seen as identifying with Labour's interest. Now because Labour's interest is expressed in the topic introduction itself (Labour's ability to win votes back), Attribution is used to open the item in (21) above. Many items like (21) above are found in the expansion of a news text but not in the summary, after all only few items are included in the summary. If an item in the summary uses Attribution, it is found that in most cases the Attribution is used in the first position of the expansion of the item as well (i.e. in topic introduction). Here is an example.

- (22) Troops in El-Salvador are alleged to have killed more than a hundred people in three villages in [summary] the north of the country.

Troops in El-Salvador are alleged to have rounded up and killed more than a hundred people including women and children in three small villages in the [expansion] north of the country. A correspondent for the BBC in El-Salvador is one of a small group of journalists to visit the scene of the alleged massacre. He says that villagers claim that as many as one hundred and eighteen people were killed on 5 November by soldiers of the American trained (noise) (....)

(WS: 03923)

Like (21) above, the news topic (in the summary and topic introduction) is too partisan to be reported without (heavy_ hedging (Lexical Attribution). It is found that whenever Lexical and/or Counter Claim Attribution is used in the summary, the topic introduction in the expansion (as in (21) above) will also use Attribution Function. This textual regularity in using Attribution Function is also found with cases of IV Attribution. But why, it may be asked, should IV Attribution (a mild case of attribution as we saw in 4.2.3 and 4.3.2) be used in the summary or first position

in expansion (i.e. in topic introduction)? Cases of IV Attribution in the summary or topic introduction suggest that the primary motivation for using them in this prominent position is their newsworthiness as has been testified in the following example discussed in Chapter Four (4.2.3)

(23) The Defence Minister, Mr Michael Heseltine, tells
MPs that the American Cruise missiles are at Greenham
Common Airbase.

(RF: 01704)

(23a) The first American cruise missiles have arrived in Britain ...
(RF: 01717)

Line (2a) Table (16) shows the number of occurrences of using Attribution in the summary and line (2b) Table (16) the number of occurrences in the expansion. RF uses attribution in 30% out of the total number of items in the summary, and 46.47% in the expansion. The tendency to use Attribution in the expansion is greater still in WS:26.31% in the summary, and 77.55% in the expansion (Line (2) Table (16)). AS uses Attribution Function in half of the items in the summary, but reaches as high as 93.93% of the items in the expansion. These high percentages are in sharp contrast with 4.16% for RDE and 4.54% for RDA out of the number of items in the summary, and 49.01% for RDE and 63.63% for RDA out of the number of items in the expansion.

Comparing the number of items using Attribution at the beginning of the item, reveals that when Attribution is used in the summary (in RF, WS and AS) it is almost always at the very start of the summary. While (as has been shown in (5.2.1) above) news items

having Attribution in the expansion (with the exception of AS) often use it after the news topic introduction; namely in the details.

Attribution Function is used at the start of expansion (in topic introduction position) 21.21% in RF, 42.10% in WS and 51.61% in AS. RDE uses Attribution in this opening position in 16% of the items in expansion, and RDA 17.85% in the same opening position.

Table (16) The distribution of frequency of attribution function in the overall structure of Radio News Discourse

Radio Service		RF	WS	AS	RDE	RDA	RF ₅
1 total no. of items	a summary	20	19	19	25	22	157
	b expansion	71	49	33	51	44	
2 no. of items using attribution	a summary	6 30.00	5 26.31	10 52.63	1 4.16	1 4.54	69
	b expansion	33 46.47	38 77.55	31 93.93	25 49.01	28 63.63	
3 no. of items using attribution at the beginning of	a summary	6 100	5 100	9 90.00	0 0	1 100	17 24.63
	b expansion	7 21.21	16 42.10	16 51.61	4 16.00	5 17.85	
4 no. of items using lexical ... and pragmatic att.	a summary	2 10.00	2 10.52	6 31.57	0 0	1 4.54	29 18.47
	b expansion	15 21.12	24 48.97	16 48.48	14 27.45	20 45.45	
5 no. of items using IV and other types of att.	a summary	4 20.00	3 15.78	4 21.05	1 4.00	0 0	44 28.02
	b expansion	19 26.76	18 13.73	24 72.72	19 37.25	14 81.81	
6 no. of cases of correspondent att.	a summary	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0
	b expansion	1 1.40	11 22.44	7 21.21	0 0	0 0	

The structural positioning of the Attribution Function in Radio News Discourse (RND) and its frequency can be summarized in the following four points:

1) Three groups of texts in the corpus use Attribution Function in more than 60% of the total number of items (WS:77.55%; AS:93.93%; RDA:63.63%). While the other three groups use this function less than 50% of the items.

2) Attribution is a feature of details rather than news topic introduction (compare line 2b and 3b in Table (16) above).

3) Correspondent Attribution, which provides commentary and explanation of news events and statements, occurs only in the details position of the expansion (see Line (6) Table (16) above).

4) News summary resists Attribution Function more than any other position in the structure of Radio News Discourse, since it is used in the summary only if it has to be: namely, in cases of heavy hedging (Lexical and/or Counter Claim and Pragmatic Attribution), or in cases in which attributed statements are particularly newsworthy (i.e. can be assumed relevant to various groups of audience). If Attribution is used in the summary of an item, it is almost always found in the topic introduction of the expansion (i.e. the first position in the expansion). RD, however, scarcely uses Attribution Function in the summary.

5.2.3 Kinds of point of view in Attribution Function and their implications for item structuring

News items containing instances of Attribution expressing opposing views, provide a promising hint at the possibility of evidence of strictly predictive structuring of part of the details within a news item. This is strongly suggested by items like (20) above, in which the news editor first reports the news event

(signing of Soviet-West German agreement) without Attribution, and then adds details attributes to an external source (a company) to unfold the details of the deal. Following the company's statement are two contributions by BBC correspondents, providing details that highlight the atmosphere which brought about the agreement. Finally, just before the end of the news item a critical view condemning the agreement is attributed to the United States. The thing to notice is that the contributions from the company and the United States have appeared in two previous separate texts, and that it is only in the news discourse that they are presented as a kind of "exchange". The crucial question here is: how regular is this "exchange structure" in Radio News Discourse? (Exchange is used here to refer to a pair of attributed opposing statements; cf. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) use of the term; and Burton's 1981).

As line (3) Table (17) below shows only a tiny percentage of news items contain attributed statements that express opposing views in RF and WS. The AS, by using opposing views Attribution in 31.03% of its news items, seems to highlight controversy and to present a conflicting world. There is, moreover, a small percentage of items (less than 10%) that present what can be called "multiple views", a case in which more than two different views (not necessarily conflicting) are expressed in attributed statements in one news item. In a multiple view news item, the structuring of Attribution Functions resembles a chain of reactions from different participants rather than two conflicting sides. It remains true, however, that the overwhelming majority of Attribution cases present "single view" news items as line 2, Table (17) below shows. It has to be

concluded that the low occurrence of items containing Attribution exchange structure and the fact that the Attribution Function is only one aspect of news item detailing, make it difficult to substantiate the view that Attribution Function (via attributed statements) manipulates exchange structure as a major or main news detail strategy.

Kind of point of view		RF	WS	AS
1. total No of items using attribution	summary	6	4	9
	expansion	31	32	29
2. single view attribution items	summary No %	6 100	4 100	8 88.8%
	expansion No %	26 83.87	27 84.75	18 62.06
3. opposing view att. items	summary No %	0 0	0 0	1 11.11
	expansion No %	2 6.45	5 15.62	9 31.03
4. multiple view att. items	summary No %	0 0	0 0	0 0
	expansion No %	3 4.67	2 6.45	2 6.89

Table (17) Kinds of points of view in Attribution items

Given a single view Attribution item (as (18) above which presents the Argentine point of view), it is difficult to predict the position of the Attribution Function in the details. Moreover, owing to the big majority of single view Attribution items, the occurrence of the first case of Attribution cannot structurally predict that another case of Attribution will follow. In fact more often than not, the listenership is left wondering what the other side(s) is saying concerning a single view Attribution item. From

the editor's point of view, the absence of opposing view(s) is due to: (1) the non-existence of opposing view(s), (2) the unawareness of the editor of the opposing view(s) in time for the news, and (3) an editorial judgement. Finally, it should be mentioned that RD news discourse does not use attributed statements expressing opposing views, but follows a strategy of providing, as much as possible, statements that are supportive of the editorial line, and which may be attributed to different sources (as we have seen in 4.3.1).

A second difficulty with specifying the position of Attribution Function in the details of item expansion is that Attribution is only one function of news discourse, which naturally includes many other textual functions. The relational positioning of Attribution Function in the details (after the topic introduction) is partly dependent on other textual functions in the news discourse. Stricter sequences of possible textual structuring of the Attribution Function might be obtained by studying other functions of this type of discourse. However, leaving aside this specific difficulty of the position of Attribution Function in the details, the previous section has shown that useful insights into the probable position of Attribution in the overall structure of news discourse are obtained from the distribution of this function in the texts in the corpus.

5.3 Attribution Function and radio news Audience

In Chapter Three (3.4.1.2), it was shown that the ordering of news items and the choice of news topics are partially determined in

the light of two factors: audience and newsworthiness. By "newsworthiness" is meant here that the news item is relevant news not only to one group of audience but has some more general (universal) appeal to different groups of audience. Since different groups of texts in the corpus are addressed to different audiences, we naturally expect news topics and the degree of editor's non-commitment to the news content (news statement) to differ. In his analysis of the erroneous failure by news editors to use Attribution, Bell (1984:96-100) has rightly pointed out that to decide on the use of Attribution, the factor of audience should be considered. Here the frequency of using the Attribution Function in different groups of texts in the corpus is studied in the light of different audiences (the term audience is used here in the sense of "intended or perceived audience" which is wider than actual audience, see Bell 1977:126).

5.3.1 News audience and news topics

In Table (18) below, we take one news text from each group of texts in the corpus to see how news topics are selected to suit the audience of the respective radio service. Upon studying the topics in Table (18) below, it is found that they are mostly

Table (18): News topics in the corpus

BBC RF news items topics	BBC WS news item topics	BBC AS news item topics	BBC RF summary news item topics	Radio Damascus English 5 news item topics	Radio Damascus Arabic 6 news items topics
1	2	3	4		
1. Public report about Brixton riots	1. Arab summit suspended	1. Arab summit	1. Public sector workers' day of protest 2. Picketing turns away ambulances	1. Arab summit 2. Communique about the visit of Italian Communist party dele- gation to Syria 3. Arab parliamentary delegation visit to Moscow 4. US troops manoeuvres in Egypt 5. International Committee for solidarity with Egyptian journalists 6. Soviet leader discusses international issues in West Germany 7. Greek Foreign Minister talks with French President	1. Arab summit 2. Head of People's Assembly discusses the budget 3. International conference on education condemns Israeli practices in occupied Arab territories 4. UN resolution reveals the danger of the possession of nuclear weapons by Israel 5. Memorandum on cooperation between the US and Israel 6. President of Democratic Yemen meets the Libyan leader 7. Prince of Kuwait discusses bilateral relations with Yugoslav delegation 8. Soviet leader ends visit to West Germany 9. Greek Foreign Minister visit to France 10. American Defence Minister will visit Turkey 11. American conservative government in Britain intends to legislate for industrial relations
2. Irish National Liberation Army admit planting a bomb	2. Israel Foreign Minister visit to United States	2. Israel rejects European parti- cipation in Saini peace-keeping 3. Egypt releases political de- tainees	3. Rally in London in support of one day stoppage 4. Tomorrow's rail strike		
3. The Soviet leader ends his visit to West Germany	3. Political detainees set free in Egypt	4. UN urges Morocco to negotiate cease-fire in Western Sahara			
4. Oil rig drifting in the North Sea	4. Libya denies planning to kill top American politicians	5. The Soviet leader and West German Chancellor discuss international re- lations			
5. Pay talks for the miners: ari strike at British Levlend	5. UN Food and Agricul- tural Organization and its budget problems				
6. Financial report	6. US ask UN to investi- gate possible use of chemical weapons in South-East Asia 7. US announcement of Mexico's sympathy with its policies in Nicaragua 8. Two Iraqis expelled from Venezuela 9. Miner's strike 10. President Reagan orders aid to Poland				

newsworthy for a restricted audience, and only sometimes recommended by their (universal) newsworthiness. Thus all RF and RFs news topics are newsworthy for rather restricted audiences; only one international relations topic (the Arab summit) is included on account of its "universal newsworthiness" in the WS, AS, RDE and RDA. (It should be remembered that the news texts studied in Table (18) were recorded on the same day). WS topics range, like its audience, from the Arab summit (WS1) to UN affairs (WS5,6), to American policies in Central America (WS7) and to American aid to Poland (WS:10). AS topics cover the Arab summit, Israel and West Europe, Egypt (AS:3), Morocco and Western Sahara (AS:14) and international relations (AS:5). RD includes the main topic of the Arab summit in RDE and RDA, internal affairs (RDE:2, RDA:2), Arab affairs (RDE:3,4 and 5) and (RDAs 6 and 7) and international relations (RDE: 6 and 7) and (RDA: 8, 9, and 10). It is noticed here that RD presents almost the same topics and a similar order in RDE and RDA. One thing to be remembered in this connection is that the audience of RDE are (mostly) diplomatic missions and staff (in Syria) from all over the world. But the decision of what topics to include (though it may affect the use of Attribution) lies beyond studying news discourse as such.

5.3.2 The frequency of Attribution Function and news audience

Naturally, different assumptions are made by the news editor about different groups of news audience. Thus foreign audiences (and maybe some local audience) do not share the editor's cultural background and world knowledge (a matter for further investigation in Chapters Six and Seven), and consequently they may be incredulous

or even suspicious (particularly a politically sensitive audience). Table (19) below shows the comparatively low percentage of Attribution Function in RF: 19.51% of the total number of sentences, and 20% in RFs. In these two groups the topics, as we have seen in the previous section, are primarily local (i.e. national rather than international) and the editor could expect the audience (a large proportion of them) to be sympathetic. RF and RFs moreover, do not use Correspondent Attribution, because RF includes its reporters to present their comments and RFs is by definition too short to allow such a practice. The audience of WS, meanwhile, require more international news topics (as Table (18) shows) and would have little sympathy with the editor's own point of view. Consequently, the news editor finds it necessary to hedge 45.09% of his/her statements (see column (3), Table (19) below).

Table (19) Total number of all types of Attribution in the BBC corpus

Radio Service	RF	WS	RFs	AS	RDE	RDA	total
No of words	8780	5600	7840	4611	6900	4930	
No of sentences	410	255	445	250	280	240	1360
Lexical and/or Counter Claim Att.	16 3.90	18 7.05	7 1.57	38 15.20			79 5.80
Pragmatic attrib.	10 2.43	28 10.98	27 6.06	22 8.80			87 6.39
IV attribution	20 4.88	33 12.94	28 6.29	35 14.00			116 8.52
other types attrib.	34 8.29	18 7.05	27 6.06	15 6.00			94 6.91
correspondent	0 0	18 7.05	0 0	18 7.20			36 2.64
total	80 19.51	115 45.09	89 20.00	128 51.20	58 20.71	62 25.83	412 30.29

AS manifests more Attribution cases than any other group in the corpus, 51.20% of the number of sentences, a fact that reflects the reporting of conflicting (opposing) views (see column (3), Table (18)) and consequently a high amount of heavy hedging to allow 24% of the total number of sentences, using Lexical and/or Counter Claim or Pragmatic Attribution (see Column (5) Table (19) above.

Table (20) below shows that RDA uses Support Attribution 25.83% of the number of sentences, which seems to emphasize the editor's guideline when local (Syrian and Arab) audiences are addressed. Meanwhile, it uses Attribution Functions (20.07%) in RDE which is addressed to an international audience (see Table (20) below).

Table (20): Total no. of all types of Attribution in RD corpus

Radio	RDE	RDA	Total
No. of words	6900	4930	11830
No. of sentences	280	240	520
Support attrib.	28 10.00	40 16.65	68 13.07
IV att.	16 5.70	14 5.83	30 5.75
other types attrib.	14 5.00	8 3.33	22 4.23
	58 20.71	62 25.83	120 23.07

An interesting point to notice is the use of Support Attribution is less frequent in RDE than RDA (RDE 10% Support Attribution compared with 16.65% in RDA).

5.4 Attribution Function and Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs)

In Chapter Four we have seen that Attribution Function shifts the point of view, and thus responsibility, away from the news editor to signal a degree of non-commitment in BBC news discourse (4.2) or to support the editor's reporting in RD news discourse (4.3). In a previous section of this chapter it was shown that grammatically the choice of Attribution Function involves the use of a reporting element (a clause, an adjunct or an adverb (5.1.1)) which provides a kind of "macro-comment" on the news attributed statement, usually identifying its source and to use Sinclair's word, "labelling" it as a "claim", "allegation" etc. Thus the Attribution Function involves a kind of metastatement about another news statement in a similar way to the Discourse Organizing Elements (studied in Chapter 3) which constitute metastatements about the whole of a news text or a part of it.

Two important features of having in discourse a linguistic element (a DOE or a reporting element in Attribution) providing a comment or a description of another linguistic element (a text or a statement) can be recognized: (1) to control the organization of the text (or part of it) or expressing the editor's attitude towards a news statement by putting it in a certain perspective (e.g. to hedge or support); and (2) to shift the function of the element explicitly in DOEs and implicitly in Attribution Function, where the reporting

verb amounts to a comment or to use Sinclair's word a "Label" of the act of the attributed statement, to the interactive plane of discourse. DOEs appeal to the listeners directly as in "This news comes to you in the World Service of the BBC", (Chapter 3.3), while Attribution Function appeals to the listeners indirectly; "our correspondent says X" (i.e. it is not we who say x). One important difference in the appeal to the listeners in these two textual functions is that DOEs are found in the same percentage and are needed in the same way regardless of the kind of listeners, since DOEs organize the discourse, a function to be maintained in the same way with groups of audience. On the other hand, since Attribution Function comments on news statements (to control them), the need to use this function (i.e. the shift to the interactive plane as a result of shifting the point of view) changes in accordance with the assumption about the audience, which makes Attribution Function, unlike DOEs, audience sensitive.

Finally, like DOEs, Attribution Function is "predictive". But while DOEs predict the part of the news discourse to come as a big chunk (summary, expansion), but not the order or number of news items (3.4.1.2), Attribution Function is predictive in three ways: (1) overall structure it predicts the imminent coming of Attribution Function in the expansion if it has occurred in the summary (5.2.2); (2) item structure, in a small percentage of cases of exchange structure within one item (5.2.3); and (3) in a general way, in that Attribution is a function of "details" (5.2.1). However, it has already been said that other textual functions have to be identified in order to obtain a fuller picture of the structuring of news

discourse. In the next two chapters, another metatextual (interactive) function, namely providing background information, will be studied to get further insights into news discourse structuring.

Footnote

(1)

Halliday (1968) distinguishes a "fact that clause" from a report clause in that only the first is rank-shifted i.e. embedded as an object in the main clause. Halliday writes "there are grounds for distinguishing the two (fact and report) structurally, a fact being embedded and a report is not" (ibid, 195). Sinclair (1972) also maintains that a reported clause is a subordinate clause (cf. Traditional grammar description of a reported clause as an object in its main clause). See also Halliday (1985) for detailed discussion of this point.

CHAPTER SIX

BACKGROUND INFORMATION IN RADIO NEWS DISCOURSE (1):

(General introduction and sentential Background Information)

6.0 This chapter starts by exemplifying the use of two types of "Background Information" in radio news discourse, and moves on to provide general comments on the two types of Background Information and to delimit their boundaries. In sections two to four (6.2 - 6.4), one type of Background Information, "Sentential Background Information" (SBI), is investigated in detail. The aim is to establish the case for "SBI" as a function of Radio News Discourse, and then to examine its implication for the textual structuring of news discourse. In the following chapter (chapter seven) the other type of Background Information, Nominal Background Information, will be dealt with.

6.1 Background Information (BI) general introduction

6.1.1 Background Information (BI) introduced

Though the main concern of the news editor is to report the news content of the latest and most newsworthy events, yet he/she is aware that it is essential that news information should be clear to all the listeners. Therefore, news editors exercise considerable judgement in supporting newsworthy events with "background information" wherever they consider it to be necessary. Naturally, their judgement is influenced by their political views (as has been shown by the Glasgow University Media Group 1981) and by the editor's knowledge

of the anticipated listenership of the service from which the news is to be broadcast.

The mere quantity and variation of "Background Information" found in news discourse indicate that it is an important dimension of radio news as a type of discourse. However, if attribution is mainly designed to protect the news editor, and ultimately the broadcasting service in the case of the BBC (as argued in the previous chapters 4 and 5) from accusation of partiality and bias, by shifting the responsibility to the source of information, Background Information (BI) is primarily designed to protect the listeners from confusion and feelings of inadequacy and to maintain the editorial orientation by assuming minimal knowledge on the part of the listeners. Just as a perfect (ie. totally reliable) source of information about an incontrovertible fact would not require hedging in the form of Attribution, so a perfect listener (ie. one with encyclopaedic knowledge) would not require BI. Thus, like Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) in Chapter Three and Attribution in Chapters Four and Five, Background Information (BI) is addressed to the listeners and provides no new news information, but comments on or qualifies new news information. It is also hoped that, like DOEs and Attribution Function, BI will give us invaluable insights into some aspects of textual structuring of radio news discourse.

6.1.2 Background Information (BI) exemplified

Background Information (BI) elements vary in quality and quantity. In (1) below there is no BI (ie. zero BI), which can be contrasted with (2) and (3):

- (1) President Mitterrand will visit West Germany next week.
(constructed)
- (2) President Assad of Syria has had an operation.
(constructed)
- (3) President Assad of Syria, a key figure in ..., has had an
an operation ... (RF:01828)

In (1) it is assumed that the Proper Name (PN) is uniquely referring in that no other president is called Mitterrand at the time of the news broadcast. (2) contains in addition to the name of the President some Background Information, reminding the listeners of the President's nationality. In (3) the listeners are reminded not only of the President's nationality, but also given certain political information. The description of President Assad as a "key figure ..." suggests that the editorial selection of Background Information (BI) is a matter influenced by several considerations. After all, there are many pieces of BI that can describe and/or identify a name. Therefore, it is found that some cases of BI (as 3 above) are more "relevant" to the topic of the news, while others are more stable (ie. can be used with many news topics). A ministerial position is expected to be occupied by an individual for a good time, and the occupier is likely to participate in many newsworthy events in this status. Thus, "The Northern Ireland

Secretary" is a relatively stable BI description of Mr James Prior in (4 below).

- (4) The Northern Ireland Secretary, Mr James Prior, has been...
(RF: 00612)

Of course, given the suitable news topic, Mr Prior can be referred to as "the Ulster rebel" (a reference to Mr Prior as Secretary of State for Northern Ireland and a critic of Mrs Thatcher's policies), "the Ex-Social Secretary", and so on.

BI used in conjunction with a proper name, as exemplified in (1-4 above), will be called "Nominal BI". But this is by no means the only type of BI in radio news discourse. Another important type of BI realized in a complete sentence (or sentences) is found in radio news discourse as the following example shows.

- (5) A high court judge, has adjourned a hearing in which the father of British nurse, Helen Smith, is trying to have the West Yorkshire coroner banned from holding an inquest into her death. The judge said he was concerned that no counsel was in court to argue a case against Mr. Ron Smith. Helen Smith died after an illegal drinks party in Saudi Arabia three years ago.
(RFs: 08432)

The last sentence in (5) provides supporting BI which would be redundant for those of the listeners who are well-acquainted with the story of Helen Smith which is being updated in this running topic. Therefore, this information about Helen Smith is addressed to listeners who are assumed to be unfamiliar with the news topic of (5 above) and thus do not know about Helen Smith more than what is provided in this news item, ie. that she is a British nurse. This type of BI is called here "Sentential Background Information"

(SBI), a particular realization of providing BI which constitutes an important aspect of Radio News Discourse which will be fully treated later in this chapter (6.2. and 6.3.).

6.1.3 The scope of Background Information (BI) in the present work

The phenomenon of providing certain types of BI, exemplified in the previous section, must be distinguished from a number of textual features which are excluded from the status of BI. First to be excluded from consideration of BI is a case of genitive structure in which every element is necessary for successful referring, and thus does not qualify as BI. Let us compare the following:

(6) The president of Cyprus has had talks.
(constructed)

(6a) The President of Cyprus, Mr Kyprianu, has had talks...
(RDE:04033)

In (6a), as in (2 above), the nationality of the President is given in addition to the President's name; while in (6) only the name of country is there for successful identification of the individual being referred to. The information about the President's nationality in (6) is, therefore, necessary and not a case of BI. But in (6a) it provides extra information (BI) which would prove invaluable for the listeners who cannot identify President Kyprianu by his name alone.

The second feature which is found in the news discourse and not taken as a case of BI comprises a semantic relation that can be called "lexical paraphrase". In 7 below "the court" (underlined) is used as a synonym for "Mr and Mrs Lunt".

- (7) An English-born actress, Lynn Fontanne, has died at her home in Wisconsin. She was ninety-five and had been suffering from pneumonia for several weeks. For more than than forty years. She and her American husband, Alfred Lunt, were a theatrical partnership famous on both sides of the Atlantic. (...) In 1964, President Lyndon Johnson awarded the couple the Presidential Medal of Freedom.

(RF: 01501)

"The couple" is not adding any information about the Lunts which is not available from what has preceded in the text. In fact informationally, it is like "they" which has occurred before (RF: 01511); therefore it cannot be considered a case of BI.

- (8) 'a9lana almisti briijiiniv, alza9iim alsuuvyietii wa
Mr Brezhnev, the Soviet leader, and
slhiir Shmit
Herr Schmidt

(AS: 13217)

The second reference to Mr Brezhnev and Chancellor Schmidt uses the lexical item "alrajulaan" (the two men), which stands in inclusion relation (Kempson 1977: 3 and 9) with the proper name(s), since the "two men" can refer to any two members of the class "man". However, like "the couple" in 7 (above), "the two men" carries no additional unknown information about the referent other than the proper name(s) in (8), and therefore is excluded from being considered a case of BI.

In 7 (above) pronominals such as "she, her" referring to Miss Fontanne (together with her husband in one instance "they") represent the third feature to be excluded from consideration as BI. Although "she" or "her" in (7) indicates that the reference is to the proper name and that this name is feminine, this information can

be obtained from the first name (Lynn) or from the reference to Lynn's profession, an actress", which in this exceptional case in English, unlike say "teacher", is differently realized in relation to gender. In other cases, the title preceding the name may indicate gender. Still the point remains: pronominals (in 7 above) carry out the function of anaphorically referring successfully; but they do not necessarily add extra information about their referent, information that is obtainable solely through or from the pronoun per se. Thus no BI is involved in pronominal uses of this sort.

The fourth and final textual feature which is excluded from the status of BI presents information which is potentially *recoverable* from the text, but which is not primarily used to provide BI about another item, proper name, in the same text. To illustrate what is meant by the last sentence here are two examples:

- (9) The Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh have arrived in
Nairobi at the start of a five day visit to Kenya ...
(RF: 02006)

- (10) Kabul
iftutiha alyawma fii al9aasima al'afgaaniya ...
it has started in the Afghanistani capital...
(RDA: 11814)

Although the listeners may infer from (9 above) that Nairobi is in Kenya, the reference to Kenya is being made in relation to the "visit" and not to provide BI about Nairobi. This can be seen by examining the following constructed version of (9).

- (9a) The Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh have arrived
in Nairobi in Kenya at the start of a five day visit
to Africa.
(constructed)

"In Kenya" in (9a) is primarily used to provide BI about Nairobi.

In 10 (above) "Kabul" is a subtitle which is glossed in the opening sentence as "the Afghanistani capital", and thus seems to be similar to paraphrasing "the couple" in 7 (above). Another reason for excluding 10 (above) from BI status, is the uncertainty about the inference, for the same subtitle "Kabul" could be used with something like (10a).

(10a) Kabul

Reports reaching the Pakistani capital suggest that there has been heavy fighting in the streets of Kabul.

(Constructed)

"Kabul" in 10a (above) may be misinterpreted as "the Pakistani capital". But textually neither (10) nor (10a) support the interpretation since the relationship of identification does not necessarily hold between the subtitle and the rest of the text.

6.1.4 Definition of BI in Radio News Discourse

Before undertaking a detailed discussion of the phenomenon of using BI in news discourse, a definition of the term BI should be attempted. The definition is trying to capture the aspects of news discourse which have been delimited so far in this chapter, and therefore as it is realized in the corpus under investigation. For the present purpose Background Information is information that is provided by the news editor in relation to a Proper Name, before or after the PN, to enable the listeners to identify an aspect of that name (such as occupation, personal relation, location etc.), or information provided about the topic of the news item; in the latter case, the BI is realized in one or more complete sentence(s).

Three terms, information, proper name and topic, deserve brief comment in order to clarify their use in the present context. Firstly, the term information in "Background Information" is preferred to "knowledge", since the latter would refer to the total amount of what is known; and thus it can be said that it is both comprehensive and (at any given point in time for a given individual) static. Information, however, refers here to a specific element or elements (bits of information) which is being communicated in a particular case of language realization (text, and which is known to one participant in the communication event, but assumed unknown to one or more recipient. Thus information is specific and is necessarily targeted at a specific addressee. (For an elaborate explanation of the relationship between information and communication see Cherry (1957:41) and Beckmann 1972).

Secondly, the long standing question of the nature of Proper Names (reviewed recently in Salmon 1982: 32-42) is none of our concern here. We adopt Strawson's account of PNs, which requires a "presupposition-set of propositions" which constitute "the composite description of a given name" (Strawson 1959:192), and which should satisfy the conditions 'of identification on the speaker's and hearer's part. The two basic features of Proper Name/BI in the present corpus can be captured in Strawson's account : (1) the BI element can be rightly considered (a part of) a description of a given name; and (2) assumptions about the state of knowledge of the listeners and what they may need for a successful identification of the name being referred to can be evaluated. The relationship between a Proper Name and BI will be discussed in the following

chapter. But for a discussion of successful identification of a Proper Name according to Strawson, see Strawson (1959:185-190).

Thirdly and finally, the term "topic" (ie. topic of discourse) refers, in Brown and Yule's words, to "what is being talked about" (Brown and Yule 1983: 73-75). Two points about news topics in general should be kept in mind. First, they are explicitly and conventionally signalled, by the use of subtitles in Arabic (AS of BBC and RDA) and by complete shift of news topic (see Chapter Three 3.4.1.2) for topic shifts in news summary and the systematic return to each in turn in the expansion). Thus, in the majority of cases there can be no mistake about the change in news topic. Further elaboration on the term "topic" and its relation to Sentential Background Information will be taken up later in this chapter (6.2.2.1).

6.1.5 Sentential Background Information (SBI) in Radio News Discourse (RND)

The rest of the current chapter deals with Sentential Background Information (SBI), cases of BI which are realized in one or more complete sentences. Nominal Background Information (NBI) referred to earlier will be fully studied in Chapter Seven. In the remaining sections of this chapter, three aspects of SBI will be investigated. Firstly (in 6.2.1) we discuss the criteria used to establish that a given case is one of SBI. Secondly, the characteristics of SBI in Radio News Discourse are discussed (in 6.2.2). Thirdly and finally the chapter is concluded by looking into the frequency of SBI in the Corpus and the implication of SBI for textual structuring of the news.

6.2. Criteria for Sentential Background Information (SBI)

Three criteria can be used to establish that a given case is one of SBI. These are:

1. That the BI sentence(s) is added to the message, but not an essential part of it (6.2.1.).
2. That the content of SBI is known to the encyclopaedic listener (6.2.2).
3. That the content of SBI reveals either past news information or general knowledge information (6.2.3).

These three criteria are, as will be seen later, not unrelated and each case of SBI must satisfy all of them.

6.2.1. First criterion: Sentential Background Information (SBI) is added to the news message but not an essential part of it.

This criterion stipulates that a case of SBI should amount to an addition to the message of the news item. Hence, (1) it can be omitted without affecting the current message, and (2) it does not contribute to the development of the topic introduction (as defined in 3.4.1.3 above) of the news item in which it appears, or any elaboration on the topic introduction. The omission test tries to establish that the SBI insertion is not vitally essential to the message. Let us look at the following example:

- (11) President Reagan has authorized another food grant to Poland to help overcome the food shortage there. A White House spokesman said that thirty million dollars worth of flour, cereals, milk and coffee will be distributed over the next six months. He added that the grant demonstrated the United States' commitment to the peaceful resolution of Poland's difficulties.

The United States has contributed food and credit for food worth eight hundred and twenty million dollars to Poland over the past twelve months.

(WS: 03440)

The last sentence (underlined) can be omitted without any loss of information as far as the message of the current item is concerned. Even without this BI addition, the topic of "authorizing a new food grant to Poland" has already been fully dealt with.

In Arabic (and RD English translated texts) SBI is signalled by a group of words which translate as "it is to be mentioned, (noted or recalled)", which set SBI utterances in a way that BBC news does not normally do. Let us look at the following example.

- (12) The Chadian government has asked the United Nations Security Council to hold an emergency session on the situation in Chad. The request was made by the Chadian Foreign Ministry. It is to be noted that the regime of Hussein Habry has been receiving huge United States Military aid in a bid to tie Chad to the United States Zionist strategy.

(RDE: 06238)

In (12) after the news topic of "Chad's request for UN" has been covered, the news editor adds a "footnote" to the message which informs the listeners about the US military aid to the Chadian Government, but not about the current news topic, ie. the request for the UN Security Council's meeting. In this sense, the SBI is an addition that can be omitted without losing anything essential to the message of the news item in (12).

Cases where the sentence (or sentences) at issue cannot conceivably be omitted without affecting the content of the message (e.g. 13 below) cannot be considered as providing BI.

(13) bada'at 'ijtimaa'9aat mu'tamar alqima al9arabii al0aanii
 9ašar alyawm bimušarakati
 The twelfth Arab summit has started its meetings today. All
 kaafat al'aqtaar al9arabiya maa 9adaa alnižaam almašrii
 allathii qarara mu'tamaru
 Arab countries are taking part except Egypt which was
 qimati bagdaad muqaata9atahu bisababi siyaasatihi
 alxiyaaniya lilqaḍiya al9arabiya.
 banned from Arab Summit by the Baghdad Summit because of
 its betrayal of the Arab cause.
 wa qad ḥadra kaafatu mumaḥilii al'aqtaar al9arabiya aljalsa
 al'iftitaahiya, kamaa
 Representatives of all Arab countries have attended the
 inaugural session. Also
 hadarahaa alra'iis alkiinii daanyaal 'arabmuuy, bišifatihi
 ra'iisa aldawra alḥaaliya
 it was attended by the Kenyan President, Daniel Arap Moi,
 as current
 limunaḡamati alwaḥda al'afriiqiya . haathaa wa yar'asu
 wafda alqutri al9arabiy
 president of the Organization of African Unity. Meanwhile
 the Syrian delegation is headed
 alsuurii alsayid 9abd alḥaliim xadaam, naa'ib ra'iisi
 alwizaraa', waziiru
 by Mr Abd Elhalem Khadam, deputy Prime Minister
 alxaarijiya.
 and Foreign Minister.

(RDA: 12422)

The news item opens by announcing that the summit has begun its meeting and that all Arab countries except Egypt are taking part. Then it goes on to say that all Arab representatives and the chairman of the Organization of African Unity have attended the opening session. The final sentence (underlined) states that the Syrian delegation is headed by the Foreign Minister, Mr Abd Al Halim Khadam. This last sentence cannot be considered as a mere addition, because it elaborates on the identity of the Syrian representative. Thus this last sentence is part and parcel of the message of the

news item, and cannot be omitted without affecting the essential content of the news item.

The final sentence in 13 (above) is developing the topic of the news item, because it provides new news information. This, however, cannot be said about cases of SBI, discussed in 11 and 12 (above). In 11 for instance the news starts with the announcement of US food aid to Poland. It goes on to spell out what kind of food is to be donated. Then comes an explanation to the effect that the food aid "demonstrates the US commitment to a peaceful resolution of Poland's difficulties". Finally, the news editor shifts from the present aid efforts to mention the role of American food aid to Poland during the year. This final addition does not develop the present issue, nor does it add new information about the present aid.

That SBI is an additional insertion that adds no fresh information and thus it is not an elaboration on the current news topic, is seen in the following example.

- (14) A public opinion survey carried out by Gallup has shown a majority opposed to the privatization of British TELECOM. The results contrast with those of a Gallup poll conducted last year. Then most people questioned were in favour of the idea. (Andrew Roberts of our industrial staff reports).

(RF: 01938)

The first sentence reports that the survey shows a majority opposed to privatization. The second sentence elaborates by saying that this result contrasts with a previous survey. The final sentence, however, states no new information, but rather a kind of explanation that can be inferred from the previous statements. (14) satisfies the first criterion of recognizing SBI in that it is not an

essential part of the news message, and thus can be omitted, and does not develop the news topic by adding new news information.

6.2.2. Second Criterion: the content of SBI should be known to the encyclopaedic listener

The second criterion for establishing cases of SBI is closely related to the first, but it focuses on another aspect of the communication event. The first criterion establishes SBI as BI added to the news message, and as such having no news information; the second criterion stipulates that the content of SBI should be known to the "encyclopaedic listener". By the "encyclopaedic listener" is meant one who knows, and remembers at the time of the news delivery, all past news information and matters of general knowledge. Of course the totality of past news information is not accessible to us, thus it refers to an idealization of "what could plausibly be supposed to have been broadcast on the same radio service which is making use of the BI reference". An example will illustrate this point;

- (15) The Prince of Wales has received the Freedom of the Borough of Monmouth in South Wales on behalf of the Welsh Guards. Prince Charles is Colonel of the Regiment which lost thirty-six members in the Falkland campaign. Ninety-one others were injured.
- (RF: 01604)

The encyclopaedic listener is assumed to have detailed up-to-date information about the culture of the radio service (British culture in this case) and the specific sub culture(s) to which the news topic is referring. (This will guarantee that the encyclopaedic listener knows about the royal family, the armed services and the role of royal patronage, ie. Prince Charles is the Colonel of the

Welsh Guards). The encyclopaedic listener should also be assumed to know the possible past news information from the respective radio service, and therefore know the content of the last two sentences in 15 (above); ie. that the Welsh Guards lost thirty-six men and ninety-one of them were injured in the Falkland War. In fact, a certain amount of continuity in providing news information on the part of the radio assumes that the encyclopaedic listener is able to make the successful reference to "the Falkland campaign". We should hasten to say that this does not imply that SBI is a redundant utterance which has no function in the current news item. It will be seen later (6.3.3) that SBI is there to shed light on and remind actual audience of the past information that is considered by the news editor to be vital to the current news topic (see 6.3.1 for elaboration on this point).

The first criterion has made a condition that a case of SBI is not essential to the current news message and thus conveys no news information. However, this condition is absolutely true only to the encyclopaedic listener, without him/her a case of SBI may well not be known to actual (instantial) listeners, and thus would be new news information. Here is a typical and straightforward example of using SBI in the World Service news.

- (16) The police in Pakistan say they have shot dead one of the leaders of the AL-Taurthika guerrilla group and captured two other men in a police raid in Karachi. A police inspector was shot dead and another policeman critically wounded. The police say the dead gunman was one of the killers of the former Trade Minister, Mr Tahi, who was assassinated in Lahore in September. The group, which is based in Afghanistan, was responsible for the hijacking of a Pakistani airliner this year.

(WS: 03130)

To the encyclopaedic listener, the final sentence which states the location of the base of the guerrilla group and one of their previous operations is repeating known information. However, the SBI introduces new or "forgotten" news information to "some" listeners. What should be emphasized here is that the encyclopaedic listener is an instrument which enables us to decide that the information in the last sentence in (16) is BI, since after all, it is known to this potential listener.

6.2.3 Third criterion: the content of SBI reveals either information from previous news texts or general knowledge information

Most news items report news of events that have already taken place or have already commenced and are still in progress. This is not what this criterion is about. But rather it is about identifying that the utterance to be designated as SBI, in addition to satisfying the two previous criteria, had possibly been used in a previous news text. To specify what is meant by "previous news text", let us look afresh at (16).

All the statements in the above news item are about events which have already taken place. But the last event is old news which, taking into account the continuity in the speaker (ie. the radio service), can be safely assumed to have been broadcast when the hijacking took place.

This use of a "previous text" should be distinguished from repetitions of the same text (the whole of 16 above for instance), a well-known practice in the media, since the same news content may be repeated (on the same radio service) about five times (on Radio

Four) in the same evening. Previous news text, therefore, refers to a previous occasion on which the content of SBI (e.g. the hijacking of a Pakistani airliner in 16 above), or the arrest of Egyptian citizens in 17 (below) had been revealed as new news information. Let us see how this is done in (17).

- (17) 'afraġat alḥukuuma almaṣriya 9an waḥidin wa θalaaθiina
 The Egyptian Government has released thirty-one
 ṣaxṣan miman qubiḍa 9alayhim fii sibtamber, 'ayluul
 people of those arrested in last September
 almaḍii binaa'an 9alaa 'awaamir alra'iis alraaḥil 'anwar
 on orders from the late President Anwar
 alsaadaat li'itihaamihim bitaṣwiih sum9at miṣr fii alxaarij
 Al-Sadat. On accusations of smearing Egypt's name abroad,
 wa lil'iṣtiraak fii 'iḍraam alxilaafaat alṭaa'ifiya. Wa kaana
 and participating in inflaming sectarian conflicts. And among
 min ḍummi allathiina 'ufrija 9anhum 9idat ṣaxṣiyaat
 the released people many prominent politicians.
 siyaasiya baariza, wa 9adad min kibaar alṣaḥafiyyiin min
 and a number of well-known journalists
 ḍumnihim alsayid muḥamid ḥasanayn ḥaykal, mudiir altaḥriir
 including Mr Muḥamed Ḥasanein ḥaikel, the previous editor
 alsaabiḡ liṣaḥiifat al'ahraam. Wa kaana 9adad 'allthiina
of the Aḥram newspaper. And the number of those
qubiḍa 9alayhim ḥiina'ithin 'alf wa xamsmaa'at ṣaxṣ. Wa qad
arrested then was one thousand and five hundred people.
 gaala almuda9ii al9aam al maṣrii 'inahu qad tama
 the Egyptian Attorney General has said that these
 al'ifraaj 9an haa'ulaa' alθalaaθiin ṣaxṣ lilḥaaja liḍam
 thirty people have been released in order to strengthen
 alṣufuuf.
 Egypt's line.

(AS: 13118)

Having announced the news that thirty-one detainees have been released, and having described the charges and circumstances of their arrest and their identities, the news editor goes back to the time when the arrests were made to state that "then the number of people arrested was one thousand and five hundred people". This statement is old news information that must be assumed to have been broadcast.

The majority of SBI cases are decided by the previous occurrence criterion as in (16) and (17) above, but some can be identified, in addition to satisfying the first two criteria, by providing general knowledge information about a given news topic or issue. This is the case of (18 below):

(18) faas

Fez

'u9lina 'anna alra'iis haafiz al'asad lan yahdur mu'tamar
It has been announced that President Hafiz Asad will not attend
alqima al9arabii (...). Wa mina almusalam bihi
the Arab Summit (...). And it is taken for granted (widely
assumed)

'annahu laa yumkin almuḍiy quduman fii tanfiith
that it will not be possible to carry out
'almaṣruu9 alsa9uudii maa lam yaḥṣal 9alaa ta'yiid
the Saudi project unless it finds the support
suurya wa maalam yaḥṣal 'inqisaam kabiir fii
of Syria and unless a big division takes place in
alṣaf al9arabii haathaa. (...)
this Arab line. (...)

(AS: 12922)

The news item in (18) reports that President Assad of Syria is not attending the Arab summit which has started in Morocco on the same day as the news broadcast. Then comes the observation (from the point of view of the news editor) to the effect that "it is taken for granted (widely assumed) that the Saudi scheme does not stand any chance of being carried out without the support of Syria...". This general observation about the importance of Syria's support to the Saudi project is well known to many listeners and relevant to the discussion of this project in many other contexts as well as in relation to the Arab summit. Inserting this piece of information after announcing the absence of the Syrian President from the Summit is a conscious (elaborate) choice on the part of the news editor to explain the importance of this absence. To repeat the main point of

this criterion we say that SBI should be either past (ie. previous) news information (as in 16 and 17 above) or generally known information (as in (18) above). This third and final criterion for deciding on SBI is complementary to the previous two; since what can be assumed as past or general news information (criterion 3) should be known to the potential encyclopaedic listener (criterion 2) and added to the current news message (criterion 1).

6.3 Sentential Background Information (SBI): inherent properties

Having identified the occurrences of SBI on the ground of the criteria set up in the previous section, we move to study the prominent characterizing features of this textual function. Three inherent properties of SBI in news discourse are discussed: (1) SBI is topic-related (6.3.1); (2) SBI is a comment by the news editor on news topics or news events (3.3.2); and (3) SBI is topic sensitive and audience sensitive (6.3.3). topic or news event (6.2.2.3).

6.3.1. SBI is topic related

In order to study the topic-relatedness of SBI to the topic in relation to which it is used, it is necessary to clarify what is meant by "topic" in news discourse and the nature of "relatedness" between SBI and the news topic it relates to. Unless otherwise indicated, the term "topic" refers to "discourse topic" (see Keenan and Schiefflin (1976:375) for the term "discourse topic"; and Brown and Yule (1983:68-124) for a review of the different uses of this term). For the present purposes Brown and Yule's basic notion of "topic" as "what is being talked or written about" (1983:73-75)

seems reasonable. Thus the topic in the following example from the introduction to this chapter is "the adjournment of hearing in the Helen Smith case".

- (5) A high court judge, has adjourned a hearing in which the father of British nurse, Helen Smith, is trying to have the West German coroner banned from holding an inquest into her death. The judge said he was concerned that no council was in court to argue a case against Mr Ron Smith. Helen Smith died after an illegal drinks party in Saudi Arabia three years ago.
(RFs: 08432)

We saw in Chapter Three (3.4.1.2) that, in general, at the beginning of a news item, news topic opening is signalled: by a preceding long pause, by the introduction of a new news event (i.e. new situation) with new participants and in most cases a new place and time reference. Moreover, as listeners to the news we have our expectations and knowledge of news topic change. In addition to all these clues RDA and AS use a subtitle before each new item (usually in the form of a name of a place where the news event being reported has taken place) and sometimes use a Discourse Organizing Element (DOE), an aspect which has been discussed in Chapter Three above. Identifying new items opening provides an important step towards understanding news topic structuring (sequencing), since (as pointed out in 3.4.1.2) in the majority of cases, a news item deals with one news topic. This, however, leaves us with two questions vital for specifying the topic-relatedness of SBI unanswered: how can we decide if the topic has changed within the news item? and what are the implications (if there are any) of the continuation with the same topic across news item boundaries?

The change of topic within an item is very rare and is found more in the Arabic corpus, but when it occurs in Arabic it is signalled by a discourse marker as in (19) below:

- (19) nafat aljamahiriya alliibiya 0aaniyatan
 The Libyan Jamahiiyat (Libya) has again denied
 2 'anna quwaatahaa muštariika fii alqitaal fii tšaad.(...)
 that its forces are participating in the fighting in Chad.(...)
 3 haathaa wa quad ha0at muwaajaha bayna alṭaa'iraat
 Meanwhile a confrontation has taken place between
 4 al9askariya alliibiya wa al'amriikiya 9alaa masaafatin
 Libyan and American fighter planes near
 5 min alsaahil alliibii. (...)
 the Libyan coast. (...)

(AS; 16521)

The first sentence in (19) introduces the news topic, which reports the Libyan's position concerning the Chadian civil war. This topic is expanded in the following sentences (see AS: 165:22 in the corpus). However, having exhausted this topic, the news editor moves on in the same item to introduce a second news topic starting with the word "haathaa" (meanwhile) (line 3, 19 above). Although the second item has to do with Libya, it still deals with a completely different issue, a (recent) confrontation between Libyan and American fighter planes. This news topic is expanded in the rest of the news item without any reference to the previous topic of Chad. As in (19) the topic, which is one of two or more topics in one news item, receives a relatively lengthy treatment involving more than one sentence.

The second question asked earlier about "topic" has to do with topic maintenance, which amounts in the case of the news to continuing with a news topic but focusing on a new facet of it, and which can be found in one news item (eg. RF treatment of Lord Scarman's report (RF: 01014) in about 800 words, or across item

boundary (eg. RD treatment of the reactions of Lebanese politicians to the National Salvation Front (RDE: 05320 and RDA: 13615)). This feature of news discourse can be called "topic-string", because what we have in these cases is the examination of a topic from different angles in order to highlight a given news topic which constitutes a major news story on the grounds of its newsworthiness (eg. the Lord Scarman report (RF: 01014) and the arrival of Cruise missiles in Britain (RF: 01717), or which is chosen for its importance to the socio-political orientation of the radio service (a matter outside the news editor's control). Thus from the comprehensive treatment they receive, topic-strings are easy to recognize; and usually they either update a running news topic, or report on uncontroversially important news events.

An example of topic-string updating a running topic (RD: 13615) is one in which different reactions to a statement issued by the Lebanese President during his visit to the United States are given. In the first item (RDA: 13615) under the subtitle "Tripoli", the regional leader of Northern Lebanon and ex-Prime Minister, gives his reaction to the President's statement. This item is followed by another one (RDA: 13710) under the subtitle "Beirut", in which three other reactions to the president's statement are given: (1) the reaction of the Progressive Socialist Party, (2) the reaction of the Political Bureau of the Lebanese Communist Party, and (3) the reaction of the National Group. In this item, the change from one participant to another is explicitly signalled in each case by using "min jihatih" (on his part) to introduce the second participant, and "kamaa" (in the same way) to introduce the third participant in

the news event being reported. To end this brief discussion of topic maintenance, it should be concluded that, like topic change, topic maintenance is to be distinguished from SBI, which is not an elaboration on the same topic so much as a "backdated repetition".

To recapitulate the points about topic change and maintenance, we can say that in all cases in the corpus the opening of a new news topic is quite clearly recognized; after all speaker and listeners show great tolerance towards topic range and change in news broadcasts. Since SBI occurs towards the end of a topic or in the middle of the news item and since we have been able to distinguish SBI from topic change and topic maintenance (i.e. from changing or carrying on with the current topic), now we are in a position to ask what is the nature of "topic relatedness" of SBI to the news topic it relates to.

The idea of "relatedness" as used in the term "topic related" can be thought of in analogy to the notion of "relevance" as used in Grice; ie. in the maxim be relevant (Grice 1965:46-50). A discussion of a previous example (5 above) will clarify this point.

- (5) The World Chess champion, Anatoly Karpov of the Soviet Union, has retained his title at Merano in Italy. The challenger, Viktor Korchnoi, resigned in the eighteenth game of the match to give Karpov a six-two lead. Karpov is the master of official sponsored chess. Korchnoi defected to the West in 1976 and the Soviet authorities have prevented his family from joining him.

(RF: 00811)

The editor has reported the results of the match, the participants in it and the circumstances of the playing. Then he/she moves to add BI about both participants: (1) the general knowledge point

about Karpov being the official Soviet champion, and (2) the past news information about Korchnoi's defection to the West. Because the SBI insertion can be assumed to be known to the encyclopaedic listener, and because it is not dealing with a new news topic (not a case of topic change within the item) or topic maintenance (a case of topic string), the SBI insertion provides a background to the news topic as a whole in that it is old news and it is relevant to the current topic.

Now, the present interpretation of the relatedness of SBI will be coupled by simultaneous mapping of "sentence topic" in the sense of topic/comment (as used in the works of the Prague School, see Givon 1983,5) and discourse topic. How the current news topic is related to the topic of SBI utterance is exemplified in (20) below.

- (20) The Welsh rugby authorities have called off next year's projected tour to South Africa by the national side. The South African Rugby Board President, Dr Craven, said the decision had come as a great disappointment. Anti-apartheid groups had conducted an intensive campaign against the tour.

(RFs:08121)

The topic of this item is "the cancelling of the planned rugby tour". The sentence topic of SBI (treated here as Halliday's theme, "the first functional element in the clause", Halliday, 1967) is "Anti-apartheid groups". The content of SBI in (20) may have previously occurred in the context of the news topic of the anti-apartheid campaign against the planned (Welsh) rugby tour. From this perspective, the SBI utterance can be seen as on small part of "the anti-apartheid campaign against the tour", which has become "old news". The term "sub-topic" here refers to this "brief mention" of a previous topic made by SBI, a brief mention which

indicates that the SBI topic had already received extended coverage in the past. Moreover, by adding this reminder in the form of SBI, the news editor is placing the news topic in (20) in its "proper context" as far as the topic is concerned, and, at the same time, is appealing to the listenership to take the new news information (the cancelling of the tour) against the background of a previous news topic (the anti-apartheid campaign against the tour). It will be seen in Chapter Seven that this reference to a previous news topic is found with Nominal Background Information (see 7.2.2.(5)). An interesting point to notice here is that the background news topic in SBI always follows and never precedes the new news information, a matter to be looked into later (6.4.2.2).

The above analysis of the relevance of SBI to the current news topic, illustrates that SBI is not a case of topic change or topic maintenance (a topic string), but a case of straightforward backgrounding of topic-related information.

6.3.2 SBI is a comment by the news editor on the news topic or news event

The relationship between SBI and the rest of the news item in which it appears is established from the news editor's point of view. As in the case of Attribution where the news editor has to make a judgement as to whether a statement is too partisan to be presented from the editor's point of view, SBI (as well as other types of BI insertions to be studied in Chapter Seven) reveals considerable editorial involvement in judging the amount and type of directives, guidance or old information which is needed in reporting

different news events. After all, a number of other newsworthy events (topics) might plausibly have been used as Background Information to "cancelling the planned rugby tour" in (20), such as possible political interference and repercussion.

Let us see what kind of insight about editorial judgement can be gained from SBI. The following example is from Radio Damascus English:

- (21) The Chadian Government has asked the United Nations Security Council to hold an emergency session on the situation in Chad. The request was made by the Chadian Foreign Ministry. It is to be noted that the regime of Hussein Hakny has been receiving huge United States military aid in a bid to tie Chad to the United States and Zionist strategy.

(RDE: 06238)

The news topic here is the Chadian crisis in the Security Council. But the last sentence, a case of SBI, could conceivably be replaced by a number of possibilities that would shed light on the crisis, such as (21a) and (21b) below.

- (21a) The Chadian Government has asked the UN Security Council to hold an emergency session on the situation in Chad. (...) The French Government has recently sent more weapons and about three thousand troops to rescue the declining regime of the pro-French President of Chad, Mr Hussein Hakny.

(constructed)

- (21b) The Chadian Government has asked the United Nations Security Council to hold an emergency session on the situation in Chad. The request was made by the Chadian Foreign Ministry. Libyan troops and fighter planes are claimed to have sustained their attack on pro-government forces in the north of the country.

(constructed)

In the constructed example (21a), SBI presents the French involvement as a background to the situation in Chad; while in (21b) SBI provides the Libyan connection as a relevant background. In both cases the SBI amounts to a kind of editorial comment as to under what circumstances or why Chad has appealed to the UN. The SBI actually supplied by the news editor in (21), out of many possibilities, highlights the American support to Chad; an editorial comment which reflects the editor's orientation and point of relevance.

At this point, it seems relevant to ask whether by commenting on the news topic, SBI has any metatextual element(s) (such as discourse deictic elements found in Discourse Organizing Elements in 3.3). Here is an earlier example:

- (18) faas
 Fez
 'u9ana 'anna alra'iis ḥaafiz al'asad lan yaḥḍur mu'tamar
 It has been announced that President Hafiz Asad will not attend
 alqima al9arabii (...). Wa mina almusalam bihi
 the Arab Summit (...). And it is taken for granted (widely
 assumed)
 'annahu laa yumkin almuḍiy quduman fii tanfiith
 that it will not be possible to carry out
 'almašruu9 alsa9uudii maa lam yaḥṣal 9alaa ta'yiid
 the Saudi project unless it finds the support
 suurya wa maalam yaḥṣal 'inqisaam kabiir fii
 of Syria and unless a big division takes place in
 alṣaf al9arabii haathaa. (...)
 this Arab line. (...)

(AS: 12922)

Commenting on the current topic of the absence of the Syrian President from the conference, the news editor reports that it is assumed that the Saudi project does not stand a chance unless it is supported by Syria. None of the elements (or words) in the SBI utterance in (18) (above) has a textual deictic reference. Still by

being a statement on the topic, it makes (like a Discourse Organizing Element) a specific emphasis appeal to the listeners, which places it on the interactive plane of discourse. Certainly, for some listeners at least, SBI provides redundant information. On the other hand, from the editor's point of view, in addition to asserting the editorial line of relevance through the use of SBI, such BI is specifically addressed to those listeners who may have forgotten (or do not know) the "relevant" background from the editor's point of view. Like Discourse Organizing Elements and Attribution, SBI reveals a particular emphasis on the interactive function of the communicative event, but primarily, SBI underlines the editor's orientation.

6.3.3 SBI is audience sensitive and topic sensitive

Two points can be made about the distribution of SBI in the corpus: (1) it is audience-sensitive and (2) it is topic-sensitive. Firstly, that SBI is used more with one type of audience than with others, is seen in the frequency of occurrence of SBI in the BBC corpus (RF: 23.9% of the items; WS: 44.9%; RFs: 7% and AS:45.5% of the news items). The implication of the higher percentage of SBI in BBC Arabic Service and WS is that the editorial judgement has come in favour of more explicit signalling of the relevance of the current topics to previous news or other news events, and greater use of extra information to keep the audience within a desired frame of reference. It should be repeated here, however, that the choice of SBI, like that of DOEs and Attribution, is ambiguous in that the frequency of using SBI could be motivated either by the audience per se, or by the different news topics that are chosen to suit the

audience (see 5.3.1 for a discussion of Attribution and news audience and news topics).

The second point to be made in this section has to do with topic sensitivity to the use of SBI. By saying that SBI is topic sensitive we mean here that reporting certain news topics seems to require a greater amount of SBI, regardless of the radio service or the kind of audience the news is addressed to. The most prominent case in point is reporting biographical news topics; the death of a well-known public figure as in (22 below which has been discussed before) which is reporting the death of Lynn Fontanne.

- 1 (22) An English actress, Lynn Fontanne, has died at her home
in Wisconsin. She was ninety-five and had been
suffering from pneumonia for several weeks. For more
5 than forty years, she and her American husband, Alfred
Lunt, were a theatrical partnership famous on both
sides of the Atlantic. The Lunts, as they were
called, were ideally matched. Hers was a robust down-
to-earth quality sitting on her sophisticated
brilliance. Lynn Fontanne was born at Woodford in
10 Essex, the daughter of a Frenchman who ran a printing
business. She made her first stage appearance in
Vaudeville pantomime in 1903. In 1916 she went to the
United States where she met Alfred Lunt. They were
married in 1922, and from that time onward their
15 careers were inseparable. After they retired from the
stage in 1948, the Broadway Theatre was named the Lunt
Fontanne their honour. In 1964, President Lyndon
Johnson awarded the couple the Presidential Medal of
Freedom.

(RF: 01501)

In this example only the first sentence and the two sentences in the middle (line 6) report new news information. Everything else in the item (about 120 words) provide BI about the life and career of Lynne Fontanne, information which is possibly known to many people (fans and specialists). Thus we are told how old she was and whom she got

married to, and the careers of the couple and the different stages and awards they have received. It seems reasonable to assume that any biographical news (as a news topic) as exemplified in 22 (above) is particularly prone to draw heavily on past information, and therefore use SBI relatively more than other news topics.

Another topic that uses a high percentage of SBI is found with certain politically sensitive items as in a RF item reporting a sectarian murder in Northern Ireland (RFs:08001). The item starts by reporting the death and possible identity of the person killed (in 55 words); but then it moves on to add past news information about the circumstances of abducting the person and the threat of killing him (in 56 words). (This item will receive full analysis in a discussion of editorial judgement (6.2.3.2.3)). Another example of this kind is found in RD reporting of an attack by Israeli settlers on Arab students in Hebron University (RDA: 09917). Having reported the news of the attack, the editor moves on to describe (in 187 words) the exploding situation in Hebron during the last month as one of "oppressive treatment and planned attacks" by Israeli settlers to the Arab Palestinian population of Hebron. This same topic is also reported by the BBC Arabic Service, and the need for SBI is confirmed, but only two sentences (36 words) are used to state that before the attack on University students "one settler has been killed and following that the Israeli settlers took to burning shops in the city market in revenge". The point to be made here is that in both cases the news editor considers SBI to be necessary with the current news topic (attack on Arab students). It is the sensitivity of the news topic, from the editor's point of view,

which makes a full account of the recent development concerning a current topic (Northern Ireland in RFs or the West Bank in RD and AS). This type of political topic and the biographical news topic exemplified in 22 above show that SBI is particularly required with certain news topics.

6.4 The frequency and structural patterning of Sentential Background Information (SBI) in Radio News Discourse (RND)

Now it is time to examine the frequency of occurrence of SBI in different groups of texts in the corpus and its structural patterning. For this purpose the extra-linguistic and textual implications of the frequency of occurrence have to be assessed (in 6.4.1 below). Also to be described is the structural patterning of SBI in the overall structure of news discourse (6.4.2.1) and in the internal structure of a news item (in 6.4.2.2) and the structural predictability of SBI (6.4.2.3).

6.4.1 The frequency of SBI in the restricted corpus

SBI is found in all six groups of news texts in the restricted corpus, but their frequency varies considerably. It occurs most frequently in BBC Arabic Service 45.45% of the total number of items, and BBC World Service is 44.89% of the items (ie. SBI is used in almost every other news item in these two services). The frequency drops by half to almost one in every four items (23.94% of the total number of items) in BBC Radio Four (long texts). The frequency of SBI is even lower than this in RD: English texts use SBI 15.68% of the total number of items (once every fifteen items), and RD Arabic texts use SBI 20.45% of the total number of items (ie.

once every eight items). But the lowest frequency of SBI is found in BBC Radio Four short texts (RFs) which use SBI 7.00% of the number of items (ie. less than once in ten items). Column 3, table (21) below states the frequency of occurrence and their percentages in the corpus.

Table (21) The Frequency of occurrence of SBI and their position in the news item

<u>Column 1</u> Radio Service	<u>Column 2</u> Number of items Average words in item	<u>Column 3</u> Number of occurrences of SBI %age of SBI in news items	<u>Column 4</u> Number of SBI in item final position %age of SBI in item final position
Radio Four BBC (RF)	71 124	17 23.94%	11 64.80%
World Service BBC (WS)	49 114	22 44.89%	13 59.09%
Radio Damascus English	51 136	8 15.68%	1 12.50%
Radio Four BBC (RFs) short news	157 50	11 7.00%	1 9.09%
Radio Damascus Arabic	44 112	9 20.45%	2 22.22%
Arabic Service BBC (AS)	33 140	15 45.45%	10 66.66%

To account for this variation in the frequency of SBI, we can examine two factors: the extra-linguistic factor of news audience and the textual notion of length (amount of expansion an item

receives). In the case of the World Service the topics are selected to suit the foreign audience (see 5.3.1 for the difference in news topic) who are assumed to know very little about the news stories, since they belong to a variety of cultures and backgrounds, and amount to a multi-million number. This is also true of the Arabic Service, except that the audience of this service are "culturally" homogeneous, in which case the high frequency of SBI is attributable to an editorial decision to focus on the editor's interpretation of news events and assume minimal knowledge on the part of the audience. Now, although Radio Four is broadcast to local (British) audiences and the occurrence of SBI is half that of WS and AS, it is clear that SBI is felt by the editor to be required. RD uses SBI less often (only once every five items) but it may insert a long stretch of SBI as we saw earlier in the example from RDA reporting of the Hebron University shooting incident (RDA: 13424). The interesting point about RD use of SBI is found in the low average of SBI in RD English texts (once in eight items). It was seen in Chapter Five (5.3.2) that RD English texts do not adjust by using more Attribution to address foreign listenership in the same way that BBC WS does. Here again, RD English texts seem not to emphasize inserting editorial comments through SBI. Finally, the lowest frequency of SBI in RFs seems to result totally from the fact that this is a news summary (average of 50 words in an item, compared with average of 124 words in RF long texts). The textual notion of summary versus expansion and its relation to using SBI will be elaborated upon in the following section.

6.4.2 SBI as a textual function and the overall structure of RND

Looking at the news text as a whole, the question here is: what (if any) are the structurally characterizing features of SBI?

6.4.2.1 SBI is a feature of expansion, not summary

In order to partially answer the question posed in 6.4.2 (above), one has to look at the occurrences of SBI in three different realizations of a news item: (1) in the summary which is expanded later in the same broadcast, (2) in the expansion which has been summarized and may be summarized again at the end of the news broadcast and (3) in the news summary which is not preceded or followed by summaries or expansion: (RFs) Radio Four 2-minutes short summaries. Let us start by examining a typical case of SBI occurrence:

- (23) France has taken reprisals in Lebanon for the attacks on its forces there last month.

(RF: 02313)

French fighter jets have attacked targets in Eastern Lebanon in retaliation for the bombing last month of a French military unit in Beirut, in which fifty-eight soldiers were killed. Yesterday, Israeli jets attacked camps used by pro-Iranian Shi'ite Moslem groups close to today's main target, which was also a Shi'ite base. At the same time, in the northern city of Tripoli, there has been more fighting between rival Palestinian forces. From Beirut, Jadil Patt reports:

(RF:02531)

- (23a) French planes have hit targets in Lebanon as a reprisal for a car bomb attack on French troops in Beirut.

(WS:03829)

- 1 (23a) French planes have attacked targets in Eastern Lebanon in retaliation for last month's bomb attack in Beirut, which killed sixty French soldiers. The French planes, reportedly, struck bases belonging to Iranian

5 revolutionary guards and their Shi'ite Moslem allies,
causing heavy damage. Fourteen French planes are said
to have been used. All of them returned safely to
their aircraft carrier, off the Lebanese coast. The
10 French themselves say they acted to prevent new
terrorist attacks on their troops in Lebanon. Just
about twenty-four hours earlier, President Mitterrand
had warned that the Beirut bomb attack would not go
unpunished. The Americans, who lost more than two
hundred troops in a similar attack that day in Beirut,
15 say they were told in advance of the French raid. The
same area of Eastern Lebanon was attacked by Israeli
planes on Wednesday, again in retaliation for a car
bomb attack on the Israeli headquarters in Tyre,
earlier this month.

(WS: 03837)

Typically the summary of the item is very compact and short (one sentence in each case) and is geared to present new news information. Therefore, no room for SBI is given; not one instance of SBI occurs in the summary in any of the five groups of texts in the corpus that use news summary. Secondly, in RFs (short news summary) the percentage of using SBI drops drastically 7% of items (and 9.09% in final position, Column 4, Table 21), ie. less than once in ten items,) in comparison with other groups of news texts, particularly BBC (average of one in every other item in WS and AS, and one in every four items in RF). Thirdly, relatively longer news items may use two or more instances of SBI. All in all the frequency and positioning of SBI confirms the prima facie impression that the more condensed the news information is, the lower the probability of using SBI is.

6.4.2.2 SBI and the internal structure of news item

We have seen in the previous section (6.4.2.1) that SBI is a feature of expansion, but a more specific description of the structural position of SBI in the expansion itself is desirable.

First to be mentioned in this connection is that SBI never occurs in the opening slot of a news item, since that is reserved for the news topic introduction as we saw in Chapter Three (3.4.1.3). SBI, therefore, occurs in the details: ie. what follows the topic introduction. We saw in Chapter Five (5.2.1) that Attribution Function favours this position, but Attribution, unlike SBI, may occur in the news topic introduction or news summary (see (5.2.2).

A close look at SBI reveals that the most prominent feature of its structural positioning in news "details" of news item is that it always follows and never precedes the news topic about which it is providing Background Information. To appreciate what this means for the structuring of information in the news item, let us look at the following:

- (24) The conciliation service, ACAS, has invited both sides in the BBC dispute over outside broadcast staff to attend talks tomorrow morning. Last week the BBC said the three hundred and eighty people involved will be sacked unless they resume normal working by midday on Thursday. The dispute has been disrupting coverage of sporting and other events.

(RF:01931)

- (24a) Last week the BBC said the three hundred and eighty people involved, (in the BBC dispute over outside broadcast staff) will be sacked unless they resume normal working by midday on Thursday. The dispute has been disrupting coverage of sporting and other events. The conciliation service, ACAS, has invited both sides in the (BBC) dispute (over outside broadcast staff) to attend talks tomorrow morning. (Constructed)

The first point about putting SBI before new news information in (24a) is that it seems to suggest a causal relationship between the BBC threat and the ACAS intervention more strongly than the actual news item in (24) would. This could be the effect of the chronological sequence of events in which the later event would be

readily interpreted as a result. In the actual news item where the new news information precedes SBI, the primary concern is the new message of the ACAS invitation to solve the dispute. But how or why this invitation by ACAS has come about (ie. the causal relationship between the ACAS invitation and the previous sub-topic of sacking threats) is not a primary concern. Put loosely, the news item is saying the ACAS invitation is taking place against the background (and not necessarily because of) the threat to sack striking staff. To conclude, the structural positioning of SBI after the new news information highlights the primarily communicative purpose of the news discourse, namely to report and emphasize new news information, and where it is felt necessary, to provide a background of previous and (from the editor's view) relevant news information.

The second point about (24) is that the item opens with the most recent (and newsworthy) development in a running dispute. The SBI is an indication of "relevance" between the ACAS effort and a previous news topic (the BBC threat to sack the strikers, and the disruption resulting from the strike). This structuring of news information (topics) is typical of news discourse in as far as it first presents the new information and then adds (editorially motivated) Sentential Background Information. If this order of new news information and then SBI is reversed, the result (in 24a) would be nearer to an up-to-date review of a news event, than a news item. Thus in (24a) the news narrative is chronologically reported, starting (rather arbitrarily) with "last week's threats by the BBC to sack strikers involved in outside broadcasting staff" and then mentioning the effects of the strike (disruption), and ending up in

today's ACAS invitation to the two sides. Two important points can be made about the structuring of news information in (24a) versus that of the actual news item (24). Firstly, by putting the new news information last, the emphasis on presenting this new information (and thus the impact of the message) is lessened. Therefore, 24a can be a kind of press review or a summary of a news event, but not a news item in a radio news broadcast; i.e. it is a different type of text.

6.4.2.3. SBI: editorial judgement and structural predictability

Towards the end of the last paragraph in the previous section (and in 6.3.1), it was said that SBI is provided as a background to the current news information (topic). It has also been established earlier that the judgement to use SBI is influenced by the kind of "news topic being reported" and news audience (6.3.3). In this section we are going to elaborate on some aspects of this editorial judgement in regard to news topic and news audience, and moreover, try to see if what has been found about the structural positioning of SBI can strictly predict its occurrence.

We have already seen that SBI is a feature of expansion, that it is used in the "details" (as the term is defined in Chapter Three 3.4.1.3) and that it follows the news topic it is highlighting. The question at this point is: what is the motivation for using SBI in a given case? and, to put it differently, can SBI be omitted? The editorial judgement whether SBI is needed is best tested in cases of "sensitive news topics". Let us examine the following news item, which was touched on earlier in relation to topic sensitivity.

- (25) Police in Belfast have been examining the body of a man found in the loyalist Shankill area of the city this morning. There's been no official identification but it is thought the body may be that of Mr Joseph Donergan, the Roman Catholic who was seized by the outlawed loyalist group, the Ulster Volunteer Force. He was abducted in relation to the kidnapping by the IRA terrorists of a Sergeant in the Ulster Defence Regiment. Mr Donergan disappeared on Friday, a few hours after Sergeant Thomas Cochran was kidnapped by the IRA. The loyalist group had warned that if the Sergeant wasn't released by midnight last night they would kill Donergan.

(RFs:08401)

If the SBI (underlined in 25) was omitted, the news topic would have been reported, but the Loyalists, who did the killing, would feel that the account of the event is not complete. Having anticipated the reaction of the marked attitudes in Northern Ireland, the news editor sees the need to resort to SBI, which in itself indicates the direction of the editorial judgement, ie. the choice to use SBI, and the type of information (comment) provided portraying the IRA as the original culprits. Such considerations seem to underline the editorial judgement in favour of using SBI. This judgement can be affected even by news events that have taken place long ago, in which case the Background Information will recede to be realized in a nominal group (which will be studied in the following chapter) or by an adjective as in "the occupied West Bank", a reference to the Israeli occupation since 1967. The persistence in using SBI reflects the editor's judgement and orientation.

The editorial judgement to use SBI is also influenced by considerations of audience and the degree of elaboration (expansion) desirable in dealing with different topics. Thus in (23a) (above)

RF uses SBI once, but in reporting the same news event (the French air raid in Lebanon), WS resorts to SBI twice. Surely a greater weight is given to SBI when the BBC is addressing a foreign audience (as we saw in the frequency of occurrence of SBI (6.4.1). The sensitivity of the editorial judgement to the need of a specific audience for more explanations, reinforcement of and emphasis on the editorial line is seen in the use of SBI to underline the editor's position and in the use of specific types of Background Information (the use of titles to indicate status as Nominal Background Information (to be discussed in Chapter Seven below).

Now taking all these extra-linguistic factors influencing the editorial judgement into account, we may ask if the occurrence of SBI is structurally (using the term in its strictest sense) predictable. It was seen in Chapter Three that Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) function at such a level of structuring of news discourse that they cannot structurally predict the forthcoming occurrence of a news item, or indicate its omission if omitted. In a similar way the occurrence of SBI (or its omission) cannot be predicted to anything like "certainty". As a matter of fact, it can be suggested that when it is used, SBI is noticed by the analyst (or listeners) more than when it is absent. Still, given a certain case, and given the knowledge of different aspects of the news topic and listenership, one may capture the probability of using SBI; after all half the news items (or topics) in BBC AS and WS use SBI. Similar to Attribution Function, SBI is interactive, a comment on the news topic and not absolutely predictable. Moreover, as in the case of many interpersonal phatic functions of language, the absence

of SBI could lead to uneasiness in the audience, while its use adds to clarifying the sender's (i.e. in this case the editor's) message, though in this case in a rather negative sense, since SBI reflects the editor's bias, while Attribution reflects the editor's purpose of "impartiality" or supporting the editorial line.

CHAPTER SEVEN

BACKGROUND INFORMATION IN RADIO NEWS DISCOURSE (2): (Nominal Background Information)

7.0 Early in the previous chapter (6.1) the case for studying Background Information in Radio News Discourse was presented. The abundance and variation of this phenomenon was alluded to, but only one type of Background Information, Sentential Background Information (SBI), was fully investigated. The present chapter will study the second major type of Background Information (BI), Nominal Background Information.

Like Sentential Background Information (SBI), Nominal Background Information (NBI) provides additional information, not about the topic per se (as in the case of SBI), but about a Proper Name. This chapter will attempt to classify the kinds of Proper Names (PNs) in news discourse to establish the types of NBI and their implication to news listeners' knowledge (7.1 and 7.2) and to study the grammatical constituents and the frequency of PNs and NBI in the corpus (7.3 and 7.4). Finally, the chapter will end with an attempt to see if any systematic occurrence of NBI in the overall structure of news discourse can be found.

7.1 Kinds of proper names (PNs) in the corpus

The abundance of PNs in news discourse is reflected in their many kinds. The criteria used to establish a proper name are taken from Strawson, who stipulates that "there must be a particular answering to the description the speaker uses, ... [and] He is referring to

just one particular". (Strawson 1959:181). Four kinds of proper names can be recognized:

- i) name of a person
- ii) name of a place
- iii) name of a date
- iv) other names

A classification of each of these kinds from the corpus is provided below with examples. A full discussion of this classification is included in Appendix (3).

7.1.1 Names of persons in Radio News Discourse (RND)

Twelve kinds of person names are found in the corpus.

1) Name of person (full name without a title):

(1) (The General Secretary of the CND,) Monsignor Bruce Kent
(RF:01812)

(2) ... to meet with Menachim Begin and ...
(RDE:06216)

2) Name of person (last name without a title): "Massey" (RF:01431)

3) Name of person (title and last name): Mr Whitelaw (RF: 00622)

4) Name of person (family name, last name of husband with a plural marker): "the Lunts" (RF:01505)

5) Name of person (title and fullname): "Mr Jose Amadu" (WS:03632).
"Dr James Mackeith" (RF:08625), "the surgeon Paul Vickers"
(RF:00603).

6) Name of person (title (position) and last name): "President Reagan (WS:03440).

7) Name of person (title (position) and full name): "President

Lyndon Johnson" (RF:01515).

8) Name of person (two titles, the second of which is a position, and last or full name): "al sayid alra 'iis haafiz al'asad" (Mr President Hafiz Asad) (RDA: 14714)). This formula is peculiar to Arabic.

9) Name of person (given title and last name): "Lord Scarman" (RF:01005).

10) Name of person (inherited title and first name): "Prince Charles" (RF:01606).

11) Name of person (fictional name): "President Lincoln" (a name in a play) (RF:01439).

12) Unique title in reference to person: "The Queen" (RF:00822).

7.1.2 Names of places in Radio News Discourse (RND)

Eight kinds of place names can be distinguished in the corpus:

1) Name of a part of the world: continent or ocean: "Africa" or "the Pacific" (RF:07630).

2) Name of country: "West Germany" (WS: 02919).

3) Name of a region: "Scotland" (RF:01916), "Siberia" (WS: 02928).

4) Name of a city, a town or a village; Fez (WS: 03232)

5) Name of a building or a location: "Buckingham Palace" (RF:008304), "Hyde Park" (RF: 06519).

6) Name of a road: to be distinguished from other kinds of place names.

7) Name of a river: "the Clyde" (RF: 02014).

8) A derivation from the name of part of the world or name of a country: "European" (WS: 03311) from "Europe".

7.1.3 Date Names (reference to specific time) in RND

Following Fillmore (1971) dates are taken to make reference to a particular point in time (see Appendix 4 for a discussion). Four kinds of date names are found in the corpus:

- 1) Name of month: "July" (RF: 01612).
- 2) Name of day: "Friday" (WS:03605).
- 3) Names of seasons: "Christmas" (RF: 00832).
- 4) Name of year: "1944" (RF: 01432).

7.1.4 Other kinds of names in RND

Nine other kinds of names are found in the corpus. They differ from the above kinds and from each other.

- 1) Names of an object: "Cruise" (WS: 04132)
- 2) Names of films, stories and TV programmes: "The Prisoner of Zenda" (RF: 01437)
- 3) Names of a company "British Leyland" (RF: 00516)
- 4) Name of an official body: "the Security Council" (RF: 03128)
- 5) Name of an event: "the Correctionist Movement", a political event in Syria, 1970. (RDE: 04436)
- 6) Name of a political group or a member (or members) of it: "Tories" (RF: 01540) in reference to the Conservative (Tory) Party.
- 7) Name of a non-political group: "The Royal Shakespeare Company".
- 8) Name of a religion or its followers: "Jews" (WS: 04343).

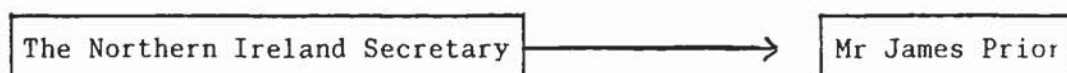
7.2 Aspects of Nominal Background Information (NBI): its elements, types, information and predictability:

We have seen in the previous Chapter (6.1.2) that additional information used with a PN highlights an aspect of that name. In this section we will identify the elements of Nominal Background Information (NBI), and the different types of NBI used with PNs in the corpus. The section ends with looking into two issues relating to NBI, information and predictability.

7.2.1 Elements of NBI

Looking at an example of NBI from Chapter Six, we can distinguish two elements: (1) a Proper Name (PN), and (2) Background Information about the PN. The second element will be called "descriptor" (see Figure 7 below).

Figure (7): The elements of Nominal Background Information



The descriptor "the Northern Ireland Secretary" highlights an aspect of "Mr James Prior". It may also follow the PN it is describing (Figure 8 below).

Figure (8): The elements of Nominal Background Information



The descriptor "in Italy" specifies the whereabouts of the PNs, Merano. The grammatical constituents and relations of the two

elements of NBI will be dealt with later (7.3 below). Although there are sound philosophical arguments about the priority of a proper name (as in Salmon 1982:36-41) they are not of concern to us here. But linguistically as we will argue later (7.3.1.) it is the proper name (or pronoun) which is usually used through discourse (beyond a sentence) to maintain a reference to the same entity of the descriptor. At this point it is enough to observe that every case of NBI contains these two elements (a descriptor and a PN).

7.2.2 Types of NBI in Radio News Discourse (RND)

The basic task here is to determine the specific function(s) of BI when it is used in relation to a PN in the way exemplified in (3) below. To do this let us start by examining the following news item (3) as it appears in the corpus, and then compare it with (3a), which is the same news item but without NBI.

- (3) The World Chess Champion (1), Anatoly Karpov of the Soviet Union (2), has retained his title at Merano in Italy (3). The challenger (4), Viktor Korchnoi resigned in the eighteenth game of the match to give Karpov a six-two lead. [Karpov is the master of officially-sponsored chess. Korchnoi defected to the West in 1976 and the Soviet authorities have prevented his family from joining him.]

(RF: 00811)

- (7a) Anatoly Karpov has retained his title at Merano. Viktor Korchnoi resigned in the eighteenth game of the match to give Karpov a six-two lead. [Karpov is the master of officially-sponsored chess. Korchnoi defected to the West in 1976 and the Soviet authorities have prevented his family from joining him.]

(constructed)

First to be noticed in (3) is that the final two sentences (in square brackets) are Sentential Background Information (discussed in 6.3.1). We saw then that the omission of these two sentences would

not hinder the encyclopaedic listener's understanding of the significance of the result of the match (see 6.2.2 for the term encyclopaedic listener), nor his/her perception of the BBC's orientation. Moreover, the encyclopaedic listener will not be affected by the omission of NBI (as in 3a above), since he/she knows the profession and status of Karpov and Korchnoi and where Merano is.

For the majority of listeners, however, such omission would have two effects: firstly, they may not know the identity of the players until they reach the third sentence (which is a BI sentence), while this information is provided in the form of NBI at the beginning of the first sentence in the original text (3 above). Secondly, less informed listeners may not know where Merano is until they consult a reference book or ask about it. (3) above suggests that the omission of NBI has important implications for the textual structuring of information (to be elaborated later in 7.5) and it may result in a direct loss of information (eg. place location). Therefore, the use of NBI enables the listeners to identify the bearer of a person's name and the location of a place name. In order to know what aspect of a PN is being identified in NBI, and how many types of NBI there are in the corpus, a thorough examination of the phenomenon of using BI with PN should be undertaken.

Eight types of NBI can be recognized in the present corpus:

- 1) Background Information stating the institutional position, occupation or profession of a person, an organization or a company:

Though the PN has been defined by the property of uniquely referring to an individual, still, as (3) above has demonstrated, sometimes a PN may not inform a given listener anything more than that it is referring to a person or a place. However, the use of BI (descriptor) is not restricted to less-known individuals as (4) shows:

(4) by the Home Secretary, Mr. Whitelaw ,... (RF: 01038)

a. The United States President, Ronald Reagan ... (RDE: 04742)

b. Our agricultural correspondent, Denis France reports (RF: 00836)

c. alsayid 9bd alḥaliim khadaam, naa'ib ra'iis alwuzaraa' waziir alxaarijiya (RDA: 12428)
Mr. A. Khadam, Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister

The background credential presented by the news editor to help identify a person's name and underline the person's relevance to the news, is the institutional position in all except (4b), where it is the occupation of the person concerned. The credentials are important for the weight of the news content, and particularly so if news statements are being attributed to a person as was seen in the discussion of source of Attribution in Chapter Four (4.1.3). Thus the background credential presented with a PN influence our understanding of news content (as Chapter Four has argued) in order to distinguish the degree of hedging in (9) and (9a).

(5) The [arms] dealer, Mr Michael Aspen, said ... (RF:00701)

(5a) The judge, Mr. Justice B., said ... (RF:00718)

To underline this aspect of a person, BI is typically placed before the name itself in BBC English news, but this provokes the question if it could be that the PN is informing about the BI, ie. about the institutional position. This point will be fully dealt with in (7.3.1) below.

Background Information is also used to identify the profession of an organization or an industrial company as in (10).

- (6) The independent trade union organization, Solidarity ...
(WS: 03011)

The manufacturer, Waddington ...
(RF: 00620)

2) Background Information giving an editorial description showing the newsworthiness of the person's name: The aspect of information used to introduce and highlight a person's name in this case comes as the editor's own description rather than an institutional position or a profession as in the previous case. The editorial description may reflect an actual aspect of the person (as in (7) below) or a mere evaluation of the person (as in 8 below).

- (7) One of the contenders for the Labour Party leadership, Mr Roy Hattersley ...
(RF: 01533)

- (8) President Assad of Syria, a key figure in the Middle East peace process, ...
(RF:01828)

To use the descriptor "one of the contenders for the Labour Party leadership" to identify or present Mr Roy Hattersley, is an editorial choice, since other (actual) aspects of this name (as in 9) may in different circumstances be used to identify him.

- (9) The MP for Sparkbrook, Mr Roy Hattersley, ... (constructed)
 The West Midland MP, Mr Roy Hattersley, ... (constructed)
 The ex-journalist, Mr Roy Hattersley, ... (constructed)
 The Yorkshire-born politician, Mr Roy Hattersley, ... (constructed)

The editorial description in this type of NBI (exemplified in 8 and 9 above) reflects not only the newsworthiness of the PN (actual or perceived by the editor), but it also reflects the topic of the news item. Thus 7 (above) identifies Mr Hattersley as a party candidate when the topic is the inter-party struggle with the Conservative Party; while President Assad is presented as "a key figure in the Middle East peace process ..." in a news item about his place in Middle Eastern politics. But the previous type of NBI, about institutional position (like "the Home Secretary"), can be used with a wide range of news topics, therefore, their "topic relatedness" is rather loose. Consequently, their selection as BI is not strictly determined by the topic of the news item. Meanwhile, the topic relatedness of editorial description of a person (exemplified in 7 and 8 above) puts this type of NBI near to Sentential Background Information (SBI) which is always topic-related (6.3.1).

3) Background Information showing the country of origin of a person

This is a straightforward case of informing, and the assumption behind it is the limited scope of knowledge of some news listeners. Thus some of RF listeners may well not know the country of King Hasan.

(10) King Hasan of Morocco (WS: 03235)

a. President Ceausescu of Romania (RF: 06716)

One cannot imagine radio listeners in Morocco needing to be informed about the nationality of their King. In the same way, it would be odd to have

(11) Mrs. Thatcher of Britain ...

addressed to British listeners.

Being solely motivated by a desire to inform, NBI about a person's country (as in (10) above) is not related to the topic of the news.

4) Background Information stating a personal relation

This type of BI with a PN shows either family relations (12 below) or other personal relations (13 below).

(12) Her American husband, Alfred Lunt, ... (RF: 01504)

(13) Vicker's former mistress, Pamela Collison ... (RF: 00607)

The descriptor "her American husband" about Alfred Lunt, is considered BI on the grounds that it is known to the encyclopaedic listener (see 6.2.2). While the more restricted "Vicker's former mistress" (13 above) is assumed to have occurred as a piece of news earlier on the same radio service or elsewhere.

Background Information about personal relations can be related to the news topic. Thus "Vicker's former mistress" is very relevant to the topic of Vicker's trial for murdering his wife.

5) Background Information showing the orientation of PN in relation to a process

Here "process" is understood in the Hallidayan sense of "action" or "state". This type of BI is best understood by exemplification:

- (14) Lynn Fontanne, who partnered her husband for forty years
(agent oriented) (RF: 01308)

- a. Lady Isabel Barnett, who committed suicide after being
convicted for shoplifting ... (affected oriented) (RFs: 07329)

- b. Mr Colin Dunlop, who was 30 ... (state oriented)
(RFs:07603)

In connection with the process in the relative clause in (14), Lynn Fontanne (the PN) is an agent, and the BI in the whole clause is therefore, agent oriented. In (14a), the BI in the relative clause presents what happened to Lady Barnett (the PN), and thus the BI is affected oriented (i.e. she is, in committing suicide, both "actor" and "patient" to use Halliday's terms (Halliday, 1967-8). (14b) is state oriented showing the state of Mr. Dunlop.

This type of BI shows the participant role of the PN in the event of the relative clause. However, for a relative clause to be a Background Information carrier, it has to be non-defining, ie. not necessary for successful reference to the PN. In the present frame of analysing BI, this type of BI (using relative clause) is similar to Sentential Background Information (studied in Chapter Six) in three aspects: (1) a relative clause expresses a proposition, (2)

its propositional content may appear in a sentence and (3) it is always related to the current news topic.

6) Background Information stating the location or function of a place

This type of NBI is similar to number (3), BI about country of origin of a person, in that it is primarily informative. The assumption behind using BI in the following examples (15 below) is that some listeners require some information about the place in order to achieve successful identification.

(15) ... In Fez, Morocco.

(RDE: 04823)

a. ... at Merano in Italy ...

(RF: 00812)

b. ... Bilbao in Northern Spain.

(RFs: 06723)

c. ... the town of Haider in Lebanon.

(RDE: 05903)

d. ... madiinat alxaliil fii alḡtati algarbiya ..
(the town of Hebron on the West Bank)

(AS: 14411)

e. sijni alfaarga šarq madinati nablus
(Al-Farga Prison, east of the city of Nablus)

(RDA: 14923)

In each of these examples the name of a city (except 15(e) a name of a prison site) is being identified by the use of the name of a larger place in which the smaller place is included. The name of the larger place always occurs after the small place being identified, thus, Fez, Morocco. If we move to the names of small sites in "Hyde Park, in London", they may well be accompanied by NBI. But if we move down to names of places smaller than sites, such names of buildings which usually symbolize a state as in the

case of "the Kremlin, the White House, 10 Downing Street", they are found to occur without BI. Thus,

(16) 10 Downing Street in the City of Westminster in London
(Constructed)

would seem to the British listeners of RF as odd as "Mrs Thatcher of Britain" (11 above).

If the name used with another PN is not an additional aid for the purpose of identification, but a necessary factor for defining the place, the case would not qualify for NBI. Thus in

(16) at Perth, Australia

(RF: 06433)

"Australia" is necessary for successful identification of the "Perth" being referred to as far as RF listeners are concerned, since there is a relatively more well-known (especially to RF listeners) "Perth" in Scotland.

A similar but more subtle example is found in the Arabic corpus.

(18) ... miinaa' ṭraabluṣ alwaaqi9 šamaal Lubnaan.
(Port of Tripoli in Northern Lebanon)

(AS: 15507)

Specifying Tripoli in Lebanon excludes "ṭraabluṣ algarb" (Tripoli of the West, in Lybia), but the reference to Northern Lebanon is an instance of Background Information, since there is only one Tripoli in Lebanon and the information is provided to help the listeners know its location rather than distinguish it from another Tripoli. NBI about a place may indicate the function as well as the location of the place as in (19) below.

(19) ... the Syrian capital, Damascus ...

(RF: 01832)

... the Italian capital, Rome ...

(RDE: 04605)

- 7) Background Information gives an editorial description that shows the newsworthiness of a place

This type of NBI is similar to that of number two above; the main difference is that in this case it is the newsworthiness of a place and not a person. Editorial comments about the newsworthiness of a place can be provided about very little known places as in (20).

- (20) ... the town of Faya Largau, the main military and administrative centre in Northern Chad.

(WS: 03617)

The difference between this description of Faya Largau in a war situation, and "the Italian capital" about Rome, is that the latter is institutionally decided, while the former reflects the editor's own assessment of Faya Largau's relevance to the news topic. Hence, the editor's comment is topic-related. Meanwhile, the BI about place location or function is not topic related, but institutionally decided or merely informative as has been seen earlier in (6) in this section.

Editorial descriptions of a PN are particularly interesting for the study of editor's bias, as the following example shows.

- (25) A leader of the breakaway Palestinian forces in Northern Lebanon, Mr. Ahmed Jibril, had declared that the PLO leader, Mr Yasser Arafat, is finished, now that his supporters have lost their stronghold, the Badawi refugees' camp, just outside Tripoli.

(WS: 03911)

The description of the Badami refugee camp (in Lebanon) as Arafat's "stronghold" is given from the editor's point of view, and as such it shows how the editor evaluates the seriousness of Arafat's deteriorating situation far more than the omission or addition of a personal title to his name (as has been suggested by some media studies, eg. Aston University Communication Group, see Cumberbatch et al. 1986).

8) Background Information about a publication

This name type of NBI gives information about a publication which may not be known to the listeners as in (22).

(22) the weekly news magazine, "Now" (RF: 07416)

7.2.3 NBI and given/new information

Two questions about the role of given/new information in NBI can be asked: (1) is the PN given or new information? (2) is the BI (descriptor) given or new information? New information is the new message (or element of a message), while given information has been defined as information that is "recoverable [from the text] information" (Halliday 1967,206) or alternatively information that is "part of the conceptual framework in the forefront of both speaker's and hearer's minds" (Chafe 1970:211). Let us examine the following examples of the typical and most frequent type of NBI:

(23) the Home Secretary, Mr Whitelaw, ... (RF: 01039)

the Defence Secretary, Mr Michael Heseltine, .. (RF:01704)

Since each of these examples typically occurs at the beginning of the first sentence in a news item, the Proper Name, Mr Whitelaw or Mr Heseltine cannot be recovered from previous sentences. In fact the subsequent occurrence(s) of the name will be "given" in that it is recoverable from this very first occurrence. Brown (1977:84) suggests that the first nominal occurrence in a news item is assumed known to the listeners. But as (23) above shows the PN per se is not assumed known (not to all listeners anyway) since it is being identified by the institutional position of the name bearer. In so far as an identification of the PN in the form of BI is provided, the PN in (23) is given (in the sense that it is recoverable from the text, or present in the consciousness of the listener). While the descriptor, i.e. (BI) itself, is given, or old information in Chafe's sense, ie. assumed known to the listeners (Chafe 1970:211).

In cases in which NBI about a place name uses a prepositional group as in "at Merano in Italy", the first PN "Merano" presents new information. The second name describes the first and specifies the new information by referring to known information "Italy".

Now in the following example (14) which is realized in a non-defining relative clause, the PN Lynn Fontanne is new information (first occurrence in the text).

- (18) Lynn Fontanne, who partnered her husband for forty years
(RF: 01308)

The BI, ie. the relative clause, is added information independent from the rest of the sentence. It also has its independent intonation unit.

7.2.4 NBI and predictability

The relationship between a PN and its descriptor can be viewed from the point of view of the encyclopaedic listener and thus the question of whether one of these two elements can possibly be used to predict the other becomes relevant. Predictability is a basic notion in (general) linguistics as has been attested by Sinclair (1983:111). The four of linearity, "that only one element of a structure is in the process of production at any point in the representation of utterances, spoken or written, and that succession is the only ultimate relationship of elements" (Sinclair 1983:111), is the key to a successful prediction at different levels of linguistic analysis. The linear ordering of BI and PN allows two possibilities, and in each only the first element can activate a prediction of the second.

BI followed by PN

PN followed by BI

Let us examine the following examples in which BI is followed by the PN.

- (24) the Northern Ireland Secretary, Mr James Prior, ... (RF: 00612)
- a. Vicker's former mistress, Pamela Collison, ... (RF: 00607)
- b. the Syrian capital, Damascus, ... (RF: 01832)
- c. the strategic Northern town of Faya Largau ... (WS: 03817)

For the encyclopaedic listener, BI in the first example can straightforwardly predict the PN, Mr Whitelaw. But in (24a) in

order to predict the PN, "Pamela Collison", from the BI "Vicker's former mistress", the encyclopaedic listener should use knowledge of the recent revelations about Vickers' murdering of his wife. In the third example (24b), the BI "the Syrian capital" is a fairly stable description of Damascus. But if only the location of a place is given as BI, this BI cannot occur before the PN, thus we cannot have "in Syria, Damascus", whereas we can have "Damascus, in Syria" (see (15a) Merano above).

In the fourth example, however, the description of Faya Largau as "the strategic Northern town" (in Chad) can predict the name of the town only if this information is related to the news topic (the civil war in Chad) and if this reference to Faya Largau has already been made in the news.

From the above four examples, it can be said that, when BI precedes its PN, it can be used to predict the PN provided that:

- (i) the BI uniquely describes the PN (in the circumstances of the utterance);
- (ii) the BI is stable and not topic-related (not an editorial description); but if it is topic-related, the BI should be a recent addition to the listener's knowledge (28c).

If the BI is topic-related but not uniquely describing its PN as in (25) below, no prediction is possible.

- (29) one of the contenders for the Labour Party leadership, Mr Roy Hattersley, ...

(RF: 01533)

Any of the other contenders can possibly occur after the descriptor (BI) in this case.

If the order of BI/PN is reversed and the PN occurs first, the prediction of the second element becomes less certain and depends on the stability of the relationship between the two elements or the lexical relation between them. Thus if the order of NBI elements is reversed in (24), Mr Prior cannot predict the Northern Ireland secretary unless the news topic is known, since, as previously observed, Mr Prior can alternatively be described as

(26) Mr Prior, the Tory rebel of Ulster

Mr Prior, the ex-Social Services Secretary
(constructed)
etc.

But in cases when BI is describing personal relations the PN cannot predict the BI even if the news topic is known. Thus "Pamela Collison" would not necessarily predict "Vickers' former mistress". The place name "Damascus" (in 24b) may well predict the capital of Syria; while "Faya Lergau" (in 24c) would hardly predict "the strategic Northern town of Chad" since the latter is an editorial description rather than a fixed institutional function. Where only the location of a place is concerned, the PN can also predict the location as "in Merano in Italy" (1a).

The nationality of a person can also be predicted from the PN if it precedes. Thus "President Ceausescu" will predict "of Romania" (see 14a above). A third case in which the PN must precede its descriptor is the BI about orientation as in

- (18) Lynn Fontanne, who partnered her husband for 40 years,...
(RF: 01308)

However unlike the location of a place or the nationality of a person, orientation of a PN cannot be predicted from it since many things done by Lynn Fontanne could have followed her name in (14) above.

To conclude this brief discussion of predictability of the second element in NBI, it can be said that if the BI occurs first, successful prediction of the PN is relatively high (as (24) above shows). If the PN precedes, and in three types exemplified above, this position is obligatory, it cannot predict the BI, except in the case where the BI is institutionally decided.

7.3 Formal characteristics of Nominal Background Information (NBI)

Upon examining the grammatical constituents of Nominal Background Information (NBI), we find that it is realized in two elements: (1) PN, and (2) a nominal group. The grammatical relations between the PN and the nominal group are realized in four grammatical structures all of which are nominal groups. These are:

- (1) PN and BI in apposition relation
- (2) PN and a non-defining relative clause
- (3) PN and a prepositional group
- (4) PN as head of genitive "of construction"

The present section examines each of these four structures in turn.

7.3.1 PN and BI in appositive relation

This structure is not only the most frequent case of Nominal Background Information (NBI) (as will be seen later 7.4) but also constitutes a prominent feature of radio news style which has been observed by researchers who have worked on this variety of language. Tomori (1978), for instance, considers this structure an apposition and points out that "structures of apposition of the form the + N + N are used a good deal, as in the following examples, "The former President, Mr. Macemba Debat is being interrogated ..." (Tomori 1978, 177). The question which has not been addressed yet is the following: on what ground can we take "*The Defence Secretary*", the first nominal group in (27) below (which is the subject) to be BI, while we consider the (grammatical) appositive (ie. the PN) to be the main element of information? In other words, could the PN (appositive) be BI to the subject (the institutional position)?

(27) ... the Defence Secretary, Mr Heseltine, cut short a
visit ...

(RF:01721)

In the other three structures realizing NBI, the PN is the main grammatical constituent' and the BI element amounts to a minor grammatical constituent. But in (27) above the PN "Mr Heseltine" is what Quirk et al call a "full apposition" to the BI element "the Defence Secretary", and thus, it can grammatically function as a subject in (27). This equal grammatical status of the two elements, PN and the other nominal group, is reinforced by the assignment of an independent intonation unit to the PN.

The Defence Secretary, Mr Heseltine ...

But for obtaining a better idea as to which of the two referring elements in cases such as (27) above is (informationally at least) primary, one has to look at the subsequent occurrence(s) of these elements in the discourse (ie. in sentences after the one including the first occurrence of the referring element). Let us examine the expansion of the news item in which (27) occurs.

- (28) ... the Defence Secretary, Mr Heseltine, cut short a visit to Aldershot and returned to London during the morning for a meeting with the Prime Minister. Then, this afternoon, in his statement to the Commons, he confirmed that the
- 5 Cruise missiles were at Greenham Common. Mr Heseltine said their arrival did not lessen NATO's commitment to reach agreement with the Soviet Union on arms control, and the Government hoped that Moscow would not respond positively to the proposals put forward by the West. Mr
- 10 Heseltine's statement met scepticism and criticism from the opposition, and he was accused of being McCarthyite.
- (RF: 01721)

The first two anaphorical references after the appositive structure use pronouns (lines 3 and 4 above), and they are ambiguous with regard to whether they refer linguistically to "the Defence Secretary" as to "Mr Heseltine". In the two following anaphorical references, however, it is the PN which is used, which shows clearly that the maintenance of this reference in the news discourse is primarily carried out by the person (ie. PN) who is introduced in his/her institutional capacity in the first place. Sometimes (as in extended news items), though, the full appositive structure is repeated, eg. reporting the budget's statement where after eight occurrences of the PN, this PN is repeated together with its descriptor. This repetition is to be understood as a feature of radio news in which the editor can not see or get feedback from the

listeners (cf. the repetition of medial discourse organizing elements (3.3.2 above).

The use of institutional position followed by PN in a full appositive structure is very regular in BBC English radio news, a regularity which is not found in English newspapers' reports or in Arabic radio news. Upon examining 19,000 words of front page reports in major English newspapers, we found that when using full appositive structure with PNs, unlike radio news, in the majority of cases (70%) the PN precedes and the BI nominal group follows (Table 22 below). Giving prominence to person names by putting them before their institutional or professional position confirms the personal focus of news reporting in newspapers' style, and the image of the BBC as an institutional rather than a personal voice.

NEWSPAPER	DATE OF ISSUE	NO OF WORDS	NO OF OCCURRENCES OF PROPER NAMES WITHOUT BI	PN/BI PN FIRST	BI/PN BI FIRST
The Guardian first-page articles	24.8/28.8) 31.8/8.9 1984	10470	83	59	21
The Times first page articles	3.9/5.9 1984	5840	49 1	45	12
TOTALS		16310	132	104	33

Table (22): The Frequency of person names with and without BI and the order of PN/BI in English newspaper first-page articles

In the Arabic data, the PN in the appositive structure under discussion occurs before or after its BI nominal group in a fairly random fashion. This is true of both RDA and the AS news. But more significant is the presence of this random ordering of PN/BI in RD

English news, which seems to result from direct translation of the Arabic structure.

Other than the difference in ordering the PN and the BI in this structure, English and Arabic reveal differences inside the constituents of each of these two elements. Arabic allows the use of more than one title before a PN. Thus we find (29):

(33) alssayid alra'iis ḥaafiz assad ...
(Mr President Hafiz Assad) (RDA: 16405)

alsayid alduktuur abd alra'uuf alkasm ...
(Mr. Dr. Abd Alrauf Alkarm) (RDA: 15912)

English does not allow these titles to be combined (cf. Mr. Justice B. (5a) above when the title and profession are combined), and therefore they are not found in either BBC or RD English news translation.

Within the BI nominal group, Arabic uses compound nominals to express multiple institutional positions when applicable to the same name bearer. Thus we find,

(30) alsayid abd alḥaliim xadaam, naa'ib ra'iis majlis
Mr. Abd Al-Halim Khadam, deputy Prime
alwuzeraa', waziir al xaarijiya, ...
Minister, the Foreign Minister,... (RDA: 12428)

As in the case of lengthy and repetitive greetings (which we saw in Opening Discourse Organizing Elements (3.3.1), lengthy status indicators and titles are accepted in Arabic. What is to be noticed here is that sometimes they are translated literally in English.

7.3.2 BI as a non-defining relative clause and PN

As far as reference is concerned, the defining relative clause and its antecedent belong to one referring element. Now because a PN can on its own right uniquely refer (as part of its definition), a relative clause after a PN is often non-defining, and thus it is used to add information about the PN. In a sentence containing a PN followed by a non-defining clause, it is the PN, and not the relative clause, which is the grammatical element that functions in relation to the rest of the sentence (Lady Barnett is a subject in 31).

- (31) Lady Isobel Barnett, who committed suicide after being convicted for shoplifting, left almost half a million pounds in her will, ...

(RFs: 07329)

Since grammatically the PN does not depend on the non-defining relative clause in cases such as (31), and since the clause provides extra information about the PN, the debate concerning the status of this type of relative clause (whether it is in a relation of subordination or coordination with its antecedent, ie. the PN) is irrelevant to the present discussion.

The treatment of non-defining relative clause with PN as a provider of Background Information is supported by textual evidence. This evidence takes the form of the use of the non-defining relative clause with a PN, in a summary version of a news item, and the same propositional content in a full sentence (Sentential Background Information) in the expansion of the same news item.

- (36) The actor, Raymond Massey, has died. So has Lynn Fontanne, who partnered her American husband, Alfred Lunt, on the

stage, for forty years.

(Summary, RF: 01308)

And English-born actress, Lynn Fontanne, has died at her home in Wisconsin. (...) For more than forty years, she and her American husband, Alfred Lunt, were a theatrical partnership famous on both sides of the Atlantic. (...)

(expansion, RF: 01501)

Thus the use of non-defining relative clause as a Background Information carrier is a way of presenting this information within a sentence rather than in a complete sentence. In this sense the relative clause expressing BI is a middle case of structural realization of BI between Nominal Background Information (i.e. a nominal group) and Sentential Background Information (a complete sentence). This shows that by being realized in different grammatical structures, the phenomenon of providing Background Information reflects on textual function.

7.3.3 BI as prepositional group and PN

The use of BI in the form of a prepositional group amounts to a straightforward case of qualification of the PN, with the latter acting as head for the prepositional nominal group. Thus, in the typical example,

(15a above) ... Merano in Italy

"Merano" is the head for "in Italy". "Merano", the PN presents the information, while "in Italy", a mere-addition, qualifies it. In both Arabic and English the prepositional group follows the PN it qualifies. The prepositional group is, moreover, used as BI only in conjunction with place names, to help locate a place.

7.3.4 PN and BI in "of-construction"

"Of-construction" is used only in English while Arabic would use an adjective instead. We saw earlier that "of-construction" is used to provide information about a person's nationality (7.2.2 (3)) or the location of a place (7.2.2(6)).

(33) ... President Ceausescu of Romania

(RFs:06716)

In "of-construction", which is a kind of genitive (Jespersen, 1961:308-320; Quirk et al, 1985:327), the ordering of PN/BI is grammatically determined; in (33) the person name should precede. Thus when PN/BI are realized in "of construction", the person's name precedes "of" and therefore can predict the country of origin of the person, and the BI does not predict the PN (see 7.2.4 for prediction).

7.4 The frequency of PNs and NBI in the corpus

It can impressionistically be observed that PNs, with and without BI, are frequent in news discourse; after all, news events are taking place in specific locations, and involve human agents. However, it is desirable to know the frequency of different kinds of PNs and NBI. This quantification will enable us to discover any relationship(s) that exist between kinds of PNs and NBI, and the presence of any similarities or discrepancies in the amount of NBI in different groups of news texts in the corpus.

7.4.1 The frequency of PNs in the corpus

In counting the frequency of PNs in the corpus, we use the classification of PNs presented earlier in this Chapter (7.1).

Table 23 below shows the frequency of kinds of PNs (columns 1-4), the total frequency of PNs (column 5) and total frequency of NBI (column 6).

Table (23)

Columns 1-5: The frequency of different kinds of proper names without Background Information

Column 6: The frequency of proper names with background information

Broad-casting Service	No of Words	1 Person Name No per 100 words	2 Place Name No per 100 words	3 Date Name No per 100 words	4 Other Name No per 100 words	5 Total of Names without BI No per 100 words	Names with BI
BBC RF	8780	43 0.48	206 2.34	8 0.09	82 0.93	339 3.86	111 1.26
BBC WS	5600	24 0.42	336 6.00	14 0.25	54 0.96	428 7.64	52 0.92
RDE	6960	9 0.13	408 5.69	7 0.10	104 1.49	528 7.58	71 1.02
BBC RFs	7840	63 0.80	277 3.53	24 0.30	82 1.04	446 5.68	90 1.14
RDA	4930	16 0.32	307 6.22	5 0.10	68 1.37	396 8.03	64 1.29
BBC AS	4610	20 0.43	305 6.61	6 0.13	61 1.39	392 8.50	56 1.21
TOTAL	38720	175 0.45	1839 4.74	64 0.16	451 1.16	2529 6.53	441 1.14

The first and most important thing to notice in Table (23) above is the impressive total frequency of PNs and NBI: overall average of 6.53% PNs (ie. about seven occurrences of PNs in a hundred words) and an overall average of 1.14% NBI (ie. more than one occurrence of NBI in a hundred words). The question now is: what is the kind of PN

that is used more than others, and to what extent does each of the six groups of texts in the corpus use different kinds of PNs? A look at the bottom line of Table (23) above shows that place names (column 2) are by far the most frequent (overall average of 4.75%, about five occurrences in a hundred words), followed by "other names" (overall percentage of (1.16%) in a hundred words) and person names (overall percentage of (0.45%), less than one occurrence in a hundred words) and finally "date names" occur only (0.35%) of words. This means that about two thirds of the total occurrences of PNs without BI are place names, while only one in seven is a person name.

Now examining the frequency of each kind of PN in all six groups of texts in the corpus, we find that, except for place names (Table (23), column 2), the variation in percentage of occurrence of PNs in different groups of text is relatively small. Thus, the lowest percentage of using person names is found in the RDE (0.13% of words) and the highest is in RFs (0.80% of words). In using "other names" the lowest frequency is in RF (0.93% of words) and the highest in RDE (1.49% of words). The lowest frequency of "date name" is in RF (0.09% of words) and the highest in RFs (0.30% of words). However, the variation in the frequency of place names is big: lowest in RF (2.34%) and RFs (3.53%), and considerably higher in other groups, RDE (5.69%), WS (6.00%), RDA (6.22%) and AS (6.61%). Thus in addition to being the overwhelming majority of PNs, place names vary considerably in frequency between RF and RFs on the one hand and the other four groups on the other hand.

A third interesting observation that relates to the previous two points is seen in the percentages of occurrence of NBI (Table (23), column 6). Here we notice the occurrence of relatively low percentages (with small variation) in four groups: RFs (1.14%), AS (1.21%), RF (1.26%), and RDA (1.29%). While the lowest frequency of NBI is in WS (0.92%) followed by RDE (1.02%). The question at this point is whether there exists any relationship between the above three observations: (1) the high and fluctuating percentages of place names (2) the low frequency of person names in WS (and RDE), and (3) the decrease in using NBI in the WS. For a satisfactory answer we have to see the frequency of different types of NBI, and ultimately the kinds of PNs that tend to take BI more than others, in the six groups of texts.

7.4.2 The frequency of different types of NBI in the corpus

Table (24) below shows the frequency of occurrence of the eight types of NBI distinguished earlier in this Chapter (7.2.2). Here again the interesting features to look at are (1) the most frequently used types of NBI, and (2) the amount of variation in using NBI in the six groups of texts in the restricted corpus.

Table (24), column 1 reveals that the frequency of NBI about the institutional position or profession of a person, an organization or a company exceeds any other type of NBI (about two thirds of the overall average of NBI, Table (24) column 9). To be more specific, the number of occurrences of NBI with name of organization stands at 30 and with a name of company stands at 4, leaving 257 occurrences (0.70% out of 0.75% of words) of NBI about institutional position or

profession with person names. In fact other types of NBI occurring with person names are found in columns 2-5, Table (24) above, and they amount to 63 occurrences. The second highest frequency of NBI provides BI about the location or function of a place (column 6, Table (24)) and amounts to 83 occurrences (0.21%) of the total number of words.

(Table 24)
Frequency of occurrences of different types of NBI

Service	Position/occupation of a person, company or organization	BI description of a person's name	BI person's country of origin	BI personal relation	BI orientation of an action	BI location or function of a place	BI newsworthiness of a place	publication	total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
BBC 8780	66	0.75	6	0.06	4	0.04	9	0.10	111	1.26
BBC 5600	33	0.58	3	0.05	3	0.05	0	0	52	0.92
RBC 6960	43	0.61	7	0.10	1	0.01	2	0.02	71	1.02
BBC HP's short summary 7840	56	0.71	9	0.11	1	0.01	0	0	90	1.14
RDA 4930	59	1.19	4	0.08	0	0	0	0	64	1.29
BBC AS 4610	34	0.73	2	0.04	2	0.04	0	0	56	1.21
Total 38720	291	0.75	31	0.08	11	0.02	11	0.02	444	1.14

Now looking at the variation in frequency of NBI in different groups of texts, we find a number of important relationships. Firstly, the lowest frequency of BI with person name (column 1, Table 24) occur in WS (0.58%) and RDE (0.61%) of words the same two groups with lowest frequency of person name (see column 1, Table 23). Secondly, out of the second highest frequent type of NBI, BI about the location or function of a place (column 6, Table 24), the WS uses the second lowest frequency of NBI of this type (0.16% of the total number of words). If above two points are combined with the frequency of PNs in the WS (Table 23 above), we discover that because person name is lowest in frequency in this group, it results in the lowest percentage of BI with person name (column 1, Table (24)), and we discover that in spite of the high percentage of place name in the WS, it does not use high percentage of BI with this place name. The low percentage of person name (with and without BI) and the low percentage of BI with place name in the WS produces the lowest frequency of NBI. In RDE where person name (with and without BI) is second lowest in frequency, the frequency of BI with place name is relatively high, and thus the total percentage of NBI is higher than that of the WS (RDE:1.02%, WS:0.92% of words).

The low percentage of NBI resulting from low occurrence percentage of person name in the WS, is well understood if a typical reference to a source of information is cited.

- (34) A United Nations spokesman has said that
 Israel and Syria have announced that they have argued ...
 (WS: 03125)

- a. The United States has said that its special Middle East envoy Mr Philip Habib is to return ...

(WS: 03117)

As these examples show, in the WS typically the source of information is not a person while other groups of texts use a person as a source of information, using a high percentage of person name with and without BI. Being presented to an international listenership, the WS news is presented from the viewpoint of countries (as was seen with the source of attribution of WS news statements 5.3.2 above). This explanation is supported by the highest frequency of names of country in the WS (Table 1, Appendix 4, vol. Two) and also by the fact that BI with person name is lowest in this service.

A final comment about the use of NBI about a person's institutional position or profession concerns RDA and RF. RDA uses NBI about institutional position or profession more than any other group of text (1.19%) followed by RF (0.75% of words) (Column 1, Table 24). Meanwhile RDA uses very low frequency of NBI about the location or function of a place, a mere (0.02% of words), compared with (0.22% of words) in RF (Column 6, Table 24). It should be said here that RF has a unique use of NBI to introduce its own correspondent as in

- (35) our agricultural correspondent, Denis France

(RF: 00836)

Utterances like (35) have been studied as Medial Discourse Organizing Elements (MDOEs) in Chapter Three. What concerns us here is the use of BI with the PN.

7.4.3 The frequency of NBI in translated texts in the corpus

Having seen that RDA uses a high percentage of NBI about person position or profession and a low percentage of NBI about place location or function (Table (24) above) and having seen that RF uses an average frequency of NBI about person position or profession and an average percentage of NBI about place location or function, we should ask now how the frequency of using NBI fares in translated texts.

Upon examining the frequency of these two types of NBI in RDE, which is translated from Arabic, we discover a drastic differences. NBI about person position or profession occurs only 0.61% of words, only half the figure in RDA news (column 1, Table (24)). Looking back at RDE figures of PNs (Table (23), above), we find that the frequency of PNs in RDE is also low. Thus the translated text can be said to be less about personalities. But the second important shift in RDE is seen with the use of NBI about place location or function from a mere 0.02% of words in RDA to 0.27% of words in RDE translated text (Column 6, Table 24). This is another area of adjustment to suit the (foreign) listener.

Arabic texts from the AS are translated from English texts specially prepared for this service, and show interesting differences from the RF English news concerning the two types of NBI under discussion. The AS uses NBI about person institutional position or profession nearly in the same percentage as RF

(AS:0.73%, RF:0.75% of words). But in the study of Attribution, it was found that AS news is highly personalized and uses relatively high frequency of Institutional Voice Attribution (5.3.2). Why this high frequency in AS texts is not reflected in a high frequency of NBI about person position is explained by taking into account the AS typical practice of not mentioning the name of their correspondents referring to them by the area of the world they cover as in

(36) muraasilun lihay'ati al'ithaa9a alibriiṭaaniya
 our correspondent for the BBC in
 fii alṣarq al'awsat
 the Middle East)

(AS: 12317)

The effect of this use is to reduce the amount of NBI about person name in the Arabic translated, an amount which would otherwise be fairly high.

However, the percentage of NBI about place location or function increases in the translated AS news text (RF:0.22% of words; AS:36% of words) (Column 6, Table 24). This means that the translator is taking account of the vast spread of the listeners to the AS.

It was seen in Chapter Three (3.3.1 (iii)) that the translation of Discourse Organization Elements may bring strange results such as the repetition of greetings in RDE and lengthy classical greetings from the AS. It was seen earlier in this Chapter that RDE translation of BI about a person's institutional position may produce lengthy strings as in

- (37) ... Dr Muhsen Belal, the Chairman of the foreign relations committee of the Syrian People's Assembly,...
(RDE: 05036)

Still when it comes to providing BI about a place both AS and RDE adjust for the need of foreign listenership. RDE, moreover, adjusts to international audience by reducing the frequency of person names, and NBI about person position or occupation, a tendency which is confirmed by the use of fewer PNs with and without BI in the WS, which addresses a world-wide audience (see 7.4.3 above).

7.5 Nominal Background Information (NBI) in the overall structure of Radio News Discourse

This section discusses the distribution of Proper Names (PNs) and Nominal Background Information (NBI) in the overall structure of Radio News Discourse (RND). In Chapter Three we saw that Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) function primarily as organizational elements that signal the different stages of news discourse. As such DOEs enables us to delimit the main units of news discourse (See 3.4.1.2). In Chapter Five, it was shown that Attribution is first and foremost a function of news "details", since it tends to resist the summary and topic introduction position. In Chapter Six it was seen that Sentential Background Information (SBI) is also a function of news "details". The question here is: how does NBI fare in this respect? and has it anything to teach us about the major units of news discourse structure, and their interaction in as far as the distribution of this function is concerned?

7.5.1 NBI in the summary of RND

In order to study the distribution of PNs and NBI in different units of news discourse, the frequency of these elements in the summary (as a unit of news discourse, see 3.4.1.2) can be compared with the overall frequency of these elements (presented and discussed in 7.4 above). The percentages of PNs in news summary is presented in columns 1-5, Table 25 below, and the percentages of NBI in column 6, Table 25 below. The total percentage of using PNs in news summary (column 5, Table (25)) is relatively higher in every group of texts in the corpus than the respective percentages for the whole texts. The frequency of PNs in news summary is particularly high in RDA 13.4% of words compared with almost half this figure for the full texts of the same group (8.03% of words, column 5, Table (23) above).

Moreover, the percentages of NBI in news summary are, with the exception of the WS and RDE, higher than those of the full texts. Again it is noticed that RDA, the biggest user of PNs in the summary turns out to be the biggest user of NBI in the summary: 2.20% of

Table (25): The frequency of PNs and NBI in news summary

Broad-casting Service	No of Words	1 Person Name No per 100 words	2 Place Name No per 100 words	3 Date Name No per 100 words	4 Other Name No per 100 words	5 Total of Names without BI No per 100 words	Names with BI No % of words
BBC RF	654	5 0.76	21 3.32	1 0.15	7 1.07	34 5.19	9 1.37
BBC WS	424	0 0	37 8.72	0 0	2 0.47	39 9.19	3 0.47
RDE	818	0 0	57 6.96	0 0	8 0.97	65 7.94	8 0.97
RDA	408	7 1.71	34 8.75	0 0	14 3.43	55 13.48	9 2.20
BBC AS	377	5 1.32	28 7.42	1 0.26	3 0.79	37 9.81	7 1.85
TOTAL	2681	17 0.63	177 6.60	2 0.07	34 1.26	230 8.57	35 1.30

words of the words in the summary, compared with almost half this figure (1.29% of the total number of words) in the full texts. These two observations, about the frequency of PNs and NBI in news summary suggest some relationships, not only between news summary and news expansion, but also between certain groups of texts in the corpus. In the following paragraphs these relationships will be discussed.

Let us first examine some examples of using PNs and NBI in news summary;

- (38) India is sending a ship to Sri Lanka to move some of the Tamils in riot area to the north of the island. Three left-wing parties in Sri Lanka have been banned.

It has been the hottest July of the century. And today's heat-wave has brought long queues of traffic on the road, particularly in the West Country.

The actor Raymond Massey has died. So has Lynn Fontanne, who partnered her husband, Alfred Lunt, on the stage for forty years. A doctor from Salford, who was one of the large group of tourists taken ill in Soviet Central Asia, has died in hospital in Leningrad.

(RF: 01308)

In this typical example from an RF news summary of 103 words, the use of PNs and NBI is proportionally higher than the full texts figures in Table (23) and even slightly higher than the percentage of PNs and NBI in the summaries of the five texts of RF. (38) above has eight occurrences of PNs (6 place names and one date name) compared with the percentage of 5.19% of words in the summaries of the five texts in the corpus. We also find two cases of person name with BI are also found in (38) above, which is higher than the percentage for the full texts in (38) above, which is higher than the percentage for the full texts of RF: (1.26% of words in the full texts and 2% in this example). However, the difference between percentages of NBI in summary and full texts is not large (1.26% of words in full text (Table 23) and 1.37% in summary (Table 25)).

A second example of the use of PNs and NBI in news summary is chosen from WS.

- (39) West Germany has signed an agreement with thousands of millions of dollars to buy piped gas from the Soviet Union.

In Poland, Solidarity has withdrawn its demands for an independent body to be set up to monitor economic policies.

Six whites have been arrested in Zimbabwe accused of plotting to endanger the security of the state.

Nigeria is reported to be ready to send troops into Chad, without waiting for joint action by the O.A.U. (WS: 02919)

In this typical WS news summary of 76 words, eight instances of PNs are used (the percentage for the five texts being 9.19% of words for the summary and 7.64% of words for the full texts, Table 25 and 23 respectively). No NBI appears in (39), which is also typical of the very low percentage of NBI in the WS news summary in particular and the news as a whole (0.47% of words in the summary and 0.92% in the full texts (Table 25 and 23 respectively)). Thus WS news summary uses more PNs and less NBI than its expansion.

A third example is taken from RDA, and it shows a big discrepancy between summary and expansion in the use of PNs and NBI. This news summary from RDA uses 62 words and has 6 occurrences of PNs without BI (2 place names, and one name of a political group) and 3 occurrences of NBI. This reflects the comparatively high frequency of PNs and NBI in RDA news summary (PNs 13.48% and NBI 2.20% of words). These figures from RDA news summary amount to almost double the percentages of PNs and NBI in full text of this service, a fact which represents an extreme case of intensifying the use of PNs and NBI (and thus the identification of persons, places and other names) in radio news summary.

- (40) wafdu aljam9iya al9arabiya al'amriikiya yaşilu
The delegation of the Arab-American Society arrives
alyawn 'ilaa dimaşq bida9watin
in Damascus today at
mina alqiyaada alqawmiya lilhizb.

the invitation of the National leadership of the party.
 alra'iis allubnaanii 'ilyaas sarkiis yatasalam risaala
 The Lebanese President, Elias Sherkis, has received
 mina alra'iis alsuuvyitii, lyuuniid briijiiniv.
 a message from the Soviet President Leonard Brezhnev.
 alra'iis al'almaanii aldiimuqraatii, 'iliitš huunikaar,
 The German Democratic president, Erich Honecker,
 yu'akid ta'yiida bilaadih alθaabit lilqaḍiya al9aadila
 stresses the support of his country to the just cause
 lilša9b al9arabii alfalasṭiinii.
 of the Arab Palestinian people.
 ḥamlatu altahdiidaat allatii tuwaajihuhaa kuubaa min
 The threats campaign launched by the United States of
 qibal alwilaayaat almutaḥida
 America against Cuba
 al'amriikiya talqaa al'istinkaar fii jamii9 'anhaa'
 al9aalam.
 is condemned all over the world.
 bad'u almubaahaθaat alfaransiya alyuuguuslaaviya 9alaa
 French-Yugoslav discussions, at foreign ministerial level
 mustawaa wuzaraa' alxaarijiya fii balgraad alyawm.
 starts in Belgrade today.

(RDA: 11610)

Now we move to examine the relationship between news summary percentages that show a marked increase in PNs and then increase or decrease in NBI, and the preference of certain kinds of PNs or NBI. It was seen earlier that the WS uses fewer person names than any other group and more place names than most groups, the thing that results in less NBI, since the biggest user of NBI is the person name. In the summary, the WS increases the use of place name and by contrast does not use any person name (0% person name in summary (Table 25 compared with 0.42% of words person name in the full text). This reasserts the earlier explanation that the drop of frequency of NBI in the WS is due to the drop in person name, a tendency which is intensified in the summary.

In discussing the overall frequency of PNs and NBI in RDE, it was seen that this group of texts is the lowest user of person name, and

that though its use of NBI with place name increases the overall percentage of NBI, still NBI in RDE remains second lowest after the WS (Table (23) above). In the summary, like WS, RDE does not use person name without BI (0% in the summary and 0.13% of words in the full text), a fact which results in a slight drop in the percentage of the NBI in the news summary of RDE, in spite of the increase in frequency of place names in the summary (from 5.69% of words in full text to 6.96% of words in the summary). As in the case of the WS, RDE news summary takes the tendency of the full text a step further, by using fewer person names, more place names and less NBI.

Three points summarize the discussion of NBI in news summary:

- 1) The news summary uses more PNs than the full text in all six groups of texts in the corpus, while it uses more NBI in all but two, the WS and RDE.
- 2) In these two cases the drop of NBI is accounted for by a drop in the number of person names.
- 3) The increase in frequency of NBI (big as in RDA, or slight as in RF) is due to the increase in person name.

7.5.2 NBI in the expansion of RND

In the above examination of news summary, it was found that it uses more PNs and, in all but two groups, more NBI than does the expansion. This finding means that news expansion resorts to the use of PNs and NBI less than the full text (allowing for the two exceptions), and moreover, it would still use them far less than the

summary. Now we shall examine the use of PNs and NBI in news expansion to try and see what determines the drop of their frequency in this unit of news discourse. We shall also see if any regularities in their structural positioning is found, and if they can be used for predicting the (structural) occurrence of NBI in the expansion.

Let us examine the occurrence of PNs and NBI in news expansion in order to compare their use here with the tendency of using them intensively in news summary. Here is an example of news item, the summary of which has been discussed earlier (38 above); underlined are the occurrences of PNs and following references to them.

- (41) [The actor Raymond Massey has died.] So has Lynn Fontanne, who partnered her husband, Alfred Lunt, on the stage for forty years. (RF:01308)
An English born actress, Lynn Fontanne, has died in her home in Wisconsin. She was ninety-five and had been suffering from pneumonia for several weeks. For more than forty years, she and her American husband, Alfred Lunt, were a theatrical partnership famous on both sides of the Atlantic. The Lunts, as they were always called, were ideally matched. Hers was a robust-down-to-earth quality sitting on her sophisticated brilliance. Lynn Fontanne was born at Woodford in Essex, the daughter of a Frenchman who ran a printing business. She made her first stage appearance in Vaudeville pantomime in 1903. In 1916 she went to the United States when she met Alfred Lunt. They were married 'in 1922, and from that time onwards their careers were inseparable. After they retired from the stage in 1948, the Broadway Theatre was name "the Lunt Fontanne" in their honour. In 1964, President Lyndon Johnson awarded the couple the Presidential Medal of Freedom.

(RF:01501)

As in the summary, the first reference to Lynn Fontanne in the expansion is presented with BI, though of a different type. The

first sentence is the topic introduction, more or less a repetition of the information in the summary (3.4.1.3 for topic introduction). The second sentence starts "the details" of this item and contains the name of the husband which upon this first mention in the expansion is presented with BI about his relation to Lynn Fontanne, "her American husband". The interesting thing to notice is the use of the pronoun "she" and "her" in the three subsequent references to Lynn Fontanne, which has two implications for the use of PNs and NBI in the "details" of news discourse. Firstly, because the person has already been identified, the repetition of the same BI would be superfluous and odd; thus BI is primarily a function that is assigned to the first occurrence of person name. Secondly, because it is more appropriate to use the pronoun in order to produce a cohesive text, the person name is substituted by the suitable pronoun form after the first occurrence of the name.

The fifth reference to Lynn Fontanne uses her name again, followed by two references using the pronoun "she" and two references using the pronoun "they" in reference to her and her husband, and one reference uses the lexical item "the couple" to refer to them. Thus necessarily for communicative purposes, the first occurrence of a name (often in the summary and topic introduction) is accompanied by BI. But in the "details", the suitable pronoun form is used as a way to achieve textual cohesion, (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), this explains the low frequency of NBI and PNs in the expansion.

It should be noticed, however, that the person name that has already been "introduced" with BI may be repeated on its own in the "details" and that a place name that appears in the "details" for the first time may also be "introduced" with BI about its location or function. Thus though the details use cohesive ties with the person name already presented in summary or topic introduction (Halliday and Hasan 1976:3), it may, if the details are long enough, repeat the name. In the case of names that occur for the first time in the "details", they may take BI.

Now let us examine the following example from the WS, which typically uses high frequency of place names.

- (42) West Germany has signed an agreement worth thousands of millions of dollars to buy piped gas from the Soviet Union.

WS:02919)

A West German company has signed a contract with the Soviet Union to buy natural gas piped from Siberia in one of the biggest trade agreements between the Soviet block and the West. The company said the contract for the delivery of ten and a half thousand million cubic metres of gas a year for twenty-five years would start in 1984. The BBC Bonn correspondent says there are also signs that the Soviet Union wants to co-operate with West Germany in nuclear energy research. He said this was hinted at in a recent visit to Moscow by the premier of West Germany. The gas deal worth thousands of millions of dollars, follows lengthy negotiations with West European companies and banks for the construction of the Siberian pipe-line. It will stretch ten thousands of miles from Northern Siberia to Ushlosovall, on the West German border, and the gas will be supplied to France, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria and Holland. The United States has voiced its concern over the project, alleging that it will make Western Europeans dependent on Soviet energy supply.

(WS: 02927)

Two occurrences of place name in the summary and 14 in the expansion with 6 adjectives derived from place names reinforce the earlier point about fewer names in this group of texts. This group also

uses less NBI than the others, less than one in a hundred words in the full text (one occurrence of NBI in about 170 words in (42) above). The summary, which has a specially low percentage of NBI (see Table 25, column 6) has no NBI in (39) above. The one instance of NBI (with the name of a city) in the "details" for the first and only time in the text. But it is noticeable that the text uses a particularly high number of place names and many of them are repeated, eg. 4 occurrences of "the Soviet Union" and 2 "Soviet" as an adjective. This repetition is necessary because when a number of place names are already mentioned, the use of the pronoun "it" in reference to one of them would result in ambiguity. In (42) above, the number of place names is also increased by the reference, for the first time, to six countries and one German city in the last two sentences. However, the main point of this example remains valid: the frequency of NBI is comparatively low in the full text of the WS, but it is exceptionally lower than the summary. Now because NBI occurs with the first occurrence of the name, it means that first occurrences of NBI are more frequent in the "details" than in the summary or topic introduction.

- (43) alra'iis al'almaanii aldiimuqraaṭii iilitš huniikaar,
The German Democratic president, Erich Honecker
yu'iakidu ta'yiide
stresses the support
- 5 bilaadihi alṡaabit lilqaḍiya alṡaadila lilṡa9b
of his country to the just cause of the
alṡarabii alfaṡṡiini
of the Arab Palestinian people. (RDA: 11614)
barliin
- 10 Berlin
'akada 'iriis huunikaar, al'amiinu alṡaam lialajna
President Honecker, the General Secretary of the
almarkaziya lilḥizb al'iṡtiraakii
Central Committee of the United Socialist
al'almaanii almuwaḥad ra'iis majlis aldawla fii

15 German party and the head of the state
 'almaanya aldiimutraaṭiya, 'akada
 German Democratic Republic, stressed
 ta'yiida bilaadihi alṯaabit lilqaḍiya al9aadila
 20 his country's constant support for
 lilṣa9b alfalastiinii. wa qaal
 the just cause of the Palestinian people.
 'anna alniḍaala albaasil lihaathaa alṣaa9b min 'ajli
 He said that the courageous struggle of this people
 25 huquuqihi alṯaabita yajidu
 for its right receives
 alta9aaṭufa wa al'iḥtiraam fii al9aalami kulih.
 the sympathy and respect of the whole world.
 wa aḍaafa alra'iis huuniikaar
 30 President Honecker added
 fii al'ijtimaa9i alṯaaliṯ lillajna almaraziya lilḥizb
 in the third meeting of the Central Committee of
 'anna bilaadahu ta9mal biḥazm
 the party, that his country works
 35 min 'ajli altawaṣul 'ilaa taswiya silmiya 9aadila wa
 hard for just and peaceful settlement
 ṣaamila fii mantiqati alṣriq
 in the Middle East.
 al'awsaṭ, wa 'annahu naḍaran liltaḥaaluf almakṣuuf
 40 and that vecuase of the exposed alliance between
 bayna alwilaayaat almutaḥida
 the US
 wa 'israa'iil fa'inna wiḥdata wa talaahum alduwal
 and Israel the Unity and alignment of all
 45 al9arabiya wa kaafata alqiwa
 Arab countries and
 alwaṭaniya yataxithaani 'ahamiyatan xaaṣa.
 nationalistic forces assume a special importance.
 (RDA: 11715)

There is one occurrence of NBI, with person name, and one PN
 (adjective from a country) in the summary. These two recur in the
 first sentence of the expansion (ie. in the topic introduction). In
 the second sentence there is an implicit pronoun reference to the
 German Head of State after "qaala" (said). This use of the pronoun
 as a cohesive tie linking the "details" to an element that has
 occurred in the summary and topic introduction is typical of the
 "details" part of news expansion in all groups of texts in the
 corpus (as earlier examples of this feature have shown). In the

third sentence (line 30) the name of the Head of State is repeated, and in the last two there are references to four place names (countries and part of the World). This is typical of RDA and other groups in the corpus to use NBI (particularly person name) in the summary, and repeat that in the topic introduction, while employing pronominal reference (implicit or explicit) to them in the "details" of the news. The same person name may also be repeated in the details (as it is with RF (41) above), and place name would occur where the reference to it is required, whether in the summary or details, but with far less chance of having BI.

7.5.3 Conclusion: NBI and the textual structure of Radio News Discourse

In conclusion, two points about NBI in the structure of news discourse can be made.

1) In four out of six groups of texts, the topic introduction repeats the same high frequency of NBI and PNs found in the summary (exemplified in RF (41) and RDA (43) above). The "details" in these groups would include pronominal references to the names presented with BI in the summary and topic introduction. This elliptical use of reference in the "details" together with the low frequency of NBI in this unit of news discourse, suggests that NBI is not a feature of the "details" of the news, but rather a feature of the summary and topic introduction. When person names are exceptionally low in the text and lower in the summary, NBI occurs more in the details (i.e. after topic introduction in expansion) than the summary.

2) NBI has a certain power of prediction. Thus if a case of NBI occurs in the summary, we can be certain it will occur again in the topic expansion and most likely in the topic introduction. Moreover, this first occurrence of NBI will itself enable us to predict that the second reference in case of a person name will be a pronoun, and that the second occurrence of a place name will definitely be without BI. To say that NBI is a feature of news summary and topic introduction, is to say that it has specific implications for the structuring of the "details" of news summary, since the correct reading of the anaphoric references in this part cannot be obtained without taking the previous two units of news and the use of BI into account. More than that it has implications for the structuring of information as we saw when the NBI was omitted in (7.2.2) above.

Finally we end this Chapter by noticing that attribution and Sentential Background Information (SBI) were features of the "details", while NBI is a feature of summary and topic introduction. This is only natural, since NBI is, first and foremost, a function that has primarily to do with successful identification of people and places influencing the news, and as such it has to be in the topic presenting part of the news. While, as we saw in Chapter Four, attribution is a function of hedging by referring "partisan" news statements to their original source, and as such, unless the main news statement is being hedged, Attribution is a function of elaboration and adding information to news "details".

Nor is there room in the summary and topic introduction, for lengthy additions of Sentential Background Information (SBI), as was

seen in Chapter Six above (6.4.2.1). Thus, while longer SBI commenting on the news topic would naturally follow the summary and topic introduction in the "details", NBI presents the name on its first occurrence, making news summary and topic introduction its natural favourite position.

CHAPTER EIGHT

THEORETICAL DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND POTENTIAL APPLICATIONS

8.0 This chapter includes a summary of the present research, a brief theoretical discussion and a discussion of potential applications. It ends with suggestions for further research.

8.1 Summary of research

Chapter One looked briefly at media and sociological interest in news broadcasts. It moved on to review some works that have tackled different linguistic aspects of radio news language. Then we presented the aim of the current research, defining it as a study of the discourse organization and structuring of radio news as a variety of English and Arabic. To achieve this a representative corpus was collected from six radio services (4 from the BBC and 2 from Radio Damascus).

Chapter Two reviews the three main issues of the current investigation: the situational and non-situational approaches to language variety, discourse structure, and language function and utterance function. It was recognized that the situational approach to language variety would enable us to detect the presence and extent of any adjustment owing to the factor of audience. As far as discourse structure is concerned, it was seen that despite their apparent simplicity, radio news broadcasts pose serious questions to different approaches of discourse structure. Finally it was recognized that investigating interactive/metatextual elements will

allow us to study the relationship between the interactive and autonomous planes of discourse (proposed by Sinclair 1981) and the relationship between these functions and, through their grammatical realization, the linguistic system.

In Chapter Three the elements which explicitly function as organizing or commenting on the organization of the rest of discourse were studied. Three types of Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) were identified: Opening, Medial and Closing DOEs. It was found that the function of organizing was carried out mainly by deictic elements and certain lexical items such as "news, detail, etc" (3.3.2.1) and 3.3.2), while the interactive function of DOEs is made manifest by pronouns such as "you, we, etc." (3.3.2).

The frequency of DOEs is found to depend on the length of the news and not on the variation in audience. But DOEs mark three parts of a typical news text: a summary, an expansion, and a repetition of the summary. The summary of a news item is repeated in the opening of the expansion giving two structural constituents of the expansion: topic introduction and details. However, the relationship between one news item and another (in summary or expansion) is not explicit; but items are found to be strung together in a kind of listing convention (3.4.2.2).

Chapters Four to Seven took the investigation of discourse structure a step further by concentrating on elements inside the larger chunks that have been established by the function of Discourse Organizing Elements. The elements studied in Chapter Four perform the function of attributing news statements to their sources. The

use of this function is an option that can be opted for in most news statements; but it is not always heavily employed. The most significant aspect of Attribution Function in BBC Radio News Discourse is that it manifests varying degrees of hedging. Four types of Attribution Function were identified in BBC data: (1) Lexical and/or Counter Claim, (2) Pragmatic Attribution, (3) Institutional Voice Attribution, and (4) Correspondent Attribution. Radio Damascus data mainly use Support Attribution and Institutional Voice Attribution. The significance of this classification was seen in the fact that the least hedged types (Correspondent and Institutional Voice Attribution) may be used without Attribution, while heavily hedged news statements cannot easily shed this function (4.2.1).

Chapter Five started by describing the grammatical constituents of Attribution Function. Overwhelmingly Attribution Function is realized in reporting clauses, and occasionally in reporting adjuncts. Moving to the question of overall discourse structure, we found out that the favourite structural position of Attribution Function is the "details" of news broadcast. While the "summary" and "topic introduction" were found to show most resistance to Attribution Function, allowing mainly heavily hedged Attribution.

The frequency of occurrence of Attribution Function was found out to be determined by news topics and news audience (5.3.2). But news topics themselves are audience sensitive in that they are most often chosen by virtue of being relevant to the target addressee (5.3.1). The frequency of Attribution in the WS corpus is more than double that of RF. Though addressed to foreign audience, RDE does not use

more Attribution than RDA, which is explained by the use of "Support Attribution" in this service.

In the news item, Attribution Function can present one point of view, single view Attribution; two opposing views, opposing view Attribution; or more than two views, multiple view Attribution. The opposing view Attribution yields an exchange structure, in which two views dispute the same fact(s) (5.2.3). As far as prediction is concerned, Attribution Function is predictive in that if it occurs in the news summary, it will occur in the expansion. In its most likely position, the "details" of the news, Attribution Function is predictable up to the probability of its occurrence in this position in different groups of texts.

Chapter Six first identified the phenomenon of providing Background Information (BI), and recognized that it can be realized in a complete sentence or more than one complete sentence, or a nominal group in relation to a Proper Name (PN). The rest of the chapter studied Sentential Background Information (SBI), which has three main characteristics. Firstly, SBI is topic-related; it does not introduce a news topic, but additional past or general information about the current topic. Secondly, it amounts to a comment by the editor, since its relevance to the current topic is established from the editor's point of view. Thirdly, SBI is sensitive to audience since different amounts of SBI are used with different audience, and are sensitive to topic since certain topics, such as politically sensitive topics, require more SBI than other topics (6.2.2.3).

Sentential Background Information (SBI) is highly frequent in RF, WS and AS (on average 60% of news items). RDA uses SBI less than BBC (in 22% of items) and RDE does not adapt much to foreign audiences in RDE (only in 10% of items). Finally, the structural position of SBI is exclusively found in news "details". But more importantly, SBI always follows the topic about which it is informing; and thus it is interpreted as a background against which new news developments are being reported.

Finally Chapter Seven studied the use of Background Information with Proper Names, Nominal Background Information (NBI). NBI reveals one of eight aspects of a Proper Name (PN): (1) the institutional position, occupation etc. of a person; (2) the news worthiness of a person's name; (3) the country of origin of a person; (4) information stating personal relations; (5) information about the orientation of a given action; (6) the location or function of a place; (7) the newsworthiness of a place; and (8) information about a publication. Grammatically, NBI is realized in nominal appositives, non-defining relative clause, prepositional group or "of construction". When the PN is appositive, informationally it is considered basic, since it is the item which is repeated in subsequent reference(s) to the entity, and can potentially occur with other instances of BI.

PNs and NBI are frequent in radio news broadcast, 6.53% of words and 1.14% respectively (Table 23 above). The bulk of BI is about institutional position, occupation etc. of a person (75% of NBI), followed by BI about place location or function. Translated texts show interesting differences. RDE uses less PNs and less NBI than

RDA, due to using less person names; but it uses more BI about place location or function than its Arabic counterpart.

The structural position of NBI reveals that NBI is a feature of news summary. All groups in the corpus, except the WS and RDE, use it mainly in the summary and repeat it in the topic introduction leaving the details to manipulate pronominal reference (7.5.2). WS and RDE use it less in the summary, because of the low frequency of person names. From the findings in this chapter, we concluded that NBI is predictive in two ways, (1) its occurrence in the summary predicts its recurrence in the expansion, especially in the topic introduction, and (2) its first occurrence in the expansion predicts that the second reference to it is most likely to be a pronoun. Moreover, like the occurrence of DOEs and Attribution Function, the occurrence of NBI is also predictable up to the probability of its occurrence particularly in the summary. To end this summary we can say that structurally, if attribution and Sentential Background Information (SBI) functions are features of the "details" of news discourse, NBI is mainly a feature of the "summary".

8.1.2 Summary of findings

The findings of the investigation can be summarized in the following five points:

- 1) Discourse Organizing Elements (DOEs) function as organizational utterances in the same way in all groups of texts in the extended corpus. But their frequency is determined by the length of text.

2) Attribution functions primarily in accordance with the editor's strategy of persuasion (by shifting responsibility in BBC corpus and supporting editorial line in RD). Its frequency is sensitive to audience: less sympathetic audience WS and AS need more Attribution, and local audience in RD need more Support Attribution.

3) Sentential Background Information functions in a similar way in all groups of texts in the restricted corpus. Its frequency is determined by news topics (biographical topics use it more) and audience (AS uses it more than RF). Nominal Background Information is mostly used with person names (compared with other kinds of names). RDA uses more PNs and NBI than any other group of texts; the WS and RDE use them least. But the use of BI with an individual name is a matter of an editorial assumption about the audience knowledge.

4) Grammatically, the most salient elements of DOEs are (1) a demonstrative functioning as a discourse deixis, (2) a pronoun addressing the audience, and (3) a noun referring to the type of text or part of it. Attribution is mostly realized in reporting/reported clause. Also the reporting verb "say" is the most frequent in BBC English, and "qaala" and "'akada" (stressed) in RD corpus, and the tense choice is found to systematically correspond to the time of the news narrative: more past tense in the BBC and more present tense in RD. Finally, BI can be realized in a complete sentence, a non-defining clause, or a nominal group. The latter case is mostly an appositive relation between a proper noun and a description (BI) about it.

5) DOEs enable us to establish a hierarchy of (1) news, (2) summary/expansion and (3) item. Within the item we recognised (1) topic introduction and (2) details. Attribution was found to be a function of details; unless heavily hedged or particularly newsworthy, it will not occur in the summary and/or the topic introduction. Sentential Background Information is solely a feature of details. But Nominal Background Information (together with proper names) is a feature of summary and topic introduction (WS and RDE are exceptions to NBI) and the first occurrence of a name in the news.

8.2 Theoretical Discussion

The findings about the three textual functions studied in the present work are related to the proposal of metafunctions (Halliday, 1978:47) and planes of discourse (Sinclair 1981), as well as the linguistic system. They are also related to the questions of discourse structure, language variety and translation.

8.2.1 Interactive Metatextual functions and their theoretical implications

Apart from performing an immediate function of Discourse Organizing Attribution or providing Background Information, the three functions investigated in this work share something that puts them together at a higher level. It was seen that all three functions provide additional information to the basic new news content, by informing the addressee about the forthcoming or previous part of discourse, by qualifying and thus mediating news statements in the case of Attribution, and by providing background

comments or description of news topics or Proper Names. Thus, although like other utterances in having content and immediate function specific to each of them, these utterances differ fundamentally from utterances in the news discourse which are primarily and "directly" informing. The three functions at hand are somehow not part of the message in the same way as the rest of discourse (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975:22).

Each of these three functions was found to have two features. Firstly, being additional they have to specify the part of discourse they are informing about or adding to, and thus they are metatextual. Secondly, being additional, they are addressed to the whole or some of the audience, and hence they are primarily interactive. The metatextual aspect is seen in the use of discourse deixis and lexical words. In each function the scope of the metatextual reference could be the whole or part of a text. Thus, "this" or "here" in "this is the news" or "here is the news" refers to the whole text in which it appears, and "the news" also refers to the whole text in which it appears, and "the news" also refers to the whole text (3.3.1). The reference could also be to "the headlines" (i.e. to the news summary) as in "the headlines again" (3.3.2). In the case of attribution the reporting verb or reporting adjunct specifies the scope of its metatextual coverage. Usually the verb (or adjunct) will designate the news statement it is reporting as "claiming, alleging, saying, etc". In Nominal Background Information the scope of reference is limited to the individual (i.e. name-bearer) being referred to. But Sentential Background Information does not have a metatextual reference in this

sense, i.e. reference to a part of the text, but it relates to the notion of topic by adding past or general knowledge information about it (6.3.1).

The second feature of these functions, interactiveness, can be explicit or implicit. The explicit interactive element is found to be a first or second personal pronoun such as "you" in "this news comes to you in the World Service of the BBC (WS: 04004) or "kum: (you) in Arabic "... wa ilaa hadaraatikum 'anba'unaa bitafsiil" (and we present to you our news in detail)" (RDA: 12419). Here, the editor (or presenter) is explicitly suspending the role of information-provider to remind the listeners that this is "our news" and here is what we have "for you". On the other hand, the implicit interactive element has to be postulated in order to justify the editor's breaking into discourse to mediate news statements indicating that a given statement is only what a source has said. Implicit in Attribution Function is an appeal to the listener to take into account that the source of Attribution and not the news editor, is the one who is saying or claiming the news statement. Thus in Attribution Function, the appeal requires the listener to shift the reference from "we" (news editor) to "them" (source of Attribution).

In the case of Background Information, there is an implicit appeal to the listeners to shift the reference to "you the listeners". Thus, in relation to a certain topic or name, the news editor turns to the listeners, as it were, to say "you remember (know)" this topic is related to the Background Information we are providing. Surely, the message in its entirety is addressed to the

listeners as was emphasized by Sinclair (Sinclair 1981:2) and hence all other utterances imply the interactive function, but the three functions at hand are primarily used for their interactiveness, to direct the listeners to the stages of discourse or to adjust the news message by hedging or adding Background Information.

That all three functions being discussed show the features of metatextuality and interactiveness, and that they are, in a sense, additional to the news content, give us solid ground for assuming that they function at a level different from that of just information carrying, which is recognized by Sinclair as the autonomous plane of discourse (Sinclair 1981:4). This supports Malinowski's point "the image of language as merely the direct reflection of subject matter is simplistic and unsound" (Malinowski 1930) (quoted approvingly by Halliday 1978:33). Thus, language informs at one level "the autonomous plane of discourse" and provides interactive metatextual comments at another level "the interactive plane of discourse" (Sinclair 1981).

If interactive metatextual functions act as organizers and identifiers of large or short stretches of discourse, they themselves are realized in a fairly limited area of the linguistic system. To take the interactive feature, it is found to be generally realized in two personal pronouns "we" (speaker) and "you" (addressee) and their Arabic equivalents. What is significant here is that these elements are used to indicate the interactive feature of a given function, the discourse organizing function, on the interactive plane of discourse. In a similar fashion Attribution Function is exclusively realized in reporting clauses and reporting

adjuncts (5.1.2). This area, restricted as it is, gives an important dimension to the study of modality, which has been suggested by Stubbs (1985). Moreover, the significance of using an adjunct as "reportedly, to function metatextually to cover what Strang calls "the semantic spread" (Strang 1962:2-3) of the reported clause may have important implications for the metatextual reference of adjuncts (and adverbs in particular) and to the phenomenon of metalanguage as a whole (see Robins 1951:2-3). The third function, providing Background Information, has dealt with elaborating on news topics and identifying proper names. In the latter case, nominal appositives, prepositional groups or non-defining clauses were used. But overwhelmingly, it is the appositive structure that is employed. Not only do these grammatical structures realize the function of providing BI, but more importantly, a whole sentence can achieve the job. Providing additional Background Information, therefore, is realizable in a variety of grammatical structures in English and Arabic.

8.2.2 Discourse structure of Radio News Discourse: theoretical implications

In Chapter Two the question concerning discourse structure in radio news discourse was formulated in the following manner; how does a news item relate to the one which is before or after it? And on what account could an item mentioned only once be considered as part of the text in which it occurs? To answer these questions we started by examining those utterances that make explicit comments about the organization and stages of a news text. The study of these Discourse Organizing Elements enabled us to identify a number

of discourse units in a news broadcast. At the highest level a typical news broadcast would have a summary, expansion and repetition of the summary. At a lower level, or rank, the expansion, which elaborates on the same items in the summary and may be a new one, repeats the summary (or its content) at the very opening. Thus at this rank of item the expansion has two constituents: topic introduction, and details. One important point about (medial) DOEs is that they can potentially occur between any two news items, but not within the item itself. Thus DOEs identify item boundary.

But revealing the relationship between news summary and expansion as between two versions of the same item, leaves the question of the relationship between one item and the one after and before it unanswered. The fact that DOEs can potentially occur between any two items in the expansion reinforces the lack of relationship between them. This break into the text to identify the speaker, signal the stage of discourse, etc., is not found with other types of radio discourse, except for interruptions to announce advertisements, which is a case of interruption to introduce another text. This leaves us with a string of news items which reflects a listing convention in radio news discourse, and which shows that at the level of items relationship, this structure allows a considerable amount of indeterminacy as seen in the possibility of including or excluding a whole item from a news text.

Yet Discourse Organizing Elements themselves are part of the text in which they are used. Moreover, as was seen in the previous section, the scope of reference of DOEs is the whole or part of the

text, which means that every news item which actually occurs in a news text is covered by the reference of "here" in the example "Here is the news". In this sense each news item in a news text, whether mentioned once or more in the summary-expansion-summary, is part of the text by virtue of its actual (physical) occurrence, on paper or in time, in the same situation (language event). In this sense the unity of the text rests ultimately in the unity of the situation known to the participants in the language event. In this way, the listing convention which from outside (before the composition of a text) allows the inclusion or exclusion of a whole item without affecting the structure of the text, is not taking place in a vacuum, but rather in a strictly and explicitly well-defined and highly standardized language event. Therefore, if a news item were to be used in a different language event (e.g. in a news agency despatch, or a news flash etc.), it would be a distinctive text. But used in a news broadcast the same item becomes a part of a larger language event. In a similar way Lotman has observed that "the legal document included in Pushkin's novel loses its delimitation and becomes a part of a text rather than a text unto itself" (Lotman 1977:120). Thus, the listing convention which from outside (before the composition of a text) allows the inclusion or exclusion of a whole news item without affecting the structure of the text, is not taking place in vacuum, but rather in a strictly and explicitly well-defined and highly-standardized language event.

However, recognizing the two levels of structuring of summary-expansion-summary, and topic introduction and details with expansion, has not left us any wiser about the internal structure

(or constituents) of any of these units. The study of Attribution and Background Information functions is aimed at this level of structure. These functions have given us an idea about some structural constituents of summary, topic introduction or details and have enabled us to describe the structural positioning and grammatical realizations of these functions. Thus it was found out that Sentential Background Information occurs solely in the details and following its topic, that Attribution Function occurs mainly in the details, and that Nominal Background Information occurs mainly in the summary and topic introduction, and having occurred once, NBI will generally use a pronominal or a proper name in the second following occurrence(s).

It was seen earlier in this section that the unity of the text is related to the unity of the language event, which poses the question of those language events which have not occurred yet, i.e. the relationship between the instantial and the potential. The actual frequency of occurrence of the three functions being investigated (summarized in 8.12) provides the basis of the probability of the occurrence of the function (in the future). This probability can be 100% (certainty) as in the case of Opening Discourse Organizing Elements, but it will vary considerably in different functions and in different groups of texts. This is partly due to the fact that these functions are interactive and thus their frequency is affected by the audience being addressed. Thus taking one of the textual functions we have investigated and specifying its situational use (its group of texts in the corpus), we know its probability of occurrence in a given position in the structure of Radio News

Discourse. In addition to being predictable, textual functions can be predictive. For instance the occurrence of a Discourse Organizing Element will prospectively or retrospectively (a distinction made by Sinclair, 1980) predict the following or previous part of discourse. Similarly the occurrence of Attribution in the summary predicts its occurrence in the expansion, and the occurrence of Nominal Background Information predicts that the following reference will use a pronominal or proper name. The study of the structural positioning of textual functions allows these functions to be predictable and predictive.

8.2.3 Language variety and the present work: theoretical implications

The findings of the present research relate the textual functions being investigated and their structural positioning to three aspects of situational language variety. These aspects of variety are the medium, audience (potential addressee) and the role of the language event or its communicative purpose.

It was seen in Chapter Three (3.4.2.1) that informing the audience about the different stages of the discourse is primarily motivated by the fact that the speaker cannot see the listeners or get feedback from them. In this respect, news discourse is nearer to written discourse than to conversation. It would be odd in a conversation if the speaker identified him/herself to the hearer every now and then or stated the different stages of his/her contribution and talked on and on. Monologues, like science lectures, however, do make use of the organizational function to identify the beginning or end of the language event (Baka,

forthcoming). Thus DOEs are similar to predictive structure studied by Tadros (1981), in that the author of the economics textbook was found to announce what he is going to do (predictive element) and then do it (predicted element).

Discourse Organizing Elements are determined by the medium, hence, everything being equal, they are employed in a relatively similar fashion with different groups of audience. But Attribution and Background Information Functions are sensitive to the situational parameter of addressee. Attribution is particularly sensitive to audience and shows wide variation in its frequency in the groups of texts in the corpus.

Finally, the investigation of the structure of Radio News Discourse through the study of textual functions has been carried out cross-language using English and Arabic in original and translated texts. The cross-language dimension of linguistic investigation is paramount if variety studies are to contribute to the mainstream of general linguistic theory. Just as the question of language structure at other levels of analysis like grammar is to be tested in as many languages as possible, by the same token, it is ultimately an imperative that variety analysis and theories should make interlingual as well as intralingual comparisons (Ure and Ellis 1974; Hartmann 1980). In the same way as linguistics systems such as aspect or modality may be found in a given language to have greater or lesser potential than in another language (aspect in Russian and English for instance (Comrie 1976), so a given variety may not exist or may have different realizations or potential in

another language. Hence, in radio news variety, Attribution was found to differ in its communicative purpose in RD and BBC news broadcasts (regardless of the language used). The importance of interlingual variety studies and its complexity are particularly manifested in the phenomenon of bilingualism and multilingualism, especially in cases of planned (or engineered) bilingualism where one variety of a second or foreign language (e.g. English for science or Arabic for religion) is used alongside native language. Another important theoretical dimension of interlingual variety studies is found in translation.

8.2.4 Translation of Radio News Discourse: theoretical implications

From the study of translated news texts in the corpus and comparing them with the target language texts, we were able to describe certain features of translation. Discourse Organizing Elements for instance were found in all translated texts in similar frequency and carrying out the same organizational functions as they do in texts from the source or target language. Moving to more subtle areas like the use of Attribution and BI, we saw the importance of adapting the text to be translated to suit the target audience, which is the standard practice of BBC in preparing news broadcasts. Still, upon scrutinizing the translated version of DOEs, we start to recognize interesting problems that relate to practical and theoretical aspects of translation, problems such as how to translate greetings in the Opening Discourse Organizing Elements.

To begin at the beginning any translation model has a lexical and grammatical component as certified by Catford (1965) and Nida (1964). The present study has described the lexico-grammatical level of the functions investigated to some extent, and therefore, to that extent has contributed to translation input. Still the grammatical description of the textual functions was not detailed or comprehensive enough to capture all the ranks of grammatical structure, since only crucial grammatical or lexical points in each function were undertaken. A thorough description of the lexico-grammatical level in both languages and its use as input to achieve the translated text has been well demonstrated by Roger, Ure and Ellis (1969) who used the Hallidayan systemic linguistic model. Thus a lexico-grammatical description of the languages concerned is a priori to a linguistic analysis of translated material and to linguistic study of translation.

Another level of analysis that feeds into translation is that of situational parameters of language variety. Catford (1965) used Halliday's mode, field and tenor of discourse to determine the boundaries of the source and target language. In a different tradition, motivated by a large-scale concern with the question of translation, Russian linguistics has concentrated on the analysis of "sublanguage", which is a kind of a restricted variety described at different levels (Moskovich 1982). The present investigation goes beyond describing the situational boundaries of the source and target language to analyse translated texts. This is of crucial importance, since translated texts manifest some feature (or problem) that would not be met if the analysis is carried out only

on samples of the two languages in question. Secondly, in the current work, the textual functions being analysed are at a lower level, and thus more specific, than the situational parameters. In fact these functions are at a level between the situational parameter and the lexico-grammatical level. Again in Russian traditions (Moskovich 1986), in works on machine-aided translation, the area of "contextology" tries to analyse features inside the translated texts. The present work shows that undertaking discourse analysis of interlingual variety and the inclusion of translation data give important insights into translation and should be incorporated in any approach to translation studies.

Having to tackle wide varieties of language and ever treading alien and precarious territories, by its very nature translation will always pose new and sometimes curious problems. Philosophically, Quine said that the lack of "an objective matter to be right or wrong about", will necessarily result in the indeterminacy of translation (Quine, 1960:73). Linguistically, the impossibility of translation is a recurrent topic, as Robins (1964:23-25) and Bassnett-McGuire (1980:32) have observed. Such stands vis a vis translation reflect the tenuous nature of this linguistic phenomenon. In the present work, it was seen that at a certain level the description of translated data has to be directed into the textual function of utterances or the lexico-grammatical choices, but it is left to the translator's judgement to render a certain utterance (function) in a certain way. An example of this translation-specific feature was met in BBC Arabic Service repetition of greetings and the use of elaborate presentation (seen

in the use of plural second person pronouns, and attributive adjective to denote respect in DOEs, and the use of long titles in Nominal Background Information). This suggests that part of the task of a linguistic description of translation data (i.e. translated texts) is to aim at this level of translation-motivated adjustments. This interpretive level has been fully addressed in the European translation of literary works and hermeneutics (see Bassnett-McGuire (1980) for literary traditions and translation; and Macquarie (1967), Chapter Seven, for hermeneutics and translation), but not in linguistic approaches to translation. Though not mainly concerned with translation, the present work tentatively suggests that in addition to a discourse analysis of textual functions and their realization, a linguistic description of translation data should recognize a translation-specific level which deals with translator's judgements and adjustments as seen in regard to new problems or recurrent formulaic renderings in the translation data.

8.2.5 Conclusion

1. The meta-textual and interactive aspects of the three functions investigated in the present work support the recognition of a level of discourse beyond that of mere information carrying, a level that is best identified on the interactive plane of discourse postulated by Sinclair (1981).
2. Discourse Organizing Elements identify three main parts (summary-expansion-summary), news item boundary and two constituents of an item in expansion: topic introduction and details. But the relationship between any two items in a news

text is determined by the situation of the news delivery and follows a listing convention. This overall structure makes the functions investigated in this work predictable to the extent of their probable occurrence and in some cases predictive in their own right.

3. This work shows that variety is the natural habitat of discourse analysis, the study of overall discourse structure and textual functions, since these aspects of language show sensitivity to situational factors of variety like audience. At the same time, theoretically variety study is a study of variety in language and not in a given language, and hence the significance of the interlingual dimension of the present investigation.
4. Translation has a lexico-grammatical component and a discourse analysis of textual functions component. But in addition, a linguistic approach to translation should include translation data as well as data from source and target languages, and should recognize an interpretive level for the description of linguistic features of translated discourse, resulting from translation and not any other factor.

8.3 Potential applications

The theoretical and experimental aspects of applications are outside the concern of the present work. But we can mention here the area of foreign and second language teaching which has made use of radio news discourse, and suggest the potential relevance of the present findings to the editing and translating of radio news discourse.

Radio news language has been used to teach foreign and second language learners of English, mainly because it represents authentic material of suitable length and current relevance to students' interest as North (1983) emphasises (see also Frantzis, 1982). Any news material including the present corpus can be used to teach foreign students lexical, grammatical or phonological aspects of this variety or to start a discussion or trigger comments. Therefore, the present analysis of textual functions does not contribute in any unique way to these levels of applications.

8.3.1 News editing

The findings of the present investigation can potentially be applied at a certain stage in the process of news editing. The specific area of application could be either in line with Bell's suggestion concerning guidelines to copy editors (Bell 1984), or in the training of news editors. In addition, it might be used to provide guidelines for teachers as applied linguists to outline the discourse characteristics which might need to be highlighted in order to enhance students' processing of radio news texts at the higher levels.

Let us examine the application of the findings as an input to news editing guidelines. It is worthwhile to mention at the outset that the idea of a guideline involves a prescriptive dimension which depends on the description of a given corpus. The guidelines could be expressed, as in Bell (1984) in the form of "recommendations" (ibid:107-111). Naturally, because recommendations are based on a given study, they remain open to change and improvement as a result

of further research. This is true of one of Bell's recommendations, namely "don't delete hedging" (Bell, 1984:109). In our analysis of Attribution, a cline of hedging was established (Chapter Four). We saw that at one end of the cline, the least hedged news statements can drop Attribution (i.e. use zero Attribution); while the most heavily hedged statements cannot drop Attribution, not even in the "summary" of the news. In the light of this analysis we suggest adding to Bell's recommendation "don't delete hedging", the following qualification: "when it is very heavy; but lightly hedged Attribution such as Institutional Voice Attribution may be deleted under certain circumstances".

Another aspect of Attribution in the present study has to do with the use of Attribution to meet the suspicion of a foreign and local audience. In this respect the present findings offer rough guidance. However, the guideline cannot be more specific than offering reminders of the amount of Attribution, its different types and sensitive topics in relation to a given group of audience.

The present investigation of Background Information (BI) can also contribute to a number of points in news editing guidelines. Firstly, it recommends the following point: use Sentential Background Information with autobiographical and politically sensitive news items. Politically sensitive topics need Background Information to present them in their proper perspective, and thus preclude possible accusations of bias. Secondly, two points about BI can be suggested in connection with the use of proper names (Pn): :

(1) Provide BI descriptions of place names to ensure that average target audiences are able to make a successful reference to the location, function or newsworthiness of place names.

(2) Provide BI description of person names to ensure that an average target audience is able to make successful reference to the person's institutional or occupational position, to his/her newsworthiness, or relation to another person in the news.

Person names are almost always accompanied by background descriptions to make them identifiable, but place names present a subtle problem. The news editor has to depend on his/her judgement as to whether a possible gap in the geographical or general knowledge of the audience needs to be filled. In doing so the news editor may find assistance in passing such a judgement in the present findings about the use of BI with different types of place names reported in Chapter Seven and Volume Two, Appendix (4) tables (1-4).

Finally, the results of the present study may be used as input in training future news editors. Here, their main purpose would be to raise awareness of certain functions and their linguistic realization in the language of the news. This can be handled by studying news texts and devising exercises based on the present findings. Extra-linguistic factors such as audience and topic can be brought into the discussion as part of awareness and orientation programmes.

A third area in news editing to which the present findings are relevant is "subtitling". The aim here is to produce a summary

version of Television News and flash it on the screen to help audiences with hearing difficulties. The findings can be manipulated in the rules devised for a computer program that aids in the process of subtitling as suggested by Macarthy (1986). This task may require collaboration on the part of the discourse analyst to manage the language and the news editor to manage information.

8.3.2 Translation

In addressing the issue of applying the findings of the present investigation, or any investigation for that matter, to some aspects of translation, one has to make every effort to ensure that the features (or problems) being identified are definitely features of translation and not features of discourse or legitimate ground for linguistic description regardless of translation. Such features, therefore, should exclusively be features of translation data, ie. findings and results of description of a corpus of translated texts. In the present corpus only two groups of news texts (about 10870 words) out of six are in translation. But more significantly, the present analysis of translated texts (from Arabic into English and from English into Arabic) has primarily been geared to describe the functions found in the original discourse, and translation is considered mainly to account for certain features of translation data such as the high frequency of using Attribution in BBC AS and its low frequency in RDE (see 5.3.2).

We suggest two ways in which the present analysis and its results can be used, (1) to design guidelines for translators on the lines of news editors' guidelines, or (2) to prepare translation exercises

for students of translation. In the following paragraphs we will elaborate on the first point and touch on the question of translation exercises.

The present analysis can be found relevant to three areas of practical translation of news discourse. These are: the translation of Attribution, the translation of greeting, and stylistic adjustments. In each of these areas, a specific feature of the findings relates either to Arabic (BBC Arabic Service) or English (Radio Damascus English news) as a target language.

1. Translation of Attribution (reporting verbs): The verb "say" was found to be overwhelmingly used in Radio Four and the World Service news. An important shift in the translated Arabic Service texts is the use of "thukira" (it was mentioned) in translating some cases of "say". The key to this translation is the fact that although "mention" is not used in any of the original English texts, "thukira" is quite usual in Arabic. Hence the translation of "say" into "thukira" (mention) conforms to the Arabic practice (i.e. target language norm). In Radio Damascus English translation the choice of the lexical verb "stress" as a reporting verb is transparent of the use of "'akada" (stress, assert) in the source text. It was seen that "'akada" and "stress" is playing a role in lexically supporting the news statement being attributed (5.1.2). Another verb that "portrays" the source text in this fashion is "declare" (especially in connection with issuing a press release). In Arabic the verb "saraha" (declare, voice an opinion, announce an intention) is common in news broadcasts, but in English "declare" does not cover all the semantic spread of the the Arabic verb, and

hence the translation of "saraha" into "declare" gives a narrower and stricter meaning than is present in the Arabic.

2. Greetings and address forms: Greetings occur at the beginning of most news broadcasts as part of what we called in Chapter Three Opening Discourse Organizing Elements. A practical aspect of translating greetings from Arabic into English in Radio Damascus English has to do with repetition of greetings. Generally, in Arabic, news greetings can be lengthy, repetitive and laborious; whereas in Radio Four news one utterance that suits the time of the day is used. Thus when translating from Arabic into English in Radio Damascus, English has to do with literal versus "contextual" translation (see El-Shekh 1977, Chapter Ten, for context-oriented approach to translating Arabic greetings into English). Thus we get the following form of greeting:

- (4) Good evening to our listeners.
(RDE:05621)

"To our listeners" is direct translation from the Arabic expression "'laa mustami9iinaa". A similar literal translation occurs with address forms to result in the following utterance:

- (5) That is, Ladies and Gentlemen, the end of our
last news bulletin from Radio Damascus.
(RDE:05216)

None of the BBC English news texts in the corpus uses "Ladies and Gentlemen" in reference to audience. But its literal equivalent "sayidaatii wa saadatii" is widely used in the Arabic news from Radio Damascus and BBC Arabic Service.

On the other hand, BBC Arabic Service sometimes, depending on the presenter it seems, employs repetition of greetings, or even chooses the longer form of greeting when a shorter form exists as in the following example:

- (6) 'alsalaamu 9alaykum wa rahmatu allahi ta9alaa
(peace upon you and the mercy of God, the Great,
wa barakaatuh
(AS:12904)
and his blessing)

This greeting could well have used the first two Arabic words only. This practice seems to misjudge the situation since the adjustment to the target language's normal practice is carried too far, resulting in a kind of "hypercorrection".

3. Stylistic features: By "stylistic features" we mean features that show the lack of adjustment to the commonly used conventional features of the news variety as revealed in the present description. The first such feature has to do with the extensive use of "empty" source of Attribution by BBC Arabic Service. This is not solely translation territory, since although the translator has to manipulate the suitable target language formula, still his/her output will serve to indicate the method and the extent of deviation of the resulting text from the target language style. The usual expression with an empty source of Attribution is "tufiidu al'anbaa'" (news purports), or "tufiidu altaqaaiir" (reports purport). Now "purport" is a literal translation of "tufiidu" but "say" ("taquulu") may be more normal in English.

The second point about stylistic adjustment comes from Radio Damascus English translated texts. It has to do with translating the original Arabic in such a way as to show some structural feature of it. Not that the result is grammatically unacceptable, but it rather differs from what is descriptively found in the practice in radio news English. The feature in question is putting Background Information first, followed by the person's name in appositive relation in RF and WS news. In Radio Damascus English translated texts, the order seems to reflect the original Arabic in that, like Arabic from Radio Damascus, either BI or PN occurs first (quite randomly as pointed out in 7.3.1). In Arabic this feature could be a matter of style or it could relate to the lack of standardization of radio news language. Still it poses a practical problem for translation, since the translator has to have a descriptive account of the target language variety before making a decision as to whether to keep the original language (casual) practice or adopt the consistent target language practice of putting BI first. In this way the present description can act as a guide in the process of making such practical decisions that may arise concerning different conventional features of discourse variety.

In connection with another aspect of translation, the present analysis can contribute to devising translation exercises which focus on the problem areas detected in the description. Such exercises could constitute a component of a wide programme aimed at students of translation or prospective professional translators. In such a programme the translation exercises would complement the theoretical dimension of interlingual and translation data

descriptions, and hence it can be seen as part of a wider approach to language description and translation.

8.4 Suggestions for further research

The following suggestions for further research revolve around the main theoretical dimensions of the present work: (1) metalinguistic elements, (2) primarily information carrying utterances in radio news discourse, (3) the evaluation and development of radio news as a variety of English and Arabic and (4) language variety and translation.

1) The importance and the scope of the metatextual elements found in the current work suggest that the metatextual aspect of language can be the topic of a thorough investigation. We saw that the metatextual element can be realized in a discourse deictic element (3.3 above) or reporting adjunct (5.1.1) but a full investigation of the metatextual elements should ultimately concern itself with metalanguage and hence analyse the way in which a sentence or more is used metalinguistically to refer to a part or the whole of a text (as in Sentential Background Information, 6.1.5). What is at stake in this phenomenon is how metalanguage relates to the "language" it refers to, and what linguistic realizations metalanguage involves in a given "language".

2) The three functions we have studied in the present work are primarily interactive. But radio news is primarily concerned with news information, and therefore the way this new news information is presented and the extent to which it is elaborated on can be investigated. One of the questions which would arise in studying

primarily informing utterances is whether the presentation of news information, explanation or comment can yield typical structural patterning that gives us insight into the internal structure of the news item.

3) The evolution and development of radio news as a variety of English and Arabic can be studied through time. This type of study should use developmental data and through comparative descriptions of the features of the variety at different points in its history, changes should be identified and accounted for. The study should address questions concerning the early days of wireless and the use of telegrams in news broadcasts and their influence on the structure of radio news (see Briggs for the use of telegrams, Briggs, 1961:34, 35). More importantly it will reveal the birth and stages of maturation of a variety of English, and when an interlingual developmental study is undertaken, it will reveal the extent of the influence of English on Arabic which may have taken place through translation. Such a study may include the early stages of BBC Arabic Service news (1930s) and thus touch on the question of translation and its development in this widely used variety.

4) A synchronic, rather than a diachronic, study of exclusively translated corpora, along the lines of discourse analysis, should mainly concern itself with describing translation-specific features. The study could be geared to describe lexical features of terminology and other translation equivalence, or examine the lexico-grammatical structure of translation data. On the other

hand, such a study may concentrate on textual functions in order to see the adherence or deviation of translation data from the typical realization of these functions as it is found in a given variety of a target language.

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