HELLO EVERYONE!

"Discourse & Power – Language & Politics"

'The principle of Newspeak' vs. 'Political Correctness'

- .(اللياقة السياسية/ الصواب السياسي) "political correctness"

> The principles of linguistic determinism on which the fictional Newspeak is founded could be argued to underlie aspects of moves towards 'political correctness' in language.

مبادئ الحتمية اللغوية التي انبنت عليها اللغة الخيالية الخاصة بـ (Newspeak) المأخوذة من رواية "١٩٨٤" للكاتب (جورج أورويل)، من الممكن القول إنها تتضمن مظاهر تنحو نحو اللياقة أو الصواب السياسي.

> Newspeak, admittedly, was the product of a malign dictatorship in Orwell's novel, while 'political correctness' could be viewed as a benign attempt to improve the world. However, the two interventions into language use, one fictional, one real, may share certain assumptions, which we will now explore.

- (Malign): evil.   (Benign): companionate, loving, etc.

So, Malign ≠ Benign.

When we talked about Orwell's novel, we mentioned that totalitarian society invented the principle of Newspeak to maculate people, but the concept of political correctness is different, it helps people move towards in more opinions attempt to understand the world and improve it.

اللغة التي اخترعها الكاتب (جورج أورويل) في روايته "١٩٨٤" واسمها (Newspeak)، هي نتاج ديكتاتورية بشعة أو شريرة.

هنا يتم التفريق بين (Newspeak) والصواب السياسي، حيث يوجد في الرواية نظام سياسي معين قد خلق لغة جديدة ومسح من اللغة جميع الكلمات التي لا يريدها ولا يريد للشعب تداولها، وترك اللغة التي تفيده والكلمات التي تناسبه، وقد تم تشفير الكلمات المراد حذفها من جميع النصوص لدرجة إعادة كتابة جميع الكتب والنصوص بما يتناسب مع ما يريدون ويحرقون الكتب القديمة. كل هذا في سبيل عندما يريد أحد دراسة الأدب أو التاريخ أو الفلسفة أو غيرها من العلوم ألا يجد معنى لكلمة (الكرامة dignity) مثلاً. وقد تحدثنا في المحاضرة السابقة عن كلمة (حر free) ورأينا أنهم وظفوا هذه الكلمة في اللغة الجديدة ككلمة (خالي/ غير مرتبط) ولكن ليس بمعنى (حر)، حيث نسي الناس الذين عاشوا اللغة الجديدة معنى كلمة (حر). بينما يتم النظر إلى الصواب السياسي على أنه محاولة رؤوفة لتحسين العالم.

كان نقاشنا في المحاضرة السابقة "هل يمكن لنا نسيان قيم أو مبادئ أو أفكار معينة فقط لمجرد أنه تم مسحها من اللغة، أم أن هذه القيم والمبادئ والأفكار متأصلة في داخلنا؟"

(Newspeak) is fictional invented by the author; he could talk about

reality. While (poli... t correctness) is real.

The concept of 'political correctness' (PC)

"The terms used to represent minority groups matter"

يمثّل/ يجسّد الصواب السياسي شؤون تخصّ مجموعات الأقليات.

Examples of 'PC' terms which have had an impact on language use include *visually impaired, blended family* and *ethnic origin* terms such as *African-American.*

What do you understand from (visually impaired)? When I say someone is visually impaired, this means another way of saying he is blind, which sounds very negative.

أي أنه لكيلا أقول عن شخص إنه (أعمى) وهي كلمة قد تكون جارحة بالنسبة له، أقول (he is visually impaired) أي (لديه مشكلة في الرؤية).

(Blended family) means (عائلة مختلطة); it a new concept, which means household in cooperating children from several relationship.

يشير هذا المصطلح إلى بيت يتضمن أطفال من علاقات مختلفة.

(Ethnic origin) means (أصول أثنية/ عرقية), such as African-American.

So, all of the previous terms are examples of *Political correctness.*

Non-PC terms are considered by some not only to be offensive but to create or reinforce a perception of minority groups as unequal to the majority, which in turn may have a detrimental effect on the way a society is organized.

What is the difference between Political correctness terms and Non-Political correctness terms?

Non-Political correctness terms are correct itself, offensive, and exclusive. While Political correctness terms are more opinion attempt towards improving society because it is inclusive and includes all people.

إذاً (Non-Political correctness terms) هي المصطلحات التي لا تتبع الصواب السياسي، وهي جارحة للآخرين لأنها تخلق تصور عن الأقليات وكـنهم غير مساوين للأكثرية. وهذا يؤثر بشكل كبير بدوره على تنظيم المجتمع.

Can you think of other examples of Political correctness terms?

Gay vs Homosexual. The (Gay) may sounds politically incorrect, especially in our culture, but (Homosexual) is more politically correct, it is more formal, natural, and scientifically accurate.

Sexual perversion (الشذوذ الجنسي) *vs Sexual orientation.* In the Arab world, great number of people still tend to use the term (Sexual perversion) to describe "LGBT" (مجتمع الميم), which includes lesbian, gay, bisexual, etc. while the scientific term used by the United Nation is (Sexual orientation).

Mrs. vs Miss vs Ms. (Mrs.) is for a married woman, and (Miss) is for a single woman. There is social stigma with both that differentiates between

the married woman from the single, but with men is not the case. While (Ms.) is for a married or single woman, it is more inclusive and not judgmental.

There is a new title named (Mx), it means neither male nor female, "It is not your business".

It could be argued that the use of 'PC' language is particularly significant in relation to disability, since many changes could be made to the way most organizations operate which could in turn have a positive effect on the lives of people with disabilities.

مثل الإعاقة الجسدية، قلنا إنه (visually impaired). أمثلة أخرى: بدلاً عن قول (معاقين) نقول (ذوي الاحتياجات الخاصة/ ذوي الهمم)، (المنغولي) نقول (مصاب بمتلازمة داون).

For example, some people make a distinction between impairment and disability, using *impairment* to refer to a condition (such as loss of vision or a limb), and *disability* to refer to activities which are difficult or impossible to undertake (for example, reading small print or climbing stairs). This is intended to draw attention to the fact that someone's inability to read a book or reach the top floor of a shop is as much a consequence of the lack of adequate facilities as of their actual impairment.

هم لا يلومون الأشخاص كونهم بهذا الوضع وكونهم لا يستطيعون أداء بعض المهام والأعمال، وإنما يحثّون على تقديم المساعدة والتسهيلات اللازمة، كوضع درج خاص للكرسي المتحرك بجانب السلّم مثلاً.

Although 'political correctness' is not an attempt to control people's thoughts in the way that Orwell's Ingsoc did through Newspeak, it nevertheless represents an attempt to alter people's perceptions of certain **signifieds** (concepts) by replacing old **signifiers** (labels) with new ones.

This is what Political Correctness does; it replaces all concepts with new ones.

(label) ممكن أن يكون كلمة أو صوت.

على الرغم من أن الصواب السياسي ليس محاولة للسيطرة على أفكار الناس، مثلما كانت الـ (Newspeak) في رواية (أورويل)، فإن اللياقة السياسية/ الصواب السياسي يمثل محاولة لتغيير رؤية الناس لبعض المدلولات باستبدال الدال القديم بدال جديد وتخليصه من فكرة موجودة مسبقاً في عقل الناس.

It should also be noted that there are those who do not support the argument that the language used to refer to a person has any significant impact on the way we actually think about them, but support 'politically correct' language on the grounds that it is important not to be offensive or disrespectful.

يجب أن نذكر أن هناك أشخاص لا يدعمون هذا النقاش ممكن أن اللغة أن تدل على شخص ويكون لهذه اللغة أثر ما، ورغم اعتقادهم أن الدال الذي نطلقه قد لا يكون له أفكار مرادفة له، وهم يدعمون فكرة !!! ... اسية من باب الاحترام وألا نكون وقحين أو غير مهذبين ..

So far, we have considered the use of language to influence people's view of the world, using the example of George Orwell's invented language Newspeak and of 'political correctness'.

نعتبر استخدام اللغة للتأثير على آراء الناس عن العالم باستخدام أمثلة من رواية (جورج أورويل) الذي أشار إلى لغة (Newspeak) التي اخترعها نظام سياسي معين للتحكم في الناس.

You may think that any deliberate intervention into language use which attempts to influence the way people think is wrong.

من الممكن أن تعتقد أن أي تدخل قسري في استخدام اللغة والذي يحاول أن يؤثر على طريقة تفكير الناس هو خاطئ.

However, it may be worth considering whether intervention for a good reason (such as to improve the lives of disadvantaged people) can be justified, while the intervention for a bad reason (such as to limit people's lives) cannot. Of course, what constitutes a 'good' or a 'bad' reason is a question for political debate, which takes us back to politics again.

In the Arab world Political Correctness still questionable and still part of political debate, whether we should actually advocate the rights of "LGBT" or not. It is still a political debate in the Arab world to accept or support the religious freedom. It is not a matter of language or changing language.

يمكن اعتبار أن التدخل في استخدام اللغة وما يجب حذفه وما يجب الإبقاء عليه خاطئ؛ ولكن من المهم التفكير أن هذا التدخل صائب ولأسباب جيدة، أم هل هو تدخل لأسباب سيئة وهدفه التحكم في الناس، وهنا يأتي التميز.

وهنا ندخل في نقاش حول من يعرّف الشيء الجيد ومن يعرّف الشيء السيء، ويتحول هذا النقاش إلى جدال سياسي. وهذا من شأنه أن يرنا كيف أن اللغة غير منفصلة عن السياسة.

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The implications of implications

One of the goals of politicians must be to persuade their audience of the validity of their basic claims. In this section we look at two of the ways, this can be achieved in political discourse – **presupposition** and **implicature**.

إن أحد أهداف السياسيين هي إقناع الجمهور بصواب مزاعمهم. وسنتحدث لاحقاً عن طريقتين كيف يتم تحقيق هذا الخطاب السياسي من خلال (presupposition) و(implicature).

These tools can lead the hearer to make assumptions about the existence of information that is not made explicit in what is actually said, but that might be deduced from what was said.

تقود تلك الأداتين المستمع لخلق توقعات عن وجود المعلومات غير الموضحة أساساً بشكلٍ علني، ولكنها متضمنة ضمن الخطاب.

The use of implicature and presupposition is an integral part of all human

أن استخدام التضمين والافتراض المسبق جزء أساسي ومدمج في جميع أشكال التواصل البشري.

However, it is particularly useful in advertising and political discourse because it can make it more difficult for the audience to identify and (if they wish to) reject views communicated in this way, and can persuade people to take something for granted which is actually open to debate.

What is the important of Presupposition and implicature? When they are they used and by whom?

They are used by politicians and advertisement. *Why?* To persuade people, for example, in advertisement, they use presupposition and implicature to persuade you to buy something even if you do not want it. They persuade you to take something for a granted.

The same with politic, we are not aware of them, you have to really study discourse analysis in order to understand why this person is using this to manipulate me.

تلك الأدوات مهمة في الإعلانات والخطاب السياسي ومتداولة كثيراً فيهما لأنها تجعل من الصعب على الجمهور أن يرفض الآراء المراد إيصالها. وهي تقنع الناس لأخذ هذه الأفكار بشكل مسلّم به على الرغم من كونها مفتوحة أمام الجدال والنقاش.

Presupposition

Presuppositions are background assumptions embedded within a sentence or phrase. These assumptions are taken for granted to be true regardless of whether the whole sentence is true.

هي ادعاءات موجودة ومتضمنة في جملة أو شبه جملة، ونأخذها وكأنها مسلم بها وعلى أنها حقيقة بغض النظر عن كونها صحيحة أم لا في الأساس. وهنا يتم اللعب على الجمهور في الإعلانات التجارية لإقناعهم بشراء المنتج.

Example:

Take this sentence from the 2001 British Conservative Party Manifesto: 'We want to set people free so that they have greater power over their own lives.'

What does this statement presuppose? People are not free.

If we want to make this sentence negative: "We do not want to set people free so that they have greater power over their own lives."

So, whether you make this sentence negative or keeping it in the affirmative, it still means the same thing that people are not free.

You can see that you are tricked either ways, whether the sentence is affirmative or negative.

Let us see other examples on presuppositions, and how politicians and those who make advertisements use them.

Presuppositions can be 'slipped' into a sentence in several ways via:

- *Adjectives, particularly comparative ones.* 'A future Conservative Government will introduce a fairer funding formula for schools' (Conservative Shadow Education Secretary, Damian Green, 2003).

What does this statement presuppose?

(Fairer) is the comparative adjective used here, and here we have a presupposition. *What is the presupposition?*

The existence funding formula is not fair.

- *Possessives.* 'You will never hear me apologising for highlighting Labour's failures time and time again' (Iain Duncan Smith, Leader of the British Conservative Party, 2003).

(Labour's failures) is the possessive. Here we have the presupposition, *what does it presuppose?* The labour party had faild.

- *Subordinate clauses.* 'We have arrived at an important moment in confronting the threat posed to our nation and to peace by Saddam Hussein and his weapons of terror' (George W. Bush in the White House press conference of 6 March 2003).

(In confronting the threat posed to our nation and to peace by Saddam Hussein and his weapons of terror) is the presupposition, which is a subordinate clause. *What does it presuppose?*

Saddam Hussein is a threat, and he owns weapons of terror. Therefore, they are going to fight him.

Here, there are two presuppositions.

- *Questions instead of statements.* 'Is it not now time for him to ensure that his Government get control of the situation in Belfast?' (David Trimble, leader of the Ulster Unionist Party addressing Prime Minister Tony Blair in Parliament on 3 July 2002).

Here, the presupposition is a question instead of statement. *What does it presuppose?*

The government has no control on the situation in Belfast.

Presuppositions are widely used not only in political debates and speeches but also by journalists to 'position' politicians in an interview or press conference.

يتم استخدام الافتراض المسبق بشكلٍ واسع ليس فقط في الجدال السياسي، ولكن من قبل الصحفيين أيضاً، بهدف حصر السياسي في الزاوية، ولكنه يجد طريقة ليهرب ويدور حول أسئلتهم عندما ينتبه لذلك.

Here is an example from the BBC *Newsnight* television programme of 6 February 2003. Jeremy Paxman to Prime Minister Tony Blair: 'Yes, an unreasonable veto, as you put it. But if that happened, would you be prepared to go to war despite the fact that apparently the majority of people in this country would not be with you?'.

This is when they were planning to have war on Iraq. What does this journalist presuppose? What is the presupposition here?

It is very tricky how the journalist tried to position a politician in this situation, not only Tony Blair had to answer whether he is preparing for going to war against Iraq, he potentially had to deal with the presupposition that the majority of people in his country would not be with him.

So, if he choose to go to war against Iraq, what about the people? The journalist put him in a very tricky situation.

'How' questions can be particularly useful for positioning the interviewee, as we can see from a 1990 interview with Margaret Thatcher, the British Prime Minister at the time. Gerry Foley, of ITV news starts off with: 'Prime Minister, how isolated do you think you now are on [European] economic and monetary union?'.

What is the presupposition here? Prime Minister is isolated.
What is the meaning of Monetary? مالي/ نقدي

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Implicature

Like presuppositions, implicatures lead the listener to infer something that was not explicitly asserted by the speaker. However, unlike presuppositions, implicatures operate over more than one phrase or sentence and are much more dependent on shared knowledge between the speaker and hearer and on the surrounding context of the discourse.

مثل (الافتراض المسبق)، يقود (التضمين) المستمع ليستنتج شيء لم يكن واضحاً أو موضحاً بشكل علني عن طريق المتكلم. ولكن على عكس (الافتراض المسبق)، يأخذ (التضمين) عدة جمل أو مقطع أو فقرة كاملة، وتعتمد على المعرفة التي تشاركها بين المستمع والمتكلم وعلى السياق المحيط للنص.

Example:

Here, Oliver Letwin, a Conservative MP, addresses a question to David Blunkett, the Labour Home Secretary, concerning the government's plans to institute a system of national identity cards:

This issue is too important an area of our national life, too central to the protection of society against fraud, and too fundamental to the preservation of our liberties, for us to accept such obscurity and spin. Will the Home Secretary assure the House that in the coming days and weeks he will make it clear what he is actually asking us to debate?

- (Fraud) means (الاحتيال).
- (Spin) means (الكذب).

Although in some respects implicature is more indirect than presupposition,

يجب على السياسي أن يكون ذكي و على اطلاع لكي ينتبه ما يقوم الصحفي بتمريره من رسائل للإيقاع به.

> There appears to be a presumption by the Opposition that if they mention the word 'spin', the whole world will believe that someone has been spinning. Although I specifically instructed all those around me not to spin, appeared on no programmes – unlike the right hon. Gentleman = and kept away from saying anything about this over the last few days, I am accused of spin. I will tell the House what I am spinning. I am spinning the right of the British people to decide over the next six months whether they want a sensible way of confirming their own identity.
>
> (Hansard, 3 July 2002)

Here, he was aware of the implicature, and therefore he decides to answer that he should not be accused of spinning because he is trying to protect the British people.

يقول: "بالرغم من محاولتي منذ عدة أيام لعدم استخدام كلمة (احتيال)، فإنك تتهمني بالاحتيال". ولكن هذا السياسي قد كشف اللعبة وأجاب بالشكل الصحيح والمناسب.

> In that exchange, Blunkett acknowledged the power of implicature, but also made the point that it is often easy to see through it.

هنا اعترف السياسي بالكلمة الضمنية التي وُجهت له، ولكنه في نفس الوقت وضّح للمستمعين والجمهور أنه من السهل اكتشاف الأمر.

> Here is another example of implicature which caused quite an uproar in some sections of the British press, although this time it was from a journalist not a politician. Is it obvious to you what Jeremy Paxman was implying in this exchange with Prime Minister Tony Blair?

- (Uproar) means (عاصفة/ جدال).

Let us read this dialogue between the journalist and Tony Blair, then tell me is it clear for you for the implicature.

> PAXMAN: The question is what freedom he has under the current inspection regime but we've discussed that already, I want to explore a little further about your personal feelings about this war.

يسأل الصحفي رئيس الوزراء طوني بلير عن مشاعره تجاه الحرب على العراق.

> Does the fact that George Bush and you are both Christians make it easier for you to view these conflicts in terms of good and evil?

هنا الصحفي يوقع بلير ويسأله: "هل كونكما مسيحيين أنت وجورج بوش سهّل لكما خوض هذه الحرب وأن تسموها (حرب الخير ضد الشر)؟".

> BLAIR: I don't think so, no, I think that whether you're a Christian or you're not a Christian you can try perceive what is good and what is, is evil.

PAXMAN: You don't pray together for example?

BLAIR: No, we don't pray together Jeremy, no.

PAXMAN: Why do you smile?

BLAIR: Because – why do you ask me the question?

PAXMAN: Because I'm trying to find out how you feel about it.

(BBC Newsnight broadcast of 6 February 2003)

The dialogue is about the war against Iraq.

The implicature here is indirect, and it takes space over a number of sentences. So, *where is the implicature?*

- "The question is about Tony Blair and George Bush".

- "Does the fact that George Bush and you are both Christians make it easier for you to view these conflicts in terms of good and evil?"

- Tony Blair cleverly answered that No, it does not about being Christian for what is good and what is evil.

- "No, we don't pray together".

- "I'm trying to find out how you feel about it."

The question "*You don't pray together for example?*" caused an uproar in the British press. *Why does it make an uproar? Why would the journalist ask him such question?*

This question is not relating to the policy of Tony Blair. So, it is not question of religion. The trap here might be related to them being Christian vs Iraq being Muslim. So, basically it Christian war, this what the journalist is trying to argue about. *Is this war is a Christian war against Islam?*

The real question to Tony Blair is "*Do you think that Islam is evil so you need to kill them?*" but the journalist asked him this question in an indirect way. And Tony Blair cleverly answered that there is no religion here, it just about good and evil.

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Persuasive Language – the Power of Rhetoric

- (Rhetoric) means persuasive Language.

لغة الإقناع، وقوة البلاغة والحوار والخطاب.

> Rhetoric is the skill of elegant and persuasive speaking, perfected by the ancient Greeks.
>
> The Oxford English Dictionary defines it more precisely as 'the art of using language so as to persuade or influence others; the body of rules to be observed by a speaker or writer in order that he may express himself with eloquence'.

- (Eloquence) means (فصيح / بديع)

فن استخدام اللغة للإقناع والتأثير على الآخرين.

In the following sections, we will look in more detail at some of these devices.

هناك أدوات يتم استخدامها لإقناع الناس، سواء خلال محاضرة أو خطاب سياسي.

What are the devices that we use to persuade others?

1. Metaphor

Metaphor is a way of comparing two different concepts. A distinction is often made between metaphor and simile in that a metaphor asserts that something is something else, e.g. 'The mind is but a barren soil', while a simile only asserts that something is similar to something else, e.g. 'The mind is like barren soil'.

- (Barren) means (أرض غير خصبة/ بور).

(الاستعارة) هي مقارنة شيئين مختلفين، و(Simile) هي التشبيه. توضح الاستعارة بأن شيء هو شيء آخر.

The difference between *simile* and *metaphor* is the use of <u>like</u> or <u>as</u>. In *simile*, use <u>like</u> or <u>as</u> to make a comparison.

However, in both cases the mechanism is similar. As listeners or readers we know that the mind is not literally barren soil. Rather, the speaker or writer is inviting us to understand the mind in terms of barren soil.

إن الآلية متشابهة في كلا النوعين. في المثال السابق، نحن نعلم تماماً بأن العقل ليس بأرض بور، ولكن الكاتب يحاول إيصال معنى بأن العقل في حالة جفاف.

One of the challenges politicians face is that they often have to talk about abstract concepts in ways that make them seem more concrete, partly so that they can be more easily grasped, and partly to avoid boring their audience.

أحد التحديات التي تواجه السياسيين هي عند تحدثهم عن شيء مجرّد بطريقة تجعله محسوساً بالنسبة للمستمع ويجعله يستطيع فهمه، وبهدف إبعاد المستمع أو الجمهور عن الشعور بالملل أيضاً.

A very frequently appearing metaphor for the economy in political discourse is *economy as machine*.

هناك استعارة مستخدمة كثيراً في الخطاب الاقتصادي والسياسي، وهي (الاقتصاد كآلة).

For example, <u>Margaret Thatcher on inflation</u> in the 1970s in a speech to Confederation of British Industry, 19 April 1983, said: 'That vast wealth-producing engine of the West began to splutter, to hesitate and occasionally to backfire.'

- (Inflation) means (التضخم المالي).

Margaret Thatcher is describing the economy here in term of a wealth-producing engine that began to splutter, hesitate, and backfire. She is talking about the inflation but in terms of a *metaphor*.

Graham Stringer of the Manchester Airport Board on the planned construction of a second runway said: 'The airport is already acknowledged as

the *economic motor* of the region'
They are talking about the airport in terms of a *metaphor*.
When politicians use metaphors, they try to make abstract concepts easily understood by the people, easily grasped. They are trying to make these concepts more concrete and easy to grasp to an audience.

Personification is a special type of metaphor that entails giving human characteristics to inanimate objects or abstract ideas. In political discourse, it is frequently used when referring to countries.

(Personification) means (التشخيص): giving human qualities to something that not human..

يعني (التشخيص) إعطاء صفات بشرية لشيء غير بشري، ممكن أن يكون مجرد أو أفكار مجردة وممكن أن يكون شيء بحد ذاته، وهو يستخدم عند الإشارة إلى البلدان.

Sometimes this is done largely for poetic effect, as in US President Lyndon Johnson's address on the assassination of Martin Luther King: 'Once again the heart of America is heavy.'

يُستخدم التشخيص لإضفاء تأثير شعري.

Here "*the heart of America*" is the Personification. So, it mainly functions to give poetic effect.

At other times, the goal is more clearly ideological. For example, various British television news broadcasts during the 1990s referred to Germany's strong and influential position in the European Union with the metaphor 'Germany is the bully in the playground'.

Here, this is a Personification, comparing Germany to a *bully*. But the purpose here is ideological.

This phrase includes a *metaphor*. Germany is not literally a bully; it could be thought of as an area of land, as a group of people, or as a political concept. The term *bully* is usually used to refer to a single person, which Germany clearly is not.

Where is the playground? The *metaphor* is a linguistic devise that provides, in this case, a like between the people of Germany and their political representatives and the idea of a bully in the playground at school.

The potential of this kind of metaphor for helping to construct or reinforce a particular perception of events or of whole societies can be seen by thinking of other metaphors for Germany's predominance in Europe that could have been used instead, e.g. *the conductor of the orchestra* or *the captain of the ship*.

Here they describe Germany as *the conductor of the orchestra* or *the captain of the ship*.

فائدة هذا النوع من الاستعارات هي المساعدة على بناء أو تعزيز نظرة معينة للأحداث.

In this respect it is worth remembering that many of the metaphors we daily discourse, not just political discourse are so commonplace, so frequent so pervasive that we scarcely realize that they are metaphors. For example:
- Your claims are *indefensible*.

"مزاعمك لا يمكنك الدفاع عنها".

- He *attacked my position*.

"هاجم موقفي".

- His criticisms were right *on target*.

"كانت انتقاداته صحيحة".

- He *shot down* all my arguments.

"لقد أبطل كل حججي" أو "لقد أفشلني".

- I've never *won* an argument with him.

"لم أفز أبداً في أي نقاش معه".

These are popular statements that we often use in political discourse, or even generally in every day English, but they also make use of metaphors to persuade or to inform.

أي أننا نستخدم لغة مستخدمة أساساً في السياق السياسي، ولكن أصبحنا نستخدمها في حياتنا وتداولاتنا اليومية.

2. Euphemism

Euphemism is a figure of speech which uses mild, inoffensive or vague words as a means of making something seem more positive than it might otherwise appear.

التلطيف: تعبير لطيف وغير جارح، نستخدمه لجعل شيء ما إيجابياً.

Euphemisms are commonly used when talking about taboo subjects, such as death or sex. We might talk about *passing away* instead of *dying*, or *making love* rather than *sexual intercourse*.

(Passing away, making love) are euphemism expressions because they are more polite.

بدل أن نقول (ماتت) نقول (توفى)، وبدل أن نقول (الجماع/ ممارسة الجنس) نقول (ممارسة الحب).

It is a device which can help to make what might actually be seen as questionable ideas or issues more palatable and 'normal' and is a potentially useful tool for politicians when engaging in what Orwell called the 'defense of the indefensible'.

هي أداة تساعدنا لنتحدث عن شيء يمكن أن يخلق جدلاً حوله، فنقوم بالحديث عنه بطريقة لطيفة محببة لا تثير المشاكل والجدال.

The use of euphemism is particularly extensive when discussing military matters. Two of the examples, 'surgically clean strikes' and 'clean bombs'.

achieve their effect in part from the positive connotations of *clean* and the associations that exist in everyday discourse between *clean* and *healthy*.

What do we understand by (surgically clean strikes, clean bombs)? They are precise and the target directly.

Here in those examples, they have used words that mean clean and healthy with words that related to military and killing; they are lessening the negative effect of the military actions. By doing so, they persuade people to follow.

لقد تم استخدام هذه التعابير العسكرية على نطاق آخر مختلف عن القتل والتدمير، ودخلت في نطاق الصحة والنظافة والتعقيم (surgically, clean) مع ابتعادها تماماً عن هذه المعاني.

In the 1990s Slobodan Milosevic, President of the former Yugoslavia, embarked on a program of what he termed 'ethnic cleansing'. In reality, this referred to the forcible removal of the non-Serbian civilian population in an attempt to redesign Yugoslavia along purely ethnic lines. He did this by bombarding towns with heavy artillery, besieging villages and massacring civilians. The term *ethnic cleansing* could be seen as an attempt not only to 'hide' these details from public discourse but also to present them in a positive light.

How do you translate (ethnic cleansing) into Arabic? التطهير العرقي

It is not clean, it has the word (cleansing) meaning clarifying but it is not pure because you are killing certain people to make the country "ethnically" correct, from your perspective.

It is part of the power of discourse to manipulate people.

3. The 'rule of three'

One of the best-known structural devices in political rhetoric is the use of the 'three-part statement'. For some reason, we seem to find things that are grouped in threes particularly aesthetically pleasing. Goodman (in Cockcroft and Cockcroft 1992) has looked at the predominance of 'triads, threes and eternal triangles' in cultures from all around the world. She points out the frequent occurrence of the number three in fairy or folk tales (e.g. *Three Little Pigs; Goldilocks and the Three Bears; Three Blind Mice*) and of groups of three in films (e.g. *The Good, the Bad and the Ugly; Sex, Lies and Videotape; Truly, Madly, Deeply*).

عبارة "three-part statement" مشهورة ومستخدمة جداً في الخطاب السياسي. بطبيعتنا نجد أي شيء مجموع ضمن ثلاث فئات لطيف وجميل.

So, it has a certain impact on the audience, on the people who will use these triads.

The importance of the three-part statement as a rhetorical device is widely found in political documents and oratory.

(Oratory) means (الخطابة).

Three of the most famous three-part statements from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries are to be found in:

- The cry of the French Revolution: 'Liberte, Egalite, Fraternite' (liberty, equality, brotherhood)

- The American *Declaration of Independence*, 'We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.'

Even the structure is written in three phases, and at the end you have life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

- Abraham Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address*: 'that government of the people, by the people and for the people shall not perish from this earth'.

Here are two examples from the 1997 British parliamentary elections. The first uses a three-part group of words, the second a three-part group of sentences.

This is the result of four years of Liberal Democrat and labor waste, whinge and weakness.

(British Conservative Party election pamphlet, 1997)

We cannot secure peace by standing aside from war. We cannot end danger by putting safety before our friends. We cannot conquer fear by fearing to act ourselves.

(Iain Duncan Smith, Leader of the Conservative Party in Britain, addressing the party's annual conference, 10 October 2001)

The three-part statement is such a powerful structure that politicians have used it even when they have only one point to make. At the 1996 Labor Party conference, Tony Blair claimed that the three main commitments of the Labor Party were 'education, education, education', while at the Conservative Party conference in the same year, that party's main concerns were presented as 'unity, unity, unity'.

يستخدم السياسيون هذه الطريقة أيضاً حتى عند تحدثهم عن فكرة واحدة.

4. Parallelism

When politicians want to draw attention to a particular part of their message and make it stand out from the rest of the speech, they often use parallelism, a device which expresses several ideas in a series of similar structures. This can serve to emphasize that the ideas are equal in importance and can add a sense of symmetry and rhythm, which makes the speech more memorable.

عندما يريد السياسيون تسليط الضوء على جزء معين من رسالة وجعلها تبرز ضمن الخطاب، يستخدمون طريقة (التوازي). وهذا بدوره يعلن للجمهور بأن الأفكار المعروضة هي مساوية لبعضها البعض من حيث الأهمية. كما يضيف استخدام هذه الطريقة تناظر وإيقاع للأفكار، ويجعل الجمهور يتذكر الخطاب بشكلٍ سهل.

Example:

We shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our Island, whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender.

(Winston Churchill, Speech to the House of Commons, 4 June 1940)

The Parallelism here lies on the repetition of (we shall). So, it makes the structure symmetrical and rhythmic and it as importance or emphasis to the words you are trying to make.

In Winston Churchill's speech, we see not only the repetition of specific phrases, *We shall* and *Let freedom ring*, but also parallel structures. Note the repeated use of prepositional phrases by Churchill: *on the beaches, on the landing grounds, in the field,* etc.

He is not just repeating the words (we shall) but he also using parallel prepositional phrases.

ليس تكرار عبارات محددة هو فقط ما يهم، وإنما لدينا أيضاً بُنى متوازية.

5. Pronouns

Even the pronouns that political speakers use to refer to themselves or their audience can be a significant part of the message. They can be used either to foreground or to obscure responsibility and agency. Consider, for example, former US President George Bush's use of pronouns in the extract below; why do you think he changes from (we) to (I)?

حتى استخدام الضمائر ليس بعبثي، يمكن استخدامها إما للتعبير عن الالتزام بمسؤولية معينة ودورنا الفعلي بمهمة ما أو حتى تتجنب المسؤولية.

As we announced last night, we will not attack unarmed soldiers in retreat. We have no choice but to consider retreating combat units as a threat and respond accordingly [. . .] From the beginning of the air operation, nearly six weeks ago, I said that our efforts are on course and on schedule. This morning, I am pleased to say that coalition efforts are ahead of schedule. The liberation of Kuwait is close.

(*The Guardian*, 27 February 1991)

We do not know what (we) refers to, and he does not clarify this. When he shifts to the (I), he wants to take the responsibility for what he is saying. But when he used the (we), it is like he is not really sure what is going on, or who is the responsible for what is going on.

Summary

In this chapter, we have argued that politics is a widespread phenomenon, not restricted to people who make their career as politicians.

ناقشنا في هذا الفصل أن السياسة ظاهرة منتشرة، وهي ليست مقيدة بالأشخاص الذين
يمارسونها (السياسين).

We proposed that ideology is important in constructing a worldview and that people in a society tend to collaborate in the production of certain value systems and ways of talking about things.

اقترحنا أن السياسة مهمة في بناء رؤية للعالم، والناس الموجودون في مجتمع ما يساهمون مجتمعين في إنتاج منظومة من القيم المعينة وطرائق للتكلم عن أشياء معينة.

In the section on the language of persuasion we examined the uses of presupposition and implicature which can be used to convey ideas without explicitly stating them and can make notions which are in fact debatable seem like 'givens'.

Even in commercials, politicians use both presupposition and implicature to persuade us of something as it were a fact.

درسنا استخدامات الافتراض المسبق والتضمين، اللذان يتم استخدامهما لإيصال أفكار لا نريد التعبير عنها بشكل واضح وعلني. وبمقدورنا أن نجعل مفاهيم قابلة للجدل أن تظهر وكأنها أمور طبيعية، وذلك من خلال هذه الأدوات.

Finally, we looked at a variety of frequently occurring rhetorical devices in political discourse, metaphor, euphemism, the three-part statement, parallelism and pronoun use and at ways they can be used to achieve ideological and communicative potency.

تحدثنا عن أدوات الخطاب للتأثير على المشاهد، ولإيصال رسائل أيدلوجية للجمهور.

Thank You

...

LECTURE NO. 8

11.02.2022

HELLO EVERYONE!

"Language and Media"

Table of Contents

- Introduction.
- The function of the media.
- Media, language and power.
- Sources of news.
- Media voices: accent and register.
- Public participation in the media.
- Language, society and virtual power.
- Summary.

Discussion Questions

• What is meant by media?

How do you understand the word media? What comes to your mind when we say this word?

The media is like TV, radio, podcasting, newspaper, etc. In addition to social platforms, such as Facebook, Instagram, etc.

• Why do we use media?

For mass communication, advertising, expressing our views, informing, etc.

Which means of media you follow, and why?

Student: mostly reading online reports, without watching TV.

Instructor: Ok.

• Do you think media has control over our lives?

Yes, it does have control and influence over our lives.

How does achieve this control or influence? Or it does not have a control at all on our lives?

It has control over people who lack a critical thinking, but if they have the knowledge, they will be able to distinguish which sources are good and which are not, which are biased and which are not.

It does not have an all mighty control totally; it is not a total control. Depending on your knowledge, background, etc.

Introduction:

The aim of this chapter is to examine how our knowledge about the world is mediated through press and broadcasting institutions, and to suggest ways in which the analysis of language can provide insights into how that mediation can affect the representation of people, places and events.

سنشرح في هذا الفصل كيفية معرفتنا عن العالم والتي يتم نقلها عن طريق الصحافة والمؤسسات التي لها علاقة بالإعلام (سواء تلفاز أو راديو أو غيره)، وسيتم في هذا الفصل اقتراح طرق تبين أن تحليل اللغة يمكنه تزويدنا بمفاتيح لنفهم آلية عمل الإعلام ودوره في تمثيل الأشخاص والأماكن والأحداث.

The mass media have become one of the principal means through which we gain access to a large part of our information about the world, as well as to much of our entertainment. Because of this, they are a powerful site for the production and circulation of social meanings, i.e. to a great extent the media decide the significance of things that happen in the world for any given culture, society or social group.

Media is not used only for entertainment, but actually to access knowledge and information.

الإعلام له دور كبير في إنتاج واستمرارية المعاني الاجتماعية، وهو يقرر أهمية هذه الأشياء التي حدثت في العالم لأي ثقافة أو مجموعة اجتماعية كانت.

The language used by the media to represent particular social and political groups, and to describe newsworthy events, tends to provide the dominant ways available for the rest of us to talk about those groups and events.

Media has become an essential part of our lives because it influences everything, and affect the representation our perception of the world and ourselves as well.

The function of the media

We use the media for many different purposes; for information, for entertainment and for education, through a range of programs for schools as well as university broadcasts. We listen to the news on radio and television for information about local, national and international events; many people spend hours every week being entertained by a variety of programs from regular soap operas to weekly quizzes and chat shows.

- (Soap opera) is a radio or television serial dealing especially with domestic situations and frequently characterized by melodrama, ensemble casts, and sentimentality. Examples: The Archers, Coronation Street, and Emmerdale in United Kingdom.

Sometimes, the boundaries become blurred between information and entertainment, and a new term has been coined to refer to programs which serve both functions: 'infotainment'.

(Blurred) means (تتلاشى/ تزول).

Infotainment: they are informative and entertainment.

أحياناً تزول الحدود بين المعلومات والترفيه، ونسمي هذه البرامج (Infotainment).

The mass media provide the means of access to much information and represent a potentially powerful force in our society. This is partly due to the fact that the media can select what counts as news, who gets into the papers and on to television and radio and, most importantly for linguists, the way that stories about people and events get told and the frameworks in which people get to appear and talk.

This paragraph about the power of media.

لا يوجد شيء عفوي في الإعلام، حيث أن كل شيء محدد ومرسوم مسبقاً.

However, we must be careful when talking about the media as powerful. Any newspaper story goes through several stages before it appears on the page, and many different people can be involved at each stage.

It is a very complicated process before we get a piece of information delivered for us on TV or in the newspaper

قبل ... نسرع بوصفنا الإعلام بأنه قوي، يجب معرفة أن أي قصة او حدث يُذكر في الصحف

أو في الإعلام يمر بمراحل طويلة كي يتبلور ليصبح خبر أو سبق صحفي. كل ذلك ، وصولها إلى القارئ.

> Rather than seeing the media as being a group of individuals who control and in some way manipulate what we read or watch, we need to think of each medium as a complex institution.

لتبسيط الأمور، نستطيع القول إن الإعلام هو عبارة عن مجموعة من الأفراد الذين يسيطرون ويحرّفون ويتلاعبون بما يتم قراءته ورؤيته، ولكن الموضوع ليس بهذه البساطة لأننا في الإعلام نتعامل مع مؤسسات معقدة.

> This institution is characterized by a set of processes, practices and conventions that the people within it have developed within a particular social and cultural context. These practices have an effect both on what we perceive as news and on the forms in which we expect to hear or read about it.

So, it has an effect on our perception of the world, what we perceive as news and on the forms in which we expected to hear or read about it.

هذه المؤسسات تعرّفها مجموعة من العمليات. وكما قلنا ليس كل شيء عفوي وإنما مرسوم ومعدّ مسبقاً، كما تحكمه عوامل وصيغ معينة.

> We should not be too quick to see the media as all-powerful, and the public as mere puppets of media control. The relationship is not a straightforward one. The reading, listening and viewing public can also choose not to buy, listen or watch; they can switch off, change allegiances and in some cases challenge versions of events.

The relationship between the media and those who are listening or reading the media is not a straightforward one. The reading, listening and viewing public can also choose not to buy, listen or watch television or radio, for example; they can switch off them. So, if you have a critical knowledge, you will be able to challenge the news you are listening to.

لا يجب علينا التسرّع بالحكم على الإعلام بأنه قوي ومسيطر وساند، ونحن في الحقيقة مجرّد دمى في هذه المعادلة.

> For example, as a result of the events surrounding the Princess of Wales's death in August 1997, a new set of laws may be passed in Britain restricting the rights of 'paparazzi' journalists to take intrusive photographs, and this is due in some part at least to the public reaction to her death. On the other hand, the same public were always ready to buy the papers and watch the programs that featured reports of her both when she was alive and after her death, and in that sense, the media were providing, and continue to provide, what sells their product.

- (Paparazzi) means the photographers who are very intrusive and follow the celebrities.

Princess of Wales had so much pressure because she had not privacy as

a princess, and that played a role in her death. It is interesting that because of public reactions to what happed to her, to her tragic death. So, we do have an influence over media, over photographers, and over journalists.

Media, language and power
Is there any relationship between them?

One of the most important and interesting aspects of the potential power of the media from a linguistic point of view is the way that people and events get reported.

ما يهمنا كلغويين كيفية انتقال الخبر لنا.

Since the early 1970s, linguists have been interested in the relationship between how a story gets told, and what that might indicate about the point of view that it gets told from (Lee 1992; Simpson 1993; Montgomery 1996). This level of language use is called linguistic representation, and we will now look at some linguistic structures that can determine how events are represented, and thus lead to different versions, or views, of the same event.

Sometimes, you read about an event in two different newspapers, and you get different information, because these two different newspapers have different ideologies, so each one reports the event differently according to their interests. This is what we called **Linguistic representation**.

On Tuesday 7 January 2003, the news broke that the previous Sunday police had raided a flat in north London, where they found a small quantity of a poison called ricin, and that seven people had been arrested, one of whom was later released. (Ricin had previously been used in the 1978 assassination of a Bulgarian dissident, Georgi Markov, on the London Underground. The poison had been smeared on the tip of an umbrella.)

هذا الحدث سنقرأه ضمن صحيفتين. حدث في العام ٢٠٠٣، حيث كان هناك اقتحام لشقة في شمال لندن، وألقت الشرطة القبض على مجموعة من الأشخاص وبحوزتهم مادة كيميائية تدعى (ريسين).

If we analyze the language used in the articles in The Daily Mail and The Daily Mirror, we find contrasts in how the story was told in each newspaper, and what the implications of this event might be. Looking at the linguistic choices made in the two texts means asking:

سنقارن نفس الخبر ضمن صحيفتين نقلتاه بطريقة مختلفة، علماً أنهما في نفس البلد.

What kinds of words or phrases are being used to refer to people, places, or events?

This is the first question we should ask ourselves if we are watching the news on TV, or if we are reading a newspaper.

What kinds of actions are involved?

And who is responsible for them?

These choices are part of the process of **representation** in discourse. By examining the way events are represented, we can begin to see more clearly how different points of view, or **ideologies**, are constructed linguistically.

هذه الخيارات هي جزء من عملية التمثيل في تحليل النصوص. سنحاول الإجابة عن هذه الأسئلة لسبب، وهو دراسة وجهات النظر المختلفة ونحاول الوصول إلى أي أيدلوجية خفية وراء هذا السرد المختلف في حال وجودها.

The following are the headlines carried on Wednesday 8 January:

Daily Mail	*Daily Mirror*
POISON GANG ON THE LOOSE	IT'S HERE
Huge hunt for terrorists armed with deadly ricin	Deadly terror poison found in Britain

The question is: *What is the difference between these two headlines? Are they different, how?*

They are both not identical and not delivering the same information. The first is detailed while the second is not.

In the first headline, the group is identified as terrorists, while in the second one we do not know anything about their identities, they could be terrorists, or any other group. The opening sentence is different. In the second, when we say "IT'S HERE", you do not know what are we talking about unless you read the rest of the headline. "Deadly terror poison found in Britain", we do not know what kind of poison it is, we do not know where it is found exactly, the headline is a little bit mysterious, and probably they are trying to capture our interest. While the first one has more details about the gang itself, it is a poison gang, and they are identified as terrorists, and police are trying to arrest them because they are armed with deadly ricin. So, there is much information given in the *Daily Mail* than in the *Daily Mirror*.

Discussion questions

- What is the focus of each headline?
- What differences do you find between the two reports?
- Who is involved?
- What about the sentence structure in both reports?
- How is the kitchen described according to the Mirror?
- What is the effect of these different choices in representation?
- Is there a difference in the two papers' interpretation of what this event means?
- Do these two stories reveal two different ideological stances taken by the two papers?

Whenever you read reports in newspapers or you listening, these are

some critical tools to help us analyse the information we are given.

Now, we are going to read the two reports.

The Mail	vs.	The Mirror
Britain was on red alert for a bio-terror attack last night as a hunt was launched for a gang of suspected Al Qaeda activists armed WITH A DEADLY POISON.		Police who raided an Al Qaeda poison factory in London fear most of THE DEADLY RICIN is missing and in the hands of terrorists.

What differences do you find in these two paragraphs?

What is the information we know about the attack in the Mail?

The time of the attack is last night, while in The Mirror we do not know.

Who are the suspects in both reports? How are they described?

In the *Mail*, it is suspected to be **Al Qaeda activists**. While in the *Mirror*, they are know that it is **Al Qaeda terrorists**.

In the *Mail*, they refer to **Britain**. While in the *Mirror*, they refer to **London**.

In the *Mail*, they talk about a **bio-terror attack** (Chemical attack). While in the *Mirror*, they focus on the **police attacking**, or **trying to arrest the gang**.

But there is an interesting detail in the *Mirror* that they say it is a "poison factory" where they make chemicals, so almost the same.

Both narrate the event differently.

There is also a difference in the passive and active voice. In the *Mirror*, they say "police **raided**" and "**Al Qaeda poison**" but in the *Mail*, they say "**a hunt was launched**". So, the focus in the *Mail* is not on the police much as in the *Mirror*.

Here is the continuation of the story as it appeared in the next five paragraphs in each paper:

Anti terrorist police arrested seven North Africans after the discovery of traces of ricin, which can send a person into a coma and kill within hours.

One of those held is believed to have worked as a science teacher. Security sources said at least three members of the alleged terror cell were still at large and may be in possession of the chemical.

The amount seized is too small to launch any 'mass casualty' attacks but the real fear is an assassination attack on a major public figure, such as the prime minister, by spraying the toxin in his face or injecting it.

Britain was on alert last night for an attack, possibly by aerosol spray or by smearing the substance on door handles at busy public buildings or shopping centres.

Confined spaces such as a commuter train carriage, a Tube station or a lunchtime restaurant were thought to be possible targets of the original plot.

Six men and one woman were arrested on Sunday in swoops on the ricin 'plant' — a flat in Wood Green, North London — and other addresses in the north and east of the capital.

AVDI 2022/ T2

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it could also be ingested through the skin after being smeared on door knobs or handrails. 'People who come in contact with it will die,' said a government source.

Westminster sources revealed that level of security surrounding Tony Blaire have been 'significantly upgraded' over the past few days.

The Males – in their late teens, 20s and 30s – are all said to be Algerians linked to Osama bin Laden's network. The woman has been freed.

Up to 30 more confederates are feared to be operating in Britain, most of them living in London.

The first is in the *Mail* and the second is in the *Mirror*. Go back to the discussion questions we read before, and try to answer them. *What are the differences between these two paragraphs?*

What is the information we have here?

They did not mention the suspects, their nationalities, or ethnics. They just mention where the possible place of the terror attack (public buildings, shopping centers, commuter train carriage, tube station, or lunchtime restaurant). The target of this attack is the people, according to the *Mirror*.

According the *Mail*, one of the terrorists is a science teacher, and there is no certainty of this piece of information.

The *Daily Mail* represents the threat from the poison gang as attacking public figures, like the Prime Minister Tony Blair. While the *Mirror* sees the main threat as being to ordinary members of the British community or British public, so they fear for the society rather than for high profile politicians.

The sources of information in the *Mirror* are not directly attributed, for example: "the males - in their late teens 20s and 30s – are all said to be Algerians linked to Osama bin Laden" but we do not know who said so, we do not know who the agent of the sentence. So, there is less emphasis in the Mirror on the sources of information or government sources in contrast to the *Mail*. The agent of the action is missing.

Who are the people arrested in each report? Are they the same? How are the suspects defined?

In the *Daily Mail*, seven North Africans. While in the *Mirror*, six men and one woman, so they are defined as North Africans, and also the males in their late teens 20s and 30s are not defined to be Algerians, they are said to be.

So, there is a difference in the level of certainty about the identity of the suspects, in the first report we are sure they are North Africans, but in the

second they are said to be Algerians.

The *Mail* uses the number of mitigating strategies; we talked about (**Mitigating Strategies**) last time. When woman uses mitigating strategies, the language is less serious, and avoids conflicts or confrontation. So, here the males use a number of mitigating strategies, which function to distance them from strong claims about the identity of the gang. They said, for example, "suspected Al Qaeda activists".

Examples of mitigating strategies in the *Mail*: "a hunt was launched for a gang of suspected Al Qaeda activists", "one of those held is believed to have worked as a science teacher". They are no certain, they make claims but these claim are not strong. Also we have "members of the alleged terror cell" they function to distance them from strong claims about the identity of the gang.

But the *Daily Mirror* uses the **unmitigated** phrase "terrorists", they have specified the identity of the men arrested, they are terrorists. So, this is unmitigated. The only one mitigated identity description is "the males are all said to be Algerians", they are uncertain about their identities.

So, the difference when we study these languages, and the use of language in both reports, is that the males in the first reports seem to be more cautious than in second one about the identity of the gang. They do not want to make strong claims about the identity of the gang, they are not certain.

The following paragraphs appear a little further down in each article.

Scotland Yard swooped at 10am on Sunday in a flat above a pharmacy in Wood Green, North London, after receiving a tip-off over the New Year. Up to 20 officers wearing white protective suits found equipment covered in chemical traces and began removing items in protective black bags.	Armed special Branch officers in white chemical warfare suits smashed their way into the rented Wood Green property in the early hours. A small quantity of ricin – used in the 1978 umbrella murder in London of Bulgarian dissident Georgi Markov – was found amid a kitchen laboratory for making more of it.

The *Mirror* has a stranger ending; they refer to the dissident Georgi Markov. They refer to an event in the past about the assignation of a politician called Georgi Markov. *Why this is important?* It is an example from the past.

Why did they mention this example here? What effect it just adds to the story? To become more alarming, and it reminds us of previous event, they are warning us. They are trying to add suspense to the story, and this what

they did in the headline by saying "IT'S HERE", we do not know what it is.

So, it is like drama element, or a thriller about secret agent or something.

- *Who is involved in each paragraph?* In the *Mail*, anti-terrorist police, seven North African terrorists, Westminster sources, government source, Scotland Yard, 20 officers.

Now, when it comes to describing the **government officials** and **spokespersons** in the first report, we have Tony Blair, Westminster sources, and government source.

In the *Mirror*, the involved are six men and one woman, the Algerian males in their late teens 20s and 30s, Osama bin Laden, armed special Branch officers in white chemical warfare suits.

But the second report gives no information about the **government officials** and **spokespersons**.

- *Where was the poison found in each report?*

In the *Daily Mail*, the poison was found in a flat **above a pharmacy in London**. While in the *Daily Mirror*, it was in a **kitchen laboratory** for making more of it.

So, in the *Mirror*, uses different phrases to describe the kitchen in the North London, they say in the report that "**Al Qaeda poison factory**", later they said "**the ricin plant**", which is also a factory, and the "**kitchen laboratory**". But in the Mail, they use only one phrase, "**a flat above a pharmacy in London in Wood Green, North London**".

- *What is the effect of these different choices in representation? Why does the Mirror use three different phrases for the place, whereas the Mail uses one phrase about the place? Does it have an effect? Does it add something different?* Showing the level of dangerous still going in a factory or laboratory, according to the *Mirror*, whereas in the *Mail* it is in a flat, so the dangerous is limited, and it is not as big as it was represented in the *Mirror*.

The danger in the *Mirror* is way bigger than it was represented in the *Mail*.

- *What about the officers in both reports? Who are they described by the two reports?* In the *Daily Mail*, the officers "Up to 20 officers wearing white protective suits found equipment..." while in the *Mirror*, they were "Armed special Branch officers in white chemical warfare suits smashed their way into the property". They are almost similar but the description in the *Mirror* is more dramatic because it describes it as "white chemical warfare suits" not just a "protective suit".

- If you think about the ideological point of view in both reports. *How different are they? Is there a difference in the two papers in the interpretation of what does the event mean, especially when it comes to the*

danger of the gang? Where does the threat lie from the perspective of the Mail and the perspective of the Mirror?

The *Daily Mail* represents the threat from the poison gang as attacking public figures, like the Prime Minister Tony Blair. While the *Mirror* sees the main threat as being to ordinary members of the British community or British public, so they fear for the society rather than for high profile politicians.

In the *Mirror*, they list six places where the poison could be found, they said that it could be used on door handles, shopping centers, public spaces, commuter train, Tube station, and lunchtime restaurant. So, they concern is for the public of British community rather than for politicians.

In these two reports, I wanted to show you how the same even is narrated differently in the *Mail* and in the *Mirror*. So, there are differences in the style, as well as, in meaning.

For the *Mail*, the danger is in the establishment for the senior public figures, which are underlies the origin hunt for the rest of them. While for the *Mirror*, is the dangerous to the British public, which is for granted.

I cannot find ideological differences between the two reports, I would not say that one is rightwing and the other is leftwing, but the main difference is about that one newspaper was concerned with the establishment and maintaining some order to increasing the security for the danger launched by the gang, which is in the *Mail*. While in the *Mirror*, the concern was on the British society, how to locate the poison, the danger of the poison in the public places, etc.

*****

Sources of news

The attribution of a source is important to the level of 'factuality' that can be claimed for a story. In the following extract from a story about Princess Diana and British rugby player Will Carling, the 'facts' of the case are far from clear. Although sources are given, the original source of the information on which the newspaper bases its report is masked by the way this paragraph is written. A complex series of reporting phrases appears to indicate the source, but effectively succeeds in making it quite difficult to retrieve. These phrases are italicized in the text below:

من المهم أن ننسب الخبر لمصدر معين لتأكيد مصداقية القصة.

سنجد أن مصادر الخبر هي "قيل عن قال" و(The newspaper claimed)، وحتى لم نعرف من هي الصحيفة. والمصدر الذي بنت عليه الصحيفة خبرها مخفي بطريقة كتابة الموضوع.

لقد تم استخدام عدة أشباه جمل لتتم عملية نقل الخبر، ولتتم الدلالة على المصدر. ولكن التعابير التي تم استخدامها لم تقدّم شيء وإن نؤكد صحة الخبر.

The newspaper *claimed* Mr. Carling arranged to take former Englan foot-

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baller Gary Lineker to lunch with the princess at Kensington Palace earlier this year. A friend of Mr. Carling's is *reported as saying*: 'He [Mr. Carling] *told* me later Gary had boiled out *saying*, "that woman's trouble".'

<div align="right">(The Guardian, 7 August 1995)</div>

How this event was narrated or reported? Why are the facts of the case far from clear? Are there any samples in this report that show lack of certainty?

"The newspaper claimed" means that they are not certain. "Mr. Carling's is reported as saying".

What is the source of information do we have in this report? Do we have a government source of information?

We have one official source of information, which is "The newspaper claimed". We have other sources like *the footballer Gary Lineker, and Mr. Carling.*

So, the report range from the direct said and told to the more mitigated. It is reporting as said and claimed, suggesting that the paper is anxious not claim outright that discard or hand information as absolute fact.

> In this section we have shown how the linguistic choices made in a text can construct different accounts, or linguistic representations, of events in the world.

<div dir="rtl">

نستنتج أن الخيارات اللغوية تلعب دوراً في بناء سرد مختلف لنفس الخبر وزوايا لنقل هذا الخبر، أو تمثيلات مختلفة لأحداث موجودة في العالم.

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Activity 1

> Look at two newspapers on the same day and compare two versions of the same story. What differences can you detect in the way language is used? Do these differences influence or affect your interpretation of the event?

It is very important that we, as linguists and translators, always compare and never trust what we are reported in the newspaper or on TV.

<div align="center">*****</div>

Commonsense discourses

> The tendency to represent people, situations and events in regular and predictably similar ways results in the linguistic choices that are used in these representations becoming established in our culture as the most usual, prevailing ways of talking or writing about types of people and events.

<div dir="rtl">

ينتج عن هذا الاختيار اللغوي ضمن الصحف لعرض أو تمثيل الأشخاص والمواقف والأحداث، أننا نصبح نتبنى هذه المفردات والبنى اللغوية، وتصبح هي الشيء السائد والبديهي.

</div>

> Once something has been represented in a particular way, it becomes more difficult to talk 'around', or outside that representation, to find an alternative way of describing a social group X, or a political event Y. We call these prevailing choices in representation **commonsense** or **dominant discourses.**

Here is the definition of *Commonsense*, which is the kind of discourses or representations that we hear and use a lot in the news or in the media, and in a way that they become cliché, we cannot overcome or go beyond them or even question them. They become a kind of fixed representations.

An illustration of how one event can become the frame for representing subsequent events is the tendency to refer to any story of American presidential cover-up scandal as some kind of 'gate'.

كيف ممكن لحدث واحد أن يصبح إطار لتمثيل أحداث أخرى متتالية، مثلاً فضيحة التغطية على الرئاسة الأمريكية واستخدام كلمة (gate).

Example:
Since Nixon and the Watergate scandal, there has been Reagan and 'Irangate', Clinton and 'Whitewatergate', followed by 'Zippergate', and 'Fornigate'. While the history and circumstances of each individual situation may be distinct, the use of the term 'gate' categorizes them according to the notion of an American president deliberately setting out to deceive the American public.

So, the word (gate) here is what we called a commonsense or dominant discourse, and it used to refer to an American president tries to deceive the American public.

تم استخدام كلمة (gate) لأول مرة خلال فضيحة التغطية على الرئاسة الأمريكية، للتعبير عن مجاولة الرئيس الأمريكي لخداع الجمهور الأمريكي. ومنذ ذلك الوقت أصبحت هذه الكلمة تستخدم مع أي فضيحة بمعنى (فضيحة التستير)، على الرغم من عدم ارتباط هذه الأحداث ببعضها البعض.

The category has also been taken up by the British press and has been used in the context of the British royal family. 'Camillagate' was the story of the long-standing relationship between Prince Charles and Camilla Parker-Bowles, which hit the headlines some years after his marriage to Diana Spencer, when her problems with him and other members of the royal family had entered the public domain.

Here the (Camillagate) refer to the scandal in the royal family.

قامت الصحف البريطانية أيضاً بتبني كلمة (gate) وأصبحت تستخدمها مع العائلة الملكية. تسربت فضيحة (Camillagate) إلى العلن بعد أن بدأت مشاكل الأمير تشارلز والأميرة ديانا والأسرة الحاكمة.

The power to change?

If the media are powerful as a site for producing and maintaining dominant discourses, as we have claimed in the previous section, they can also be a possible site for change. One of the most publicly discussed changes in recent years has been the move to use non-sexist language, and to encourage symmetry in the representation of men and women. Sometimes the press can

be seen to be trying to adopt grammatical forms which are neutral, such as the **third person pronoun** 'they' or 'them' as a non-specified-gender **pronoun**.

إن للإعلام موقع قوي جداً لإنتاج الخطابات المسيطرة والمحافظة على استمراريته، ولكن هذا لا يعني أن دورنا مهمّش وسلبي ضمن هذه المعادلة، بل لدينا القدرة على التغيير.

مثال على عدم سلبية دورنا وعلاقتنا مع الإعلام بشكلٍ مطلق، ولكن باستطاعتنا أن نقوم بتغيير ما. والتغيير الذي أُدخل على المعادلة هو استخدام لغة غير منحازة جنسياً، بالتشجيع على التناظر في تمثيل الرجال والنساء في اللغة.

يتم تشجيع الصحافة على استخدام بنى أو هياكل قواعدية حيادية، كاستخدام ضمائر غير متعلقة بجنس أو نوع اجتماعي معين.

Instead of saying he *for all people, we use* they.

The following extract is from a story about Texan farmers suing the talk show host Oprah Winfrey for damaging their business when she invited people on to her show to talk about the risks involved in eating American beef:

قامت (أوبر) بتخصيص حلقها ضمن برنامجها التلفزيوني المشهور للحديث عن مخاطر أكل اللحم البقر، فتمت مقاضاتها من قبل المزارعين بادعائهم أنها دمرت عملهم جراء ذلك.

And this year the average American will chew their way through 631 b of Texan beef, compared to only 51 lb of chicken and 46.71 b of pork. It's an ill-advised man who stands between an *American* and *his* burgers.

(*The Guardian*, 10 February 1998)

تمت الإشارة إلى الكمية التي يتناولها المواطن الأمريكي من اللحم أنها أكثر من كمية الدجاج أو لحم الخنزير.

How would you describe the language used in this paragraph? Does it maintain dominant discourse, or does it try to go for a sign for change? Do we have a dominant discourse in this report, or does it use neutral kind of language?

It is not neutral because they said "an ill-advised **man** who stands between an American and **his** burgers". So, they refer to all Americans in the masculine, which is sexist language. At the beginning, they said "the average American will chew **their** way", here we have a neutral language, but at the end, they went back to a dominant discourse, which is a sexist discourse.

In this section we have introduced the concept of **dominant discourses** within the context of the media, and have suggested that these discourses are produced by recurring similarities in the way information is represented.

تم التعرف على مفهوم الخطاب السائد ضمن سياق الإعلام. ويتم إنتاج هذه الخطابات السائدة من خلال تشابهات تتكرر في المعلومات التي يتم تمثيلها.

We have looked at some examples of linguistic choice in reporting newsworthy events, and how different newspapers can represent the same event in different ways.

In the next section we turn to the question of 'voice' in the media, looking at whose voices are represented, and who gets to say what.

أهمية الصوت في الإعلام، ومن مسموح له بالكلام وكيف يتم تمثيل هذا الصوت.

Media voices: accent and register

What is the difference between accent and register?

What is the difference between accent and dialect? We talked about it.

Accent means how someone pronounces the words, the style of pronunciation, example: we all live in Damascus but we have different accents. Whereas **Dialect** is not just pronunciation but it also refers to the vocabulary we use and grammar, for example: comparing the dialect of Damascus with the dialect of Hama.

Register means the variation of a language that is determined by use in a specific situation or context.

Activity 2

When you listen to the news on your local radio station, what **accent** does the newsreader have? Is this the same as those on the national, or more prestigious, radio station? Listen to the television news at different times of the day; do you notice any difference in the accents of the newsreaders at these times?

There is no specific accent used because they use the standard language.

It is not unified in all radio stations and TVs. For example, for English language, we have the British, American and Australian English accent, so they may use one of them.

In the early days of news broadcasting in Britain, the accent used almost exclusively by presenters was one called advanced **Received Pronunciation** (advanced RP). This was the accent of the educated and the wealthy, which gave no indication of what part of the country the speaker came from.

It is standard and neutral.

في بدايات عملية نقل الأخبار في بريطانيا، كان يوجد لكنة مستخدمة بشكل حصري من قبل المذيعين وتدعى (advanced Received Pronunciation). وكانت لكنة الخاصة بالأثرياء والمتعلمين فقط، ولم يكن بالإمكان تمييز لكنة المتحدث كونه يتحدث باللكنة الرسمية.

This accent gave rise to the expression **BBC English**, so strong was the link between this accent and the British Broadcasting Corporation. This has now given way to what is known as 'mainstream RP', an accent which sounds less formal than advanced RP and is the one that most people in Britain generally hear when they listen to newsreaders on national television.

So, on national television, all newsreaders must follow this accent. It is neutral objective, it does not show which region the newsreader comes

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from, and it is quite prestigious. They are well-educated.

أدت هــذه اللغــة الرســمية البريطانيــة لوجــود عــدة أنـواع للــ (RP) (advanced) و(mainstream).

This established use of mainstream RP is linked to the continuing perceived status of RP as an accent of authority.

ونتيجة لاستخدام هذه اللغة الرسمية من قبل المتعلمين والأثرياء، أصبحت لغة السلطة والقوة.

In radio and television discourse, the occurrence of marked regional variation in accent in the national news tends to be organized according to a hierarchy within programs: the main newsreaders in the television studio read in standard English, with a mainstream RP accent, while the accents of specialist reporters outside the studio 'at the scene' are much less constrained and may sometimes be regionally marked.

كــان لا يُسمح للأشخاص مـن بعض المنـاطق البريطانيـة بـالظهور والمشـاركة فـي البرامج التلفزيونيـة والإذاعيـة علـى (BBC) فقط لكونهم لا يتكلمون اللغة الرسمية الخاصة بها. وكانت الأخبـار تُلقـى باللغـة الرسمية حصـراً بـدون أي لكنـة ظـاهرة، وفـي المقابـل لـم يكـن الصـحفيون المتواجدون في مكان الأحداث خارج الاستديو مقيدون باللغة الرسمية.

Voice-overs in documentaries are also likely to be mainstream RP, while the accents of sports commentators, weather presenters, political commentators and other media 'voices' tend to be more regionally varied.

- (Voice-over) is a piece of narration in a movie, podcast, or documentary, not a compared by an image of the speaker.

So, in sport, weather, sometimes in politics, and other media genres, such as talk shows and entertainment shows, the presenters have the freedom to use their own accent, unlike documentaries.

ومن هنا نستنتج وجود تراتبية للمذيعين وناقلي الأخبار، وذلك وفقاً للكنة واللغة التي يتحدثون بها.
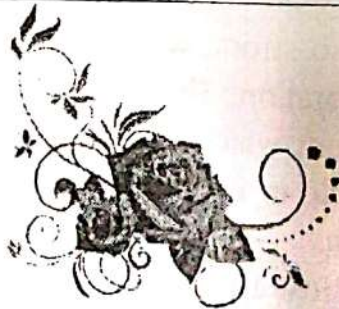
Thank You

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