Chapter one

Introduction

1.1 Overview

Headlines writing is a special form of short writing, few words must draw attention to the story behind it. The main purpose of headlines in a newspaper is to attract the readers' attention. However, headlines also help summarize stories, help readers index the contents of the pages, and depict the mood of stories. They also help set the tone of the newspaper and serve as design elements on a page. News headlines, which have become an interest of linguistics, this is because news headlines are considered to have their own characteristics and status in news discourse. Newspaper headlines are written in a special kind of language with its own vocabulary and grammar.

Look around and you will see headlines everywhere. We see them on movie marquees, splashed across newspapers and magazines, on the Internet and in crawlers on TV news. Headlines even slip into our speech: “I don’t want a long story about how you spent that much money. Just give me the headline.”

Headline writing is a special form of short writing. A headline is artful phrasing that informs and entices in just a few words. Think of the stories in a newspaper as you would the movie posters in a theater. Without headlines, or movie titles, readers would be left to their own devices to figure out which movie to watch. However, with headlines, readers are drawn to the movies they would be most interested in. Headlines in a newspaper serve the same purpose.

Short writing extends to text messages and social media, Twitter, which determines the writing of 140 only with over 300 million active users around the world. A world where everything is becoming fast, fast food, fast reading and fast writing. As long as the needs of language users continue to change, so will the language.
The main purpose of headlines in a newspaper is to attract the readers’ attention. However, headlines also help summarize stories, help readers index the contents of the pages, and depict the mood of stories. They also help set the tone of the newspaper and serve as design elements on a page. News headlines, which has become an interest of linguistics, this is because news headlines are considered to have their own characteristics and status in news discourse. Newspaper headlines are written in a special kind of language with its own vocabulary and grammar.

The style of writing headlines is aiming to save space and presenting information in striking ways. The spatial constraint in newspapers does not allow editors to put everything into the headlines. Instead, they have to pick out the outstanding information from the news stories to be highlighted in the headlines. They will choose appropriate linguistic expressions, sentence structures or rhetorical devices which can best fit the information to be expressed in the headlines. In addition, information which is assumed among the readers or can be concluded from the context is always omitted from the headlines.

1.2 Statement of the study

English newspapers writing style generally consists of three parts. These are: headlines, lead and body. The headline is the most interesting of them, because its grammar and usage are very distinctive. Headlines have distinctive syntactic properties, which make them a grammatical oddity. The headline is a unique type of text. It has a range of functions that specifically dictate its shape, content and structure, and it operates within a range of restrictions that limit the freedom of the writer. It encapsulates the story, i.e. article content, in a minimum number words, attracts the reader to the story and, if it appears on the front page, attracts the reader to the paper. As with any good writing good headlines are driven by good verbs and good verb tense.

Newspaper writing is rarely a representation of common English. Headlines in newspapers, in particular, use different grammar rules to everyday English. This is because they are designed to be short and to attract attention. Tenses in newspaper headlines has its own rules one of
this rules is using the historic present for past events to make the news more fresh, more vivid and to give some life to it.

Understanding tense usage within headlines may lead to understand the language of headlines in particular and the language of media in general, most important to understand the manipulative media now a days. It is more important now a days to study this condensed language as it is not only used in headlines, but also used in Twitter and text messages. In other words it is not only used by journalists only but by everyone who use twitter or text messages are using it now a days.

1.3 Questions of the study

These are the main questions of the study :-

1- What are the most frequent tense used in newspaper headlines?
2- To what extent do readers care about breaking grammatical rules?
3- Why the condensed language of newspapers headlines and twitter is becoming more popular ?
4- To what extent do readers of English language are aware of the manipulation of media?
1.4 Hypotheses of the study

Four research hypotheses are formulated as follows:

1- There is a tendency to use present tense in headlines as a historic present in hot news to make the story fresher and more vivid. Other tenses are less frequent.

2- Readers are careless about breaking grammatical rules.

3- Twitter with its condensed information in only 140 letters which is similar to headlines is becoming the main source of news.

4- Readers are not aware that newspapers are a special kind of writing aiming to sell more and to shape public opinions.

1.5 Objectives of the study

1- The present study explores the importance of newspaper headlines as a part of the importance of media nowadays and how it influent all aspects of our life.

2- The study aims to investigate the language of newspaper headlines in general and the tenses that the editors often use in particular to make sure that their title is dragging as much attention as possible.

3- Headlines have a special grammar which differs from that of ordinary sentences. One feature of this grammar is a special tense system. This research examines the tense used in headlines.

4- The aim of the present paper is to explore the ways the present tense is used in newspaper headlines and explain what functions this tense fulfills.
1.6 Significance of the study

A newspaper headline is often the only thing that readers read in a newspaper, or at least, it is the first thing that everyone notices in a newspaper. It serves as a guide for the reader and helps him or her decide whether to continue on reading the whole report or to skip onto another one. Each headline should be a summary of the news which follows.

Majority of readers use headlines to decide whether or not to read your article. Doesn’t matter how good or bad your actual article is. If it has a weak headline, they won’t read it. With the widespread of electronic newspapers the attention of studying headlines Increased not only that headlines are doing its main role in dragging readers attention but also it is very important with the searching engines.

The condense language of newspaper headlines produced some major issues one of it is verbs. because even when they put some verbs in a headlines the tense is usually confusing the reader even more. The major reason for that is the space. There is only limited space provided for each headline, but more often this happens on purpose to make the headline somehow special with the aim to attract the reader’s attention to the report or even to buy the newspaper at all. In that case, readers are mystified, confused and in the end, after reading the report they can feel disappointed as it did not fulfill their expectations.
1.7 Methodology of the Study

The research used Google docs/forms to collect and analyze data. A questionnaire for online readers is used as a tool of data collections. The collected data will be analyzed using Google forms.

1.8 Limits of the study


A 50 headlines will be analyzed from each newspaper the date 25/26/27/28/29/30/December 2015. As the focus of the present study is on the use of tenses in headlines, the non-verbal headlines, will not be dealt with. The headlines were analyzed into two areas the first pair consisted of headlines with finite verbal forms according to the tense used. The second pair consisted of the Status of the present tense only. because the present tense is the main tense in headlines as the first two tables reveals. Also a questionnaire about media language held in November 2015, 18 question will determine readers reaction to media language in general and headlines in particular.
CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

2-1 Introduction

Headline writing is a special form of short writing, few words must draw attention to the story behind it. The main purpose of headlines in a newspaper is to attract the readers’ attention. However, headlines also help summarize stories, help readers index the contents of the pages, and depict the mood of stories. They also help set the tone of the newspaper and serve as design elements on a page. News headlines, which has become an interest of linguistics, this is because news headlines are considered to have their own characteristics and status in news discourse. Newspaper headlines are written in a special kind of language with its own vocabulary and grammar.

Before social media and communication expanded to such a degree, a well written, smart letter to the editor with a good point of view could bring about changes in local policies, politics and practices. That’s because everybody read the local paper every day, or knew someone who did, regardless of age, occupation or social or financial status. Entire communities were brought together daily in one place by one or two affordable publications. Competition for space on the page was intense. Unlike social media today, there was no place for knee-jerk responses to anything in that valuable place. One had to think for a while before communicate.

Newspapers are still the number one media for shaping public opinion. Their credibility, knowledge, values and information-gathering skills remain a formidable force on the street, and with titles now separated into sections with more lifestyle content, in other words, add Print, add Power.

But the success of newspapers largely boils down to a single truth: they are effective in shaping opinion. They possess a large amount of power when it comes to public perception. Used well, that power can completely transform your opinion.
Four out of five Germans, 83 per cent of the British, and over 80 per cent of Swedes all read a newspaper on an average day. For many, newspapers are the most reliable form of news and information, backing up this information with credible opinion and insight. It’s this level of trust that leads to readers spending a huge amount of time reading their newspaper – 40 minutes on average – with two thirds of readers at least three quarters of the content. On the weekend, these figures increase further.

The headline is an integral part of the news story. It is meant to arouse the reader’s interest and make him read the whole article. In a way, the headline has to "sell" the story to the reader. Since the headline is usually the first thing that a person reads in a news article, it provides a framework for the reading process and steers the reader in a certain direction, because the reader begins to read the text with the headline. Thus, after reading a headline such as "House prices up", he has some expectation of what the following lines will be about, and he will do everything possible to connect these lines to the headline. (Pajunen, 2008; 8)

Media managers create, process, refine, and preside over the circulation of images and information which determine our beliefs and attitudes and, ultimately, our behavior. When they deliberately produce messages that do not correspond to the realities of social existence, the media managers become mind managers. Messages that intentionally create a false sense of reality and produce a consciousness that cannot comprehend or willfully rejects the actual conditions of life, personal or social, are manipulative messages." (Schiller, 1973:1)

Newspapers aim either to sell or to shape public opinion or both in a small space and within a short time, to achieve this editors have to break a lot of rules and grammatical rules are part of it. What is ordinarily looked upon as a violation of grammar rules in any other kind of writing is becoming increasingly common as a functional peculiarity of newspaper style. Tense as a part of newspaper headlines in particular and media in general has its share of violation. Each tense in the system of English tenses is able to express many variations of author’s opinion and attitude to the topic. To explain why this violations are so common we need to understand how powerful is the language of media.
2.2 The Power of Media Language

The word ‘power’ refers to the power of dominant institutions within our society, and how these institutions maintain their dominance through the use of language: media (newspapers, television), advertising, ext.) . The public institutions of our society have powers of various sorts. One important power is to control the flow of information: what gets into the press, and how it is presented . The public media is the primary means of shaping public opinion. And if one can shape public opinion, one can change (or strengthen) the power structures that exist . The public media uses the term ‘manufacture of consent’: if one can convince the people to accept your right to act in specific ways, then you can so act. (Bielsa & O’Donnell, 2008;1)

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\text{Power Structures } \quad = \quad \text{Public Discourse}
\]

These powerful institutions include legally defined entities such as governments, political parties, companies, etc. For instance, if a political party holds some control over a newspaper or television station, then they can control, to some extent, the content delivered through that newspaper or television station and also, how that content is expressed . (Bielsa & O’Donnell, 2008;2)

When World War I swept away, the monarchy in Germany, a social-democratic government took office in Berlin. Afterward, Communists tried to overthrow this new government. Both the Communists and the government felt that controlling the press would mean controlling not just public opinion but the people as well. Thus began a fierce battle for the power of the press. Over the past few centuries, newspapers have shaped culture, influenced politics, played an important role in business, and affected the daily lives of millions. (http://wol.jw.org/2015:3)

In some places today, about 3 out of 4 people over the age of 14 read a newspaper daily. While certain developing countries have fewer than 20 copies of a daily newspaper for every 1,000 inhabitants, Norway has more than 600. Altogether, around the globe, about 38,000 newspapers compete for readership. Everywhere, newspapers inform the public of important affairs. But they do more than that. They provide information on which many readers form opinions. “Our daily newspaper reading,” claims Dieter
Offenhäusser of the German Commission for UNESCO “our attitudes, our conduct, and even our fundamental moral values.”(ibid)

Historians say newspapers have instigated, supported, and justified wars. They cite the 1870-71 Franco-Prussian War, the Spanish-American War of 1898, and the Vietnam War of 1955-75 ext. Many businessmen, scientists, entertainment stars, and politicians have come to grief over a scandal publicized in newspapers. In the famed Watergate scandal of the mid-1970’s, investigative journalism set off a series of events that forced U.S. President Richard M. Nixon to resign. Yes, for good or for bad, the press can be a mighty power to reckon with.(ibid)

Let’s take another example from the relatively transparent case of political discourse. In politics, each opposing party or political force tries to win general acceptance for its own discourse type as the preferred and ultimately the 'natural' one for talking and writing about the state, government, forms of political action, and all aspects of politics - as well as for demarcating politics itself from other domains.( Fairclough, 1996:90)

“Foolish is the man who never reads a newspaper; even more foolish is the man who believes what he reads just because it is in the newspaper.”—August von Schlözer, German historian and journalist of the late 18th century. In one survey several thousand people in Britain and France were asked how much trust they placed in each of 13 institutions. The press came in last, even after politics and big business. In the United States, most readers still say they believe their newspaper. But surveys by the Pew Research Center show that the percentage of believers has declined.(http://wol.jw.org/,2015:8)

There is often justification for skepticism, especially when what is said involves the national interests of the country in which a newspaper is printed. What happens then? Truth is often sacrificed. As Arthur Ponsonby, an English statesman of the 20th century, once noted: “When war is declared, Truth is the first casualty.”( http://wol.jw.org/,2015:8)

The role of the media in contemporary politics forces us to ask what kind of a world and what kind of a society we want to live in. (Chomsky, 1991:6)(1). The major media - particularly, the elite media that set the agenda that others generally follow -- are corporations "selling" privileged audiences to other businesses. It would hardly come as a surprise if the picture of the world they present were to reflect the perspectives and
interests of the sellers, the buyers, and the product. Concentration of ownership of the media is high and increasing. Furthermore, those who occupy managerial positions in the media, or gain status within them as commentators, belong to the same privileged elites, and might be expected to share the perceptions, aspirations, and attitudes of their associates, reflecting their own class interests as well. Journalists entering the system are unlikely to make their way unless they conform to these ideological pressures, generally by internalizing the values; it is not easy to say one thing and believe another, and those who fail to conform will tend to be weeded out by familiar mechanisms. (Chomsky, 1989:8)

Many other factors induce the media to conform to the requirements of the state-corporate nexus. To confront power is costly and difficult; high standards of evidence and argument are imposed, and critical analysis is naturally not welcomed by those who are in a position to react vigorously and to determine the array of rewards and punishments. Conformity to a "patriotic agenda," in contrast, imposes no such costs. Charges against official enemies barely require substantiation; they are, furthermore, protected from correction, which can be dismissed as apologetics for the criminals or as missing the forest for the trees. The system protects itself with indignation against a challenge to the right of deceit in the service of power, and the very idea of subjecting the ideological system to rational inquiry elicits incomprehension or outrage, though it is often masked in other terms. One who attributes the best intentions to the U.S. government, while perhaps deploring failure and ineptitude, requires no evidence for this stance, as when we ask why "success has continued to elude us" in the Middle East and Central America, why "a nation of such vast wealth, power and good intentions [cannot] accomplish its purposes more promptly and more effectively" (Landrum Bolling). Standards are radically different when we observe that "good intentions" are not properties of states, and that the United States, like every other state past and present, pursues policies that reflect the interests of those who control the state by virtue of their domestic power, truisms that are hardly expressible in the mainstream, surprising as this fact may be. (Chomsky, 1989:10)

The struggle over language can manifest itself as a struggle between ideologically diverse discourse types. What is at stake is the establishment or maintenance of one type as the dominant one in a given social domain, and therefore the establishment or maintenance of certain ideological assumptions as commonsensical. Let's take another example from the
relatively transparent case of political discourse. In politics, each opposing party or political force tries to win general acceptance for its own discourse type as the preferred and ultimately the 'natural' one for talking and writing about the state, government, forms of political action, and all aspects of politics - as well as for demarcating politics itself from other domains.(Fairclough,1989:90)

Whether they're called "liberal" or "conservative," the major media are large corporations, owned by and interlinked with even larger conglomerates. Like other corporations, they sell a product to a market. The market is advertisers that is, other businesses. The product is audiences. For the elite media that set the basic agenda to which others adapt, the product is, furthermore, relatively privileged audiences. So we have major corporations selling fairly wealthy and privileged audiences to other businesses. Not surprisingly, the picture of the world presented reflects the narrow and biased interests and values of the sellers, the buyers and the product. Other factors reinforce the same distortion. The cultural managers (editors, leading columnists, etc.) share class interests and associations with state and business managers and other privileged sectors. There is, in fact, a regular flow of high-level people among corporations, government and media. Access to state authorities is important to maintain a competitive position; "leaks," for example, are often fabrications and deceit produced by the authorities with the cooperation of the media, who pretend they don't know.(Chomsky1993:54)

In return, state authorities demand cooperation and submissiveness. Other power centers also have devices to punish departures from orthodoxy, ranging from the stock market to an effective vilification and defamation apparatus.(Chomsky1993:54)

The outcome is not, of course, entirely uniform. To serve the interests of the powerful, the media must present a tolerably realistic picture of the world. And professional integrity and honesty sometimes interfere with the overriding mission. The best journalists are, typically, quite aware of the factors that shape the media product, and seek to use such openings as are provided. The result is that one can learn a lot by a critical and skeptical reading of what the media produce.(Chomsky1993:55)

The media are only one part of a larger doctrinal system; other parts are journals of opinion, the schools and universities, academic scholarship and so on. We're much more aware of the media, particularly the prestige media, because those who critically analyze ideology have focused on
them. The larger system hasn't been studied as much because it's harder to investigate systematically. But there's good reason to believe that it represents the same interests as the media, just as one would anticipate.(Chomsky1993:57)

The doctrinal system, which produces what we call "propaganda" when discussing enemies, has two distinct targets. One target is what's sometimes called the "political class," the roughly 20% of the population that's relatively educated, more or less articulate, playing some role in decision-making. Their acceptance of doctrine is crucial, because they're in a position to design and implement policy. Then there's the other 80% or so of the population. These are Lippmann's "spectators of action," whom he referred to as the "bewildered herd." They are supposed to follow orders and keep out of the way of the important people. They're the target of the real mass media: the tabloids, the sitcoms, the Super Bowl and so on.(Chomsky1993:58)

These sectors of the doctrinal system serve to divert the unwashed masses and reinforce the basic social values: passivity, submissiveness to authority, the overriding virtue of greed and personal gain, lack of concern for others, fear of real or imagined enemies, etc. The goal is to keep the bewildered herd bewildered. It's unnecessary for them to trouble themselves with what's happening in the world. In fact, it's undesirable -- if they see too much of reality they may set themselves to change it.

That's not to say that the media can't be influenced by the general population. The dominant institutions -- whether political, economic or doctrinal -- are not immune to public pressures. Independent (alternative) media can also play an important role. Though they lack resources, almost by definition, they gain significance in the same way that popular organizations do: by bringing together people with limited resources who can multiply their effectiveness, and their own understanding, through their interactions -- precisely the democratic threat that's so feared by dominant elites.(Chomsky1993:55)

The words of our language provide complex perspectives that offer us highly special ways to think about things—to ask for them, tell people about them, etc. Real natural language semantics will seek to discover these perspectives and the principles that underlie them. People use words to refer to things in complex ways, reflecting interests and circumstances, but the words do not refer; there is no word—thing relation of the Fregean variety. These approaches may be quite appropriate for the study of invented symbolic systems (for which they were initially designed, at least in the case of Frege). But they do not seem to provide appropriate concepts
for the study of natural language. The study of speech production and analysis postulates no such mythical relations, but rather asks how the person’s mental representations enter into articulation and perception. The study of the meaning of expressions should proceed along similar lines, I believe. This does not mean that the study of meaning is the study of use. (Chomsky, 1996:43)

dictionaries rightly focus on what a person could not know, namely superficial details of the kind provided by experience; not on what comes to us ‘by the original hand of nature’. The latter is the topic of a different inquiry, the study of human nature, which is part of the sciences. Its aims are virtually complementary to those of the practical lexicographer. Dictionaries intended for use should—and in practice do—fill in gaps in the innate knowledge that dictionary users bring with them. We expect that the basic semantic properties of words, being unlearned and unlearnable, will be shared with little variation across languages. These are aspects of human nature, which provides us with specific ways to think about the world, highly intricate and curious ones. (Chomsky, 1996:46)

Just as dictionaries do not even begin to provide the meanings of words, so the most elaborate multi-volume traditional grammars do not recognize, let alone try to explain, even elementary phenomena of the kind just illustrated. It is only in very recent years, in the course of attempts to construct explicit generative procedures, that such properties have come to light. As long as people were satisfied that an apple falls to the ground because that is its natural place, even the basic properties of motion remained hidden. A willingness to be puzzled by the simplest phenomena is the very beginning of science. (Chomsky, 1996:48)

The attempt to formulate questions about simple phenomena has led to remarkable discoveries about elementary aspects of nature, previously unsuspected, the conditions of language acquisition lead us to expect that, in some fundamental sense, there must be only one language. There are two basic reasons. First, most of what we know must be ‘pre-existent’, in a modern version of Plato’s insights; people lack evidence for even simple aspects of what they know. Furthermore, there is strong reason to suppose that no one is designed to speak one or another language. If my children were to have grown up in Japan, they would have spoken Japanese, indistinguishably from natives. The ability to acquire language is basically a fixed, uniform species property. (Chomsky, 1996:49)

The standard image of media performance, as expressed by Judge Gurfein in a decision rejecting government efforts to bar publication of
the Pentagon Papers, is that we have "a cantankerous press, an obstinate press, a ubiquitous press," and that these tribunes of the people "must be suffered by those in authority in order to preserve the even greater values of freedom of expression and the right of the people to know." Commenting on this decision, Anthony Lewis of the New York Times observes that the media were not always as independent, vigilant, and defiant of authority as they are today, but in the Vietnam and Watergate eras they learned to exercise "the power to root about in our national life, exposing what they deem right for exposure," without regard to external pressures or the demands of state or private power. This too is a commonly held belief. (Chomsky, 1989:1)

Nevertheless the news media is important today because it helps us keep up with what is going on in the world. And to do so is vital, because we cannot believe everything we read in the newspaper, even those in the newspaper business express the need for caution. Even well-intentioned journalists don’t always get the story right. “Journalists usually work at a "quick pace " explains a writer , "Newspapers are racing against one another. Each one wants to be the first to publish the news. For that reason many of us, although willing, are not able to write a well-researched article." (Bielsa & O’Donnell, 2008:2)

According to Bielsa & O’Donnell the Power in English Text can be summarized in these in five points:

1- When considering ‘language & power’ one needs to distinguish public power vs. personal power.

2- Public power is the ability to shape public opinion, and thus to change or maintain the social reality.

3- Public power is controlled by institutions, but also by more vaguely defined ideological collectives.

4- Personal power is the ability to change or maintain one’s local social reality.

5- Personal power stems from social roles, social relationships, and personal language competence. (Bielsa & O’Donnell, 2008:3-4)
2.3 Ownership determine content

In some far-reaching sense it does, because if content ever goes beyond the bounds owners will tolerate, they'll surely move in to limit it. But there's a fair amount of flexibility. (Chomsky, 1994: 1)

Investors don't go down to the television studio and make sure that the local talk-show host or reporter is doing what they want. There are other, subtler, more complex mechanisms that make it fairly certain that the people on the air will do what the owners and investors want. There's a whole, long, filtering process that makes sure that people only rise through the system to become managers, editors, etc., if they've internalized the values of the owners. At that point, they can describe themselves as quite free. So you'll occasionally find some flaming independent-liberal type like Tom Wicker who writes, Look, nobody tells me what to say. I say whatever I want. It's an absolutely free system. And, for him, that's true. After he'd demonstrated to the satisfaction of his bosses that he'd internalized their values, he was entirely free to write whatever he wanted. (Chomsky, 1994: 1)

This power was not gain over night it has been shaping since 1605, I will explain how this happen in the next section.

2.4 The Birth of Newspaper Headline Language

Linguistics began in the 19th century as a historical science, asking how languages came to be the way they are. (oxfordbibliographies.com) At the start of the 17th century, two German newspapers began regular publication. Relation (relating the news) of Strasbourg, was first printed in 1605; Avisa Relation oder Zeitung (news advisory) of Wolfenbüttel, began publication in 1609. The first daily newspaper in Europe was the Einkommen de Zeitungen (Incoming News), which appeared in Leipzig, Germany, in 1650. By the year 1700, in Germany alone there were between 50 and 60 regular newspapers, and these reached several hundred thousand readers. (http://wol.jw.org/2016:4-5)

At first, news sources were letters, other newspapers, postmasters who received news by mail and reproduced it, or simply gossip picked up by newsmen in public places. With growing competition, however, publishers worked on improving the quantity and quality of the news. They hired their first professional editors. And because most publishers could not afford an extensive network of news sources and journalists, the
appetite for news led to the formation of news agencies for gathering and distributing news to subscribing publishers. (http://wol.jw.org/2016:4-5)

In 1851 The first telegram service was Invented in British India, and with it was the start of the telegraphic style of writing.

2.4.1 Telegraphic style

It is not a coincidence that at least three newspaper now days have the word telegraph in its name Press Telegram, The Daily Telegraph, and The Telegraph and why is that? what is the connection between newspaper headlines and the telegraphic style of writing? According to Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia the definition of telegraphic style of writing is :-

Telegram style, telegraph style, or telegraphic style is a clipped way of writing that attempts to abbreviate words and pack as much information into the smallest possible number of words or characters. It originated in the telegraph age when telecommunication consisted only of short messages transmitted by hand over the telegraph wire. The telegraph companies charged for their service by the number of words in a message, with a maximum of 15 characters per word for a plain-language telegram, and 10 per word for one written in code. The style developed to minimize costs but still convey the message clearly and unambiguously. (Wikipedia)

A man high in American business life has been quoted as remarking that elimination of the word "please" from all telegrams would save the American public millions of dollars annually. (McEwen,2004:2)

Telegraphic style is a technique of eliminating a word or words necessary for complete grammatical construction, but understood in the context. (Don’t confuse this with merely eliminating unnecessary words.) An example is: “if possible” for “if it is possible”. Typically the articles “a”, “an”, and “the” are frequently eliminated from the grammatical construction. (Urgo,2000; 1)

The formal or grammatical name for telegraphic style is “ellipsis” or “elliptical” style. The name “telegraphic” is more commonly used because it resembles the construction and sound of the wording typically found in a telegram. Most telegrams have somewhat cryptic worded messages because of the need to save the expense of being charged by the number of words in a message. (Urgo,2000; 1)
Telegraphic style can be used in any phrase or sentence construction. If used, I generally recommend the technique be applied for writing procedures or instructions only, not policy, standards, or concepts. (I define procedures and instructions as a series of step-by-step statements written in the second person, telling someone how to do something to perform a specified outcome.) Further, if telegraphic style is used, it should be applied consistently throughout a procedure or instruction as long as it does not compromise interpretation of the message by the reader. (Urgo, 2000; 2)

Telegraphic has its advantages and disadvantages. One advantage is that it may produce a speech pattern referred to as staccato. A staccato effect has abrupt, distinct elements or sounds which may give the reader a certain rhythmic momentum to read to. A definite advantage is saved space, especially in procedure tables, lists, and flowcharts. (Saving space should not be a primary reason for using it.) A disadvantage is that at times it may cause some misinterpretations by the reader of the intended message. Also, some readers may find it too cryptic. (Urgo, 2000; 1)

The following table compares regular and telegraphic styles
Related but distinct, is the historical practice of using abbreviations and code words to compress the meaning of phrases into a small set of characters for ease of transmission over a telegraph. (Wikipedia)

The highly condensed way of writing also called, Hemingwayesque style.

2.4.2 Iceberg Theory or Hemingwayesque.

The Iceberg Theory (also known as the "theory of omission") is the writing style of American writer Ernest Hemingway. As a young journalist, Hemingway had to focus his newspaper reports on immediate events, with very little context or interpretation. When he became a writer of short stories, he retained this minimalistic style, focusing on surface elements without explicitly discussing underlying themes. Hemingway believed the deeper meaning of a story should not be evident on the surface, but should shine through implicitly. Critics such as Jackson Benson claim that the iceberg theory, along with his distinctive clarity of style, functioned to distance himself from the characters he created. (Wikipedia)

In 1923, Hemingway conceived of the idea of a new theory of writing after finishing his short story "Out of Season", his posthumously published memoirs about his years as a young writer in Paris, he explains: "I omitted the real end [of "Out of Season"] which was that the old man hanged himself. This was omitted on my new theory that you could omit
anything ... and the omitted part would strengthen the story." In chapter sixteen of *Death in the Afternoon* he compares his theory about writing to an iceberg. If the writer is writing truly enough, will have a feeling of those things as strongly as though the writer had stated them. The dignity of movement of an iceberg is due to only one-eighth of it being above water. A writer who omits things because he does not know them only makes hollow places in his writing. A writer who appreciates the seriousness of writing so little that he is anxious to make people see he is formally educated, cultured or well-bred is merely a popinjay. And this too remember; a serious writer is not to be confounded with a solemn writer. A serious writer may be a hawk or a buzzard or even a popinjay, but a solemn writer is always a bloody owl. (Hemingway, 1935:98)

Hemingway’s biographer Carlos Baker believed that as a writer of short stories Hemingway learned "how to get the most from the least, how to prune language and avoid waste motion, how to multiply intensities, and how to tell nothing but the truth in a way that allowed for telling more than the truth." Furthermore, Baker explains that in the writing style of the iceberg theory the hard facts float above water, while the supporting structure, complete with symbolism, operates out-of-sight. Iceberg theory is also referred to as the "theory of omission". Hemingway believed a writer could describe an action such as Nick Adams fishing in *Big Two-Hearted River* while conveying a different message about the action itself—Nick Adams concentrating on fishing to the extent that he does not have to think about the unpleasantness of his war experience. In his essay "The Art of the Short Story", Hemingway is clear about his method: "A few things I have found to be true. If you leave out important things or events that you know about, the story is strengthened. If you leave or skip something because you do not know it, the story will be worthless. The test of any story is how very good the stuff that you, not your editors, omit." A writer explained how it brings a story gravitas. (Wikipedia)

The terms “Hemingwayesque” and “Faulknerian” serve as a remarkable sort of shorthand for talking about prose. The terms “Hemingwayesque” and “Faulknerian” have come to stand for a broad set of cultural assumptions and generalities—some more accurate than others—about how and what each man wrote. (Bolton, 2005; 49-50)
when Hemingway was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature, (The Nobel Prize in Literature 1954) it was for "his mastery of the art of narrative and for the influence that he has exerted on contemporary style." (smith.1996;45). Ernest Hemingway avoided complicated syntax. About 70 percent of the sentences are simple sentences—a childlike syntax without subordination. (Wells 1975;130)

"If a writer of prose knows enough of what he is writing about he may omit things that he knows and the reader, if the writer is writing truly enough, will have a feeling of those things as strongly as though the writer had stated them. The dignity of movement of an ice-berg is due to only one-eighth of it being above water. A writer who omits things because he does not know them only makes hollow places in his writing". (Hemingway, 1935:90)

Over submarine communications cables. In the U.S. foreign service, before the advent of broadband telecommunications, cablese referred to condensed telegraphic messaging that made heavy use of abbreviations and avoided use of definite or indefinite articles, punctuation, and other words unnecessary for comprehension of the message. In 1947 Hemingway was awarded a Bronze Star for his bravery during World War II as a journalist. He was recognized for his valor, having been "under fire in combat areas in order to obtain an accurate picture of conditions", with the commendation that "through his talent of expression, Mr. Hemingway enabled readers to obtain a vivid picture of the difficulties and triumphs of the front-line soldier and his organization in combat". (Wells, 1975:133)

2.5 Generative grammar

The theory of grammar is concerned with the question, What is the nature of a person’s knowledge of his language, the knowledge that enables him to make use of language in the normal, creative fashion? A person who knows a language has mastered a system of rules that assigns sound and meaning in a definite way for an infinite class of possible sentences. Each language thus consists (in part) of a certain pairing of sound and meaning over an infinite domain. Of course, the person who knows the language has no consciousness of having mastered these rules or of putting them to use, nor is there any reason to suppose that this knowledge of the rules of language can be brought to consciousness. Through introspection, a person may accumulate various kinds of evidence about the sound–meaning
relation determined by the rules of the language that he has mastered; there is no reason to suppose that he can go much beyond this surface level of data so as to discover through introspection, the underlying rules and principles that determine the relation of sound and meaning. Rather, to discover these rules and principles is a typical problem of science. We have a collection of data regarding sound–meaning correspondence, the form and interpretation of linguistic expressions, in various languages. We try to determine, for each language, a system of rules that will account for such data. More deeply, we try to establish the principles that govern the formation of such systems of rules for any human language. (Chomsky, 2006:91)

The study of generative grammar over the past thirty years represents a return, following a century or so of concern with other matters, to a fundamental question of linguistic science—namely, that which has sometimes been called “Plato’s problem” by Chomsky or the problem of “the poverty of the stimulus.” The question is this: how come people know as much as they do about their native languages when the observable evidence for this knowledge is so impoverished—when it is, in fact, in an extraordinarily large number of important and interesting cases, utterly, and for principled reasons. (Hale, 1986:1)

The system of rules that specifies the sound–meaning relation for a given language can be called the “grammar” – or, to use a more technical term, the “generative grammar” – of this language. To say that a grammar “generates” a certain set of structures is simply to say that it specifies this set in a precise way. In this sense, we may say that the grammar of a language generates an infinite set of “structural descriptions,” each structural description being an abstract object of some sort that determines a particular sound, a particular meaning, and whatever formal properties and configurations serve to mediate the relation between sound and meaning. For example, the grammar of English generates structural descriptions for the sentences I am now speaking; or, to take a simpler case for purposes of illustration. (Chomsky, 2006:91)

The grammar of English would generate a structural description for each of these sentences:-

1 John is certain that Bill will leave.

2 John is certain to leave

Each of us has mastered and internally represented a system of grammar that assigns structural descriptions to these sentences; we use this
knowledge, totally without awareness or even the possibility of awareness, in producing these sentences or understanding them when they are produced by others. The structural descriptions include a phonetic representation of the sentences and a specification of their meaning. In the case of the cited examples 1 and 2, the structural descriptions must convey roughly the following information: they must indicate that in the case of 1, a given psychological state (namely, being certain that Bill will leave) is attributed to John; whereas in the case of 2, a given logical property (namely, the property of being certain) is attributed to the proposition that John will leave. Despite the superficial similarity of form of these two sentences, the structural descriptions generated by the grammar must indicate that their meanings are very different: one attributes a psychological state to John, the other attributes a logical property to an abstract proposition. (Chomsky, 2006:92)

The second sentence might be paraphrased in a very different form:

3 That John will leave is certain.

For the first there is no such paraphrase. In the paraphrase 3 the “logical form” of 2 is expressed more directly, one might say. The grammatical relations in 2 and 3 are very similar, despite the difference of surface form; the grammatical relations in 1 and 2 are very different, despite the similarity of surface form. Such facts as these provide the starting point for an investigation of the grammatical structure of English – and more generally, for the investigation of the general properties of human language. (Chomsky, 2006:92)

To carry the discussion of properties of language further, let me introduce the term “surface structure” to refer to a representation of the phrases that constitute a linguistic expression and the categories to which these phrases belong. In sentence 1, the phrases of the surface structure include: “that Bill will leave,” which is a full proposition; the noun phrases “Bill” and “John”; the verb phrases “will leave” and “is certain that Bill will leave,” and so on. In sentence 2, the surface structure includes the verb phrases “to leave” and “is certain to leave”; but the surface structure of 2 includes no proposition of the form “John will leave,” even though this proposition expresses part of the meaning of “John is certain to leave,” and appears as a phrase in the surface structure of its paraphrase, “that John will leave is certain.” In this sense, surface structure does not necessarily provide an accurate indication of the structures and relations that determine the meaning of a sentence; in the case of sentence 2, “John is certain to leave,” the surface structure fails to
indicate that the proposition “John will leave” expresses a part of the meaning of the sentence – although in the other two examples that I gave the surface structure comes rather close to indicating the semantically significant relations. (Chomsky, 2006:93)

Continuing, let me introduce the further technical term “deep structure” to refer to a representation of the phrases that play a more central role in the semantic interpretation of a sentence. In the case of 1 and 3, the deep structure might not be very different from the surface structure. In the case of 2, the deep structure will be very different from the surface structure, in that it will include some such proposition as “John will leave” and the predicate “is certain” applied to this proposition, though nothing of the sort appears in the surface structure. In general, apart from the simplest examples, the surface structures of sentences are very different from their deep structures. (Chomsky, 2006:93)

The grammar of English will generate, for each sentence, a deep structure, and will contain rules showing how this deep structure is related to a surface structure. The rules expressing the relation of deep and surface structure are called “grammatical transformations.” Hence the term “transformational-generative grammar.” In addition to rules defining deep structures, surface structures, and the relation between them, the grammar of English contains further rules that relate these “syntactic objects” (namely, paired deep and surface structures) to phonetic representations on the one hand, and to representations of meaning on the other. A person who has acquired knowledge of English has internalized these rules and makes use of them when he understands or produces the sentences just given as examples, and an indefinite range of others. (Chomsky, 2006:93)

2.6 Categories of Newspaper

The majority of newspapers is concentrated on a wide range of readers, and is usually defined according to geographical location; or it focuses on groups of readers according to their interests rather than their location. For purposes of the thesis, there is a basic division of newspaper. (Chodurová, 2010:26)

Broadsheet newspapers (‘quality press’)

Are commonly understood as intellectual news presenter. Usually they are considered to be more intellectual in content than their tabloid counterparts. Their main aim is to provide readers with comprehensive
coverage and analysis of the news. Usually they include politics, economics, and other ‘serious’ news. They use formal and serious tone and vocabulary and Standard English.

**Tabloids (‘popular press’)**

Is a term for a newspaper that focuses on local-interest stories and entertainment. It tends to be sensational and emphasizes or exaggerates exciting crime stories, gossips, and scandals about the personal lives of celebrities, sports stars, and other ‘human-interest news’. They are usually printed in half-size than broadsheets. They contain less printed text than broadsheets but more pictures. They use large headlines and a simpler style of English.

**Printed newspaper**

Can be either broadsheet or tabloid type of newspaper in printed, paper version.

**Online newspaper**

Also known as web newspapers – is a newspaper that exists on the internet, either separately or as an online version of a printed periodical.

### 2.7 Features of headline Language

Headlines in newspapers vary from one to another, whereas the formulation of news headlines has to meet fundamental requirements prescribed by journalistic conventions. The news headline has those features: Shortness: news headlines must always be downsized, with redundant information cut off and awkward structures smoothed, because the space for news coverage is too limited. (Shi, 2014:1882)

What is more, to get an upper hand in competing with counterparts media have to simplify and shorten their language to guarantee minimum loss of time in collecting and distributing news. Truthfulness: as it is one part of news, a news headline should theoretically take on news qualities such as timeliness and truthfulness, the most valuable journalistic features. Besides, to tell truth but the fabricated information is the very responsibility of each news reporter and editor. For instance, it is due to the truthful report on the Tsunami of Indian Ocean that the world makes a quick response to launch worldwide donation campaigns for those devastated areas. (Shi, 2014:1882)
Media have been constantly investing efforts into seeking fresh and novel appearances of news headlines. Even aiming at the same news event, different media may adopt sharply diversified headlines rather than uniformed formats. A headline must give the essence of the story. While explaining the story accurately, the headline must fit into a limited space. A good headline should be attractive, and be able to catch the reader’s attention once his eyes falls upon it. Therefore, the appeal of story largely depends on headline. (Shi, 2014:1883)

The language of news headline is special and has its own characteristics on the lexical, grammatical and syntax level. It is characterized by its brevity, attractiveness, and clarity. The key to a good headline is the use, whenever possible, of strong action verbs. Headline writers use verbs in historical present tense, thus can describe the actions that had happened just now tense (the historical present will be explained in detail later on this chapter). This tense can express the feel of immediacy. English news headline often use short words, such as abbreviations and acronyms, and the articles, personal pronouns, are often omitted. The new words are very common in the news headline as the technology develop; people have to use new words to describe the new things. (shi, 2004;1883)

In the news headline writing, the use of tense is flexible. Different tenses can express the freshness of the news. But the present tense is the most widely used tense in the English headline because it can describe the things which are happening in the present or in the past. The sentence of the news headline tends to be clear and simply. A sentence is more likely to be clear if it is a short sentence conveying only one thought, or a closely connected range of ideas. However, that is not to say that the headline must be simple sentences, to use a subordinate clause can state relations more precisely and more economically than a string of simple sentences or compound sentences joined by “and”, “but”, etc.(Shi, 2014:1883)

As noted before the headline summarizes the most important and relevant information of the story. states that the headline, along with the lead, expresses the main topics of the text. Together they signal a preferred general meaning of the text to the reader. The headline, unlike the lead, is an independent unit: ”It simply abstracts the story, it does not have to begin it. While the lead may carry new information which does not recur in the
story proper, the headline is entirely derivable from the story. In most cases it can be derived from the lead alone” . (Pajunen ,2008, 8)

Legibility of headlines is very important, if the legibility is absent, then the very aim of headlines is negated. Most of the headlines in newspapers are generally one column in width and this column width is a very small place to accommodate large size fonts. Despite this restriction, the types used must be large enough and bold enough to command attention of the reader. (Reddy, 2011:50)

2.8 Function of Headline Language

The function of news headlines can never be underestimated. Concise and creative headlines will more often than not leave readers with such deep impressions that news details have faded into memory while headlines remain fresh in their mind. Headlines are described as the "eyes" or "windows" of newspapers, through which readers can have the key information in news reports. (Shi, 2014:1883)

A good headline persuades the readers to stop and dedicate their time to reading the story. Such a headline catches reader's interest as well as it captures the essence of the story. LaRocque points out that the authors of headlines generally know pretty well what they want to say but, unfortunately, there are several obstacles, for example space or their own abilities (vocabulary, creativity, knowledge of the language etc.), that must be overcome while creating a headline. (LaRocque, 2003 :10)

News headlines sum up news content, enabling readers to enjoy much convenience and save considerable amounts of time while reading newspapers. Time is so precious in the modern society that people cannot be patient enough to go over all news details. Instead, only by browsing through news headlines can readers easily pick up the information for individual preferences. This kind of readers is called "Headline Readers". It is for this function that major Western newspapers intentionally set a special column named "Headline News" on their cover pages, in which news is short, brief and just like a headline. This kind of news enjoys wide popularity among readers for it sets them free from tedious and aimless reading. Second, news headlines are printed in varied fonts, sizes, colors and structures to decorate or beautify newspaper pages. In the process of newspaper production, special printing crafts are very often practiced to
enhance the visual effect of newspapers thus magnetizing readers' attention. (Shi, 2014:1884)

There are 'poor' headlines. They are often full of words that are so frequently applied that readers might ignore them "words are the building blocks of language, and when the blocks are misplaced or misused, what is said sometimes is not what is meant" is unvarnished truth. Sometimes a headline may attract your attention, but in the end you find the story unrelated and, as it was already said in the introduction, nothing can annoy readers more than an inappropriate, confusing or misleading headline, it is definitely a headline on the front page what sells the newspaper. (LaRocque, 2003:9)

As far as language functions are concerned, there has been no commonly acknowledged views either in the territory of linguistics or translation. Halliday articulates that social communication is the most important function of language because language serves as a communication tool; Hu Zhuanglin, a Chinese linguist, proposes seven language functions: phatic, directive, informative, interrogative, expressive, evocative and performative; Eugene Nida puts forward two basic language functions: the psychological function, which is internal or subjective means by which people can negotiate with reality, and the sociological function, which is external and interpersonal means by which people can negotiate with others. The aforementioned three functions are intertwined with each other-the informative function is the prerequisite of the other two, without which news headlines will lose the news quality or newsworthiness; the expressive function makes headlines look compelling and arresting to optimize the process of information dissemination; the vocative function prompts reactions among readers in case that editors can accordingly improve the quality of headlines. (Shi, 2014:1884)

The last, but in no way the least important function of headlines is assorting the news. For this purpose headline writers operate with size and style of type, which underlines the importance and quality of the news. (LaRocque, 2003:10)

2.9 Block Language

The term block language was introduced by H. Straumann in Newspaper Headlines in a Study of Linguistic Method 1935. This Language structure is typical of headlines, slogans, lists, titles, and text messages (including tweets) made up only of words that are essential to convey a message. (Nordquist, 2014)
The language of headlines is something that seems to be as distinct as for example Australian or Scottish English or another language that just uses English vocabulary but sometimes with absolutely different meanings. Not only the language differs, but also the grammar of headlines breaks many rules. (Praskova, 2009: 10)

The language of headlines is something that seems to be as distinct as another language that just uses English vocabulary but sometimes with absolutely different meanings. Not only the language differs, but also the grammar of headlines breaks many rules. As Bremner points out, even G.K. Chesterton mentioned this problem in one of his works in the 1930s. He wrote: "Headlines is one of the evils produced by that passion for compression and compact information which possesses so many ingenious minds in America. Everybody can see how an entirely new system of grammar, syntax and even language has been invented to fit the brevity of headlines. Such brevity, so far from being the soul of wit, is even the death of meaning and certainly the death of logic. (Mencken, 2006:185)

According to Mardh, he defines it as the type of linguistic utterance which occurs in telegrams, book-titles, diaries, advertisements, recipes, dictionaries, catalogues, on posters and labels and in headlines, etc. (Praskova, 2009: 10)

Newspapers are one of the most popular media omnipresent globally. Their role in informing the public has remained equally important despite the ever-growing popularity of other forms of media nowadays. The writing in newspapers is characterized by a specific language marked by a distinct style and register. This type of language is called block language, headlines, or telegraphic speech. A type of structure different from normal clause or sentence structure, but often conveying a complete message. Block language is found especially in notices and newspaper headlines. It sometimes consists of single noun phrases (e.g. No exit, Essex's snappy reply to a negative image). Other block language has a sort of abbreviated clause structure, with articles, auxiliary verbs, and other minor words omitted. The features of this type of language "are common in certain types of written language, such as notices, headlines, labels, advertisements, subheadings, Web sites and other settings where a message is presented as a 'block'. (uniassignment, 2016)

Another typical feature of block language is a heavily modified noun phrase, as for example in Natasha Hogan's fury at balcony leap dad let off (DMir), or No charges over rott death (S). The problem of such headlines
is the ambiguity of interpretation. The second headline may seem to be introducing an article about a dog which died, but the truth is that the article is about a dog which killed a baby, and no one is going to be accused of that. The first example is rather difficult to understand as it tries to provide as much information as possible condensed in one sentence without a regular sentence structure, i.e. the sentence does not contain a verb to tell the reader about the action, it is just a noun phrase, and its interpretation is almost impossible without further knowledge. Moreover, some words, such as articles and auxiliary verbs, can be and often are omitted in block language. This again results in more ways of interpretation. (Praskova, 2009: 11)

Moreover Crystal adds that minor sentences "are common in certain types of written language, such as notices, headlines, labels, advertisements, subheadings, Web sites and other settings where a message is presented as a 'block'. Moreover, some words, such as articles and auxiliary verbs, can be and often are omitted in block language. This again results in more ways of interpretation. (Praskova, 2009: 12)

Newspaper headlines are written in a block telegraphic style, headlines which often omits the copula creating syntactic ambiguity, also called amphiboly or amphibology, is a situation where a sentence may be interpreted in more than one way to ambiguous sentence structure.

examples:

**British left waffles on Falklands**

Did the British leave waffles behind, or is there waffling by the British political left wing?

**Stolen painting found by tree.**

Either a tree found a stolen painting, or a stolen painting was found sitting next to a tree.

**Somali Tied to Militants Held on U.S. Ship for Months.**

Either the Somali was held for months, or the Somali was just now linked to militants who were held for months. One could also imagine rope was involved, at which point lexical ambiguity comes into play.
Landmine claims dog arms company

A landmine claimed that a dog was providing weapons to a company, or a landmine laid claim to a company producing weapons for canines, or assertions about landmines were causing concern to a weapons supplier.

To sum it up, a good newspaper headline should be able to truthful the content of the story it introduces and persuade its readers to devote time to reading. That can be achieved by several characteristic means of headlines, which is a special language used besides the means of the block language to do the trick. Most of these means function as 'space savers'. Headline writers have to squeeze as few short words as possible in very limited space, but, simultaneously, their task is to catch truthfully the subject matter. It often leads to a misuse or complete omission of words. The meaning of the headline is sometimes rather difficult to interpret, therefore, and further knowledge of the context seems necessary. (Praskova, 2009: 12)

2.10 Grammar in Headlines

Reading newspaper articles is an excellent way for foreign learners to build vocabulary and practice comprehension using real material. It can expose you to different topics, and a variety of language that is rare in spoken English. However, newspaper writing is rarely a representation of common English. Headlines in newspapers, in particular, use different grammar rules to everyday English. This is because they are designed to be short and to attract attention. According to Metcalf and Williams they both agreed on the following grammatical rules of newspaper headlines:

2.10.1 Use present simple tense for past events

The present tense is quick and current, and helps emphasize the action happening, rather than its completion. (Williams, 2016)

- Parliament confirms new stray dog policy
- Lion escapes zoo
- COLUMBUS DISCOVERS NEW ROUTE TO INDIA
2.10.2 Leave out auxiliary verbs

With perfect, progressive and passive structures, auxiliary verbs are not necessary. This makes some headlines appear to be in the past tense, when actually the headlines use past participles, or particles, not the past simple. Similarly, changing events are represented by the present participle on its own. (Williams, 2016)

- New policy decided by Parliament \((New \text{ policy has been decided by Parliament})\)
- Four stranded in sudden flood \((four \text{ people have been stranded / were stranded})\)

2.10.3 Use infinitives for future events

- Parliament to decide new policy tomorrow
- President to visit France for further talks
- SUN TO BURN OUT IN 6 BILLION YEARS

Using the infinitive, a future time is not always necessary to demonstrate the future tense in headlines. (Williams, 2016)

2.10.4 Leave out articles (a, an, the)

- Prime Minister hikes Alps for charity \((The \text{ Prime Minister hiked the Alps})\)
- Man releases rabid dog in park \((A \text{ man released a rabid dog in a park})\) (Williams, 2016)

2.10.5 Leave out “to be”

- Residents unhappy about new road (residents are unhappy)
- Family of murder victim satisfied with court decision (family of murder victim is satisfied.)

But Metcalf added that the Omission of “be” in its various forms, except when emphasized:

HAMLET ASKS ‘TO BE’ OR NOT? PONDERS, DECIDES TO BE. (Williams, 2016)
2.10.6 Leave out “to say”

- Mr. Jones: “They’re not taking my house!”
- Bush on Iraqi invasion: “This aggression will not stand.”

Reported speech is usually represented by a colon, or a hyphen, with the subject introduced with ‘on…’. This includes leaving out other verbs such as comment, tell, argue, announce, shout – unless the act of speaking needs emphasizing, for instance to demonstrate a promise or official policy. (Williams, 2016)

- Warlord decrees “Peace by Spring.”
- GALILEO: ‘I CONFESS EARTH STAYS STILL’

2.10.7 Replace conjunctions with punctuation

- Police arrest serial killer – close case on abductions
- Fire in bakery: hundreds dead

As with reporting speech, commas, colons, semi-colons, hyphens and so on can replace all conjunctions, or some joining verbs, to join clauses. Commas may also be used to join nouns (more common in American English). (Williams, 2016)

- Man kills 5, self

2.10.8 Use figures for numbers

- 9 dead in glue catastrophe
- 7 days to Christmas – shoppers go mad
- VIRGIL GUIDES DANTE PAST 9 LEVELS OF HELL

Metcalf added that There are other rules, the most important are that the headline must accurately summarize the contents of the story. And there is a vocabulary of little space-saving words that appear frequently in headlines but not so often elsewhere: bar, bid, clash, hail, halt, loom, mar, opt, spark, vow and the like. (Williams, 2016)

2.11 Time and Tense

When describing the meanings of the tenses, linguists have relied on a specific instance of the space-time analogy: the TIMELINE. The timeline is a line (or, equivalently, an ordered set of points) that is unbounded at
both ends and segmented into three parts: the past, the present and the future. The points on the timeline may be times by themselves or times paired with events. While we can describe various relations among points on the timeline, only one type of relation counts as a tense relation: that which includes the time at which the linguistic act is occurring. (Michaelis.2006.1)

The term 'tense' can be defined as a secondary grammatical category which serves to locate an event or a situation in time. It accounts for example for the difference in the sentences John leaves / John left. It encompasses two aspects: a morphological aspect, namely a system of tenses encoded in the verb's morphology, and a semantic aspect dealing with the temporal location of the event or events depicted in one or more sentences: the 'meaning' of the various tenses. (Hackmack,1991:1)

The relationship between utterance time and the time of the situation described may be direct, as in the case of ABSOLUTE TENSES like the past tense, or indirect, as in the case of RELATIVE TENSES like the future perfect (e.g., I will have left [by the time you read this letter]), in which the leaving event is represented as in the past relative to a point that is in the future relative to utterance time (the point at which the letter is read). Like other linguistic reference points that are anchored in the ‘here and now’, the temporal zero point can, under the appropriate conditions, be identified with times other than the time of speaking or writing. (Michaelis.2006.1)

The tenses are not the only means available of locating events in time. An additional possibility is the use of other linguistic elements, for example temporal adverbs such as yesterday or soon or prepositional phrases such as before or in two weeks. But these expressions do not have the same status as tense: they are lexical, not grammatical expressions of temporality, and whereas in prototypical sentences (at least in English or German) tense is a typical feature, the occurrence of a temporal adverb or prepositional phrase is not. Still, a theory of tense also needs to account for problems arising from the interplay of grammatical and lexical indications of time and temporality. (Hackmack,1991:1)

**2.12 Tense System in News Headlines**

In grammar, tense is a category that expresses time reference. Basic tenses found in many languages include the past, present and future. Some languages have only two distinct tenses, such as past and non-past, or
future and non-future. There are also senseless languages, like Chinese which do not have tense at all. In modern linguistic theories, tense is understood as a category that expresses time reference; namely one which, using grammatical means, places a state or action in time. Nonetheless, in many descriptions of languages, particularly in traditional European grammar, the term "tense" is applied to series of verb forms or constructions that express not merely position in time, but also additional properties of the state or action. (Wikipedia)

Readers of newspaper in general pay attention to the contents of the news, and seldom pay attention to tense in newspapers. They may not be aware that in terms of tense, newspapers are a special kind of writing. Since headlines are the gist of the news, the language is compressed and condensed. They have their own special rules and regulations. (Hameed, 2008:19)

The term 'tense' can be defined as a secondary grammatical category which serves to locate an event or a situation in time. It accounts for example for the difference in the sentences John leaves / John left. It encompasses two aspects: a morphological aspect, namely a system of tenses encoded in the verb's morphology, and a semantic aspect dealing with the temporal location of the event or events depicted in one or more sentences: the 'meaning' of the various tenses. (Hameed, 2008:20)

The tenses are not the only means available of locating events in time. An additional possibility is the use of other linguistic elements, for example temporal adverbs such as yesterday or soon or prepositional phrases such as before or in two weeks. But these expressions do not have the same status as tense: they are lexical, not grammatical expressions of temporality, and whereas in prototypical sentences (at least in English or German) tense is a typical feature, the occurrence of a temporal adverb or prepositional phrase is not. Still, a theory of tense also needs to account for problems arising from the interplay of grammatical and lexical indications of time and temporality. (Hackmack, 1991:1)

2. 13 Tense Is Not Time

According to Quirk ‘time is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present, and future; by tense we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time’ adds
that these semantic categories (past, present, and future) are inherently relational; one time is defined by its relation to another. (Furiassi & Pulcini, 2012:161)

Time can be demonstrated as a line on which the present moment can be located with connection to the past and future time see this figure:

![Diagram of time line]

Anything what is ahead from the point of ‘now’ is the future; behind it, it is past. Quirk also claims that there are only two, not three, tenses on a grammatical level – present and past. Morphologically, English has no future form of the verb. It is realized by an auxiliary verb construction (will + infinitive), which cannot be considered as a tense category because tenses are realized by verb inflection and the future structure does not fulfill this requirement. (Chodurová, 2010:13)

2.14 The present simple and its meanings, theoretical considerations

The widespread use of the present tense in headlines is one of the defining characteristics of the register of news headlines. In news discourse, the present tense is used conventionally to refer either to events which occurred in the past, or to present events (e.g. ‘state present’ and ‘habitual present’ as described by Quirk et al. (1985:179)). The focus of the present paper is to identify the reasons why the present tense can be used in headlines to refer to past events, what its effects are, and what major patterns of use emerge. The present tense is the fundamental tense in the system of English tenses in addition to present events, it can also express future and past events. In this sense, the present tense is a temporal. Although future reference of the present tense is usually complemented with an adverbial of time (the futurity thus being expressed lexically), this need not always be so, with the future reference being clear from the context. (Chovanec, 2005,1)

Although the stereotypical description of past events by means of the present tense is usual in headlines, it also frequently occurs in narration –
both fiction and conversation. The ‘historical present’ is used as a stylistic means – as McCarthy and Carter (1994:94) note, it operates ‘as “internal evaluation” devices, heightening the drama of events and focusing on particularly significant points in the story’. The concept of ‘internal evaluation’ refers to the fact that a speaker’s evaluation of the prominent importance of particular information is carried out through the manner of presentation and not by means of some kind of a lexicalized marker, which would constitute ‘external evaluation’. (Chovanec, 2005, 1)

The headline present shares these characteristics with the historical present – its use highlights the urgency and topicality of the news story, thus substantially contributing to its newsworthiness and increasing its news value. (A parallel use of the present perfect divorced from the actual time of the event is noticed and commented on by McCarthy 1998:93-9). (Chovanec, 2005, 1)

Nevertheless, according to Chovanec there is a significant difference between the headline present and the historical present in terms of their relation to other tenses, which can be described with reference to the concept of markedness. While the historical present is a marked tense of referring to the past time in fiction and conversation, the present tense referring to past events in headlines is, on the contrary, an unmarked tense. The marked character of the historical present stems precisely from the fact that it is used as an ‘internal evaluation device’ in situations where in ordinary communication, devoid of the speaker’s attempts at highlighting certain key events and actions, other tenses would be preferred for the expression of the relevant time (namely the past tense). (Chovanec, 2005, 2)

2.15 The timeless use of the present tense

The present tense can be regarded as the default term in the primary tense system: in some cases it is used without any specific reference to present time, or to any time at all, but simply because the preterit do not obtain. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 129)

2.15.1 Synopses and stage directions

On such case is in synopses of TV programmers, films, novels, operas, etc., as in:

*Hugo walks out on Darcy.*
Harry defies government order and operates on Jenny pope.
Tom goes on a wild goes chase to rescue Valmai Winters.

This use of the present tense differs from that considered above in that dynamic situations do not have to be coextensive with the utterance. *Harry operates on Jenny pope*, for example, cannot be used for a single present time accomplishment because an operation cannot be performed in the time taken to utter a sentence and hence and hence cannot be viewed perfectly. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 129)

### 2.15.2 Focus on present existence of works created in the past

A similar use of the timeless present tense is seen in, describing individuals coping with ordinary life and social pressures:

*That’s not exactly what the Bible says.*

Writing has a permanence lacking in speech, and where past writings have been preserved they can be read now, and can talk about them from the perspective of their present and potentially permanent existence rather than that of their past creation. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 129)

### 2.15.3 Captions

Similarly, photographs and drawings can give a permanence to word otherwise be a transient historical occurrence, and captions then use the present tense as in the following newspaper examples:

*Aboriginal protesters occupy part of the old Parliament House in Canberra yesterday.*

Note the contrast between the tense and the time adjunct. The tense reflects the permanence of the photographic record while the adjunct yesterday gives the time when the occupation actually took place. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 130)

### 2.15.4 Chronicles of history

Past events can also be expressed in this timeless present tense when they are seen as part of chronicle forming a permanent record of history:

*Congress of Arras: Burgundians withdraw support from England, in favor of Franco.*

*Albert I becomes Emperor—the first Hapsburg Emperor.* (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 130)
2. 16 Historic Present

As mentioned the present tense is used to give a timeless, permanent perspective to what could also have been conceptualized as past occurrences. There are a number of other places, too where the present tense encroaches into past time territory.

The use of a verb phrase in the present tense to refer to an event that took place in the past. In narratives, the historical present may be used to create an effect of immediacy. In rhetoric, the use of the present tense to report on events from the past is called *translatio temporum* ("transfer of times"). "The term *translatio* is particularly interesting," notes Heinrich Plett, "because it is also the Latin word for metaphor. It clearly shows that the historical present only exists as an intended tropical deviation of the past tense". (Nordquist, 2005)

In linguistics and rhetoric, the historic present or historical present (also called dramatic present or narrative present) refers to the employment of the present tense when narrating past events. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002:129).

In the Living English Language When telling stories about past events, people often switch into present tense, as in *I was walking home from work one day. All of a sudden this man comes up to me and says...* This phenomenon, called the historical present, has a long history in English and is found in numerous other languages, both ancient and modern. Linguists have sometimes suggested that the historical present makes stories more vivid primarily by bringing past actions into the immediate present. However, it has been noted that, no matter how exciting stories are, the speakers never use present tense verbs exclusively—even when relating the most crucial events. In addition, past and present tense alternations tend to occur only between events that are markedly different. In other words, tense alternation usually does not occur when two verbs are viewed as belonging to one larger event. For example, two verbs joined by *and* that share the same subject tend to share the same tense as well, especially when the subject appears only once, just before the first verb, as in *Those two people came in and sat down*. It seems, then, that the historical present serves more to separate events within stories than to bring stories to life. One interesting exception to this is the verb *say*: its tense alternations do not seem regular; in addition, its third person present form *says* is also used in nonstandard narration with *I*, as in *So I says to the guy.* (The free dictionary by Farlex)

Besides its use in writing about history, especially in historical chronicles (listing a series of events), it is used in fiction, for 'hot news' (as
in headlines), and in everyday conversation (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 129–131).

2.16.1 The historic present in narrative

The present tense is used for past time situations in informal conversational narration or in fiction:

There was I playing so well even I couldn't believe it and along comes this kid and keeps me off the table for three frames!

This can be regarded as a metaphoric use of the present tense, a device conventionally used (in English and a very wide range of languages) to make the narrative appear more vivid by assimilating it to the here–and–now of the speech act. Note that in the example cited that the speaker switches from preterit in the first two verbs to the present in the last two. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 130)

2.16.2 Hot news

The present tense is widely used in news headlines (spoken or written) for dynamic situations in the recent past:

UN aid reaches the stricken Bosnian town of Srebrenica.
Probe clears Speaker over bike payout.
Ailing pensioner gets Govt death notice.

The texts beneath the headlines use past tenses, preterit (An independent inquiry yesterday cleared former speaker Leo Mcleay of any favorable treatment in his $65,000 bicycle accident compensation claim)

Or present perfect (An 84–year–old Bathurst man recovered from a stroke has received a letter…) , but in the headlines the simple present is shorter and more vivid. This might be regarded as metaphorical extension of the present tense in commentaries. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 130)

2.16.3 The past evident use with verbs of communication

Your mother tells me you're off to Paris tomorrow.
I hear we're getting some new neighbors

Your mother is telling me about your departure and my hearing about our neighbors are past time occurrence, and yet the present tense is used. It serves to background the communication occurrences themselves and foreground their content, expressed in communication occurrence
themselves and to foreground their content, expressed in the subordinator clause. The main clause provides, as it were, the evidence for believing or entertaining this content. The primary purpose is therefore normally to impart this content or to seek confirmation of it. The verbs most commonly used in this way are: say, tell, inform (these latter two typically with a 1st person indirect object, or else in passive with a 1st person subject, as in I'm told you're off to Paris tomorrow), and hear, gather, understand (these typically have a 1st person subject, with the communicator optionally expressed in a from Phrase: I gather from Angela that you're short of money again). Because the main clause is back grounded, it generally does not contain elaboration by adjuncts, and in particular will not include temporal specification. In the example it would be unacceptable to add just before she left this morning or the like. And similarly it would be inconsistent with the back grounding of the Main clause to add that the original communicator no longer believed what they had said—e.g., to add but she now realizes that you're not going till next week. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 131)

2.17 Future time reference in main clauses:

The present future

The simple present tense can also be used for future time situation: we look first at main clauses and turn to subordinate clauses in the following subsections. The main clause case we refer to as the future:

The next high tide is around 4 this afternoon.
The new Kevin Costner film opens at the Eldorado on Saturday.
When do lectures end this year?
When is the full moon?
When is the full moon?
The next high tide is around 4 this afternoon.

As evident from the last example, the time can be a period extending from the present into future. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 131)
2. 18 Main uses of the future

The future construction is subject to severe pragmatic constraints the clause must involve something that can be assumed to be known already in the present. The three most common uses involve cyclic events in nature, scheduled events, and conditionals. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 131)

2.18.1 Cycle events in nature

The present tense is used for recurrent events whose time of occurrence can be scientifically calculated. Here the scientific evidence for the future occurred of the situation is clearly such as to warrant including it under what is currently known. We do not, by contrast, use the simple present for future weather. We say

*It's going to rain soon* or

*It will rain soon,*

not *it rains soon*

Such events are not conceived of as being within the domain of what is known. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 132)

2.18.2 Scheduled events

The examples above like in *When do lectures end this year? She is president until next May.* Express future situation that have already been arranged, scheduled by human agency. The evidence for treating these falling within the domain of what is known might not satisfy the demands of a philosopher concerned with the theory of knowledge (it is the study of knowledge and justified belief. It questions what knowledge is and how it can be acquired, and the extent to which knowledge pertinent to any given subject or entity can be acquired, THEORY OF KNOWLEDGE is a product of doubt). (Bertrand, 1926) but it is sufficient in the ordinary use of language. The schedule /arrangement is seen in such contrast as we find in:

*Australia meets Sweden in the Davis Cup final in December*

The present tense here is quite natural in context where Australia Sweden have already qualified for the final but not in the next example:

*Australia bests Sweden in the Davis cup final in December.*

Since this conveys that not only the finalist but also the result has been arranged. Note that the subjective certainty is not enough: I might feel quite certain, on the basis of the skill, experience, and past performance of the teams, that Australia will win, but that does not sanction the simple present beats. (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 132)
2.18.3 Conditionals

We can have a future to indicate that the consequence of the condition being fulfilled is inevitable or already decided, as in:

*If he doesn't help me, I'm finished.*

*If you don’t do better next month you are fired.*

*Either he plays according to the rules or he doesn’t play at all.*

*If I get it for less, do I keep the change?*

The first example conveys that if he doesn't help me nothing can prevent my being finished. The second would normally be said by someone with the power to fire you and hence would serve as a threat. The third is only indirectly a conditional but, as spoken by the authority to stop him playing, its natural interpretation is "if he doesn't play according to the rules, he doesn’t play at all". With a question, as in the fourth example, control switches to the addressee: it is (prototypically) you who decide whether I keep the change. Not all future conditionals with simple present main clauses belong in this category. What happens if there is a power failure? For example, belong under (b) it is asking what arrangements have been made to deal with this contingency. (it can also have a serial state interpretation, with if equivalent to when; in this case, the time reference is present). (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 132)

2.19 Ways to Use the Present Tense in English

A simple definition of the simple present tense is that it expresses an action in present time. But according to Nordquist when it comes to English verbs, few things are that simple. As it happens, the present-tense form can refer to actions and events that occur not only in the present but also in the past, in the future, and outside of time altogether.

1- **Historical Present** (explained previously in full detail)

2- ** Literary Present** . The literary present is used in analyses of poems, plays, stories, and novels (regardless of when they were written) to indicate the apparent timelessness of literary works: "Chaucer emphasizes the knight's military skill . . ."; "Macbeth repeats his request for armor . . ."

(Nordquist,2005)

3- **Gnomic Present**

The gnomic present is used to express a fact, belief, or general truth without
reference to time: "The earth moves around the sun." The gnomic present is favored by the Bible ("Every good tree bears good fruit") and by contemporary social scientists ("Organizations seek to place their boundaries . . ."). "The advantage of the gnomic present," says economist and rhetorician Deirdre McCloskey, "is its claim to the authority of General Truth, which is another of its names in grammar." ( Nordquist,2005)

4-Habitual Present
The habitual present is used to indicate an action that occurs regularly or repeatedly: "Every day the children leave for school in the dark." There's a timeless quality to the habitual present: the activity has occurred in the past and will continue to occur in the future. ( Nordquist,2005)

5-Future
The simple present form can be used to indicate a future course of action: "Dave returns on Monday." (The present progressive--that is, a present form of "to be" plus a present participle--may also refer to future events: "The principal is retiring next year." ( Nordquist,2005)

2 . 20 Causes of language change

- Economy: Speakers tend to make their utterances as efficient and effective as possible to reach communicative goals. Purposeful speaking therefore involves a trade-off of costs and benefits.
- Analogy: reducing word forms by likening different forms of the word to the root.
- Language contact: borrowing of words and constructions from other languages.
- Geographic separation: conversely, when people move away from each other, their language will diverge, at least for the vocabulary, due to different experiences.
- The medium of communication.(Media)
• Cultural environment: Groups of speakers will reflect new places, situations, and objects in their language, whether they encounter different people there or not.
• Migration/Movement: Speakers will change and create languages, such as pidgins and creoles.
• Imperfect learning: According to one view, children regularly learn the adult forms imperfectly, and the changed forms then turn into a new standard. Alternatively, imperfect learning occurs regularly in one part of society, such as an immigrant group, and the changed forms can ultimately influence majority usage.
• Social prestige: Language may not only change towards a prestigious accent, but also away from one with negative prestige, Such movements can go back and forward. (Wikipedia)

Syntactic change is a phenomenon creating a shift in language patterns over time, subject to cyclic drift. The morphological idiosyncrasies of today are seen as the outcome of yesterday's regular syntax. For instance, in English, the past tense of the verb to go is not goed or any other form based on the base go, as could be expected, but went, a borrowing from the past tense of the verb to wend.

2. 21 Previous Studies

Previous Studies can be divided to old and new, the older studies had focused on the generative linguistics in media, grammar of headlines, and functional grammar. More recent studies had shown that headlines are almost always in the simple present tense, other recent studies focused on the linguistics features of news headlines in general. This study is different in a way that it spot the light on the manipulative media and how this media is manipulating readers by using few language techniques as in playing with tenses in headlines.

The Studies will be arranged from oldest to newest:

Straumann (1935) is the first work to attempt to systematically analyze the language of English headlines. Although the book obviously predates the advent of generativist linguistics, the study is in-depth and detailed. It is also one of the first works to point out that the language of headlines, in common with other ‘reduced’ registers of English — which
Straumann names “block language” — has its own syntax which, although clearly related to the syntax of the core grammar of spoken English, differs from it substantially, and in a way which is difficult to understand simply in terms of reduction of the possibilities offered by the core language (“block-language cannot in any case be comprehended by means of the traditional categories of grammar”, p. 21). Straumann’s study can therefore be seen as an early precursor of the notion that the ‘reduced’ written register merits a particular linguistic study, and can shed light on other areas of general linguistics. (Weir, 2009; 6)

Mårdh (1980) is a monograph investigating the grammar of headlines. It does not adopt a particular theoretical viewpoint, and certainly not a generativist one. Rather, it is an empirical study and presentation of the data, using headlines from the (London) Times and Daily Mirror in the 1970s to note peculiarities of headlines. It dedicates an entire section (pp. 113–157) to analysis of the article, and the fact that it is often missing from headlines. While the study does not attempt to provide a theoretical analysis of the phenomenon of article drop, it does make a number of interesting empirical observations, the most notable of which for the present work is that noun phrases with an article do not appear to precede noun phrases without an article. (Weir, 2009; 7)

Simon-Vandenbergen (1981) is a study of the grammar of headlines in the (London) Times from 1870 to 1970. The study is in the tradition of functional grammar. As such, its insights are not directly transferable to the present work, which places itself in the generative tradition. Simon-Vandenbergen does devote a section (pp. 276–84) to the ellipsis of the article; however, as the work is functionalist, it does not attempt to provide an explanation in ‘pure’ syntactic terms for the distribution of articles in headlines. Rather, it tries to find what might be termed ‘semantic’ or ‘pragmatic’ rationales for article drop, based on the information communicated by the headline; whether information is ‘new’ or ‘old’. As I will argue later in this dissertation, I contend that while there is a large semantic component to the explanation of article ellipsis in headlines, there are also restrictions which are not semantic in nature. As such I do not support the thesis of Simon-Vandenbergen that semantics, or a functional explanation, alone can explain article ellipsis in headlines. (Weir, 2009; 7)

De Lange (2004) is primarily a study of article drop in child language, rather than in headlines. Furthermore, de Lange’s study analyses article drop in Dutch and Italian child language, rather than English. As such it may not seem immediately relevant. However, de Lange draws parallels
between child language and headlines which he suggests can provide a universal explanation for article drop cross-linguistically, both in headlines and in child language. (Weir, 2009: 7-8)

Recent studies had shown that headlines are almost always in the simple present tense, even if the story reports something that happened in the recent past such as in Female bomber kills dozens near sacred site, and Inventor of the package holiday dies at 85, the present tense in hard news headlines is used in three distinct patterns. First, it conventionally refers to past events in simple headlines. Second, it occurs in connection with other tensed forms and there appears to be a tendency to use the present simple for foregrounded actions while events considered as circumstantial to the main news story may be coded by means of the simple past tense. Finally, the present simple tense is utilized in clauses introduced by the conjunction "as", which provide the background to (or the reason for) the focal event presented as a current state by means of a nominal (non-finite) element. (Chovanec, 10, 2005)
CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This study is divided into two sections the first one investigates the use of tenses in English newspapers' headlines of the Telegraph and The New York Times. The second section is about media language. A questionnaire held in November 2015, was distributed online to readers and social media users, 18 questions to determine readers reaction to media language.

A 50 headlines will be analyzed from each newspaper the date 25/26/27/28/29/30/December 2015. As the focus of the present study is on the use of tenses in headlines, the non-verbal headlines, will not be dealt with. The headlines were analyzed into two areas the first pair consisted of headlines with finite verbal forms according to the tense used. The second pair consisted of the Status of the present tense only. because the present tense is the main tense in headlines as the first two tables reveals. Also a questionnaire about media language held in November 2015, 18 question will determine readers reaction to media language in general and headlines in particular.

3.2 Research methodology and tools

To achieve accuracy and credibility the program Google Doc. is applied in this research. Google Docs, Google Sheets and Google Slides are a word processor, a spreadsheet and a presentation program respectively, all part of a free, web-based software office suite offered by Google within its Google Drive service. Google Forms is a tool that allows collecting information from users via a personalized survey or quiz.

The research also used the program Google drive, Google Drive encompasses Google Docs, Sheets, and Slides, an office suite that permits collaborative editing of documents, spreadsheets, presentations, drawings,
forms. Google Drive incorporates a system of file sharing in which the creator of a file or folder is, by default, its owner. The owner can regulate the public visibility of the file or folder. Ownership is transferable. Files or folders can be shared privately with particular users having a Google account, using their @gmail.com email addresses. Sharing files with users not having a Google account requires making them accessible to "anybody with the link". Files and folders can also be made "public on the web", which means that they can be indexed by search engines and thus can be found and accessed by anyone. The owner may also set an access level for regulating permissions.

3.3 Reliability and Validity

Stability means that measure give the same results if used more than once under similar conditions.

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials.

Validity is defined as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. and calculate in many ways represents the easiest being the square root of the reliability coefficient

\[
\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}
\]

researcher calculates the reliability coefficient of the scale used in the questionnaire by alpha equation and the results as follows:
Reliability and Validity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>reliability coefficient</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>validity coefficient</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: prepared by researcher, using SPSS, 2016

Notes from the results table that all reliability and validity coefficients for questionnaire is greater than (50%) and close to the one, This indicates that the questionnaire is characterized by high reliability and validity, and makes statistical analysis acceptable.
CHAPTER FOUR

Data analysis, Results and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

As the focus of the present study is on the use of tenses in headlines, the non-verbal headlines, will not be dealt with. The headlines were analyzed into two areas: the first pair consisted of headlines with finite verbal forms according to the tense used. The second pair consisted of the Status of the present tense only because the present tense is the main tense in headlines as the first two tables reveal. Then the results will be discussed with examples.

The media language questionnaire held in November 2015, was distributed online to readers and social media users, 18 questions to determine readers reaction to media language, a 47 reader reacted to the questionnaire, then data was collected through Google docs. Each question will be discussed in detail.
4.2 Newspaper headlines analysis

4.2.1 The Telegraph

Headlines with finite verbal forms according to the tense used

Table (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present simple</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present simple double use</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past simple</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past simple double use</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future simple</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other tenses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of headlines</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We note that most of the individuals study are (present simple) by (27).
4.2.2 The New York Times

Headlines with finite verbal forms according to the tense used

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present simple</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86%</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past simple</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past simple double use</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future simple</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other tenses</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of headlines</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because of this huge figures comparing to other tenses another two tables has to be made just to prove that the historic present is the main tense in headlines.
4.2.3 The Telegraph analysis for historic present

Status of the present tense

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>21/12 2005</th>
<th>22/12 2005</th>
<th>23/12 2005</th>
<th>24/12 2005</th>
<th>25/12 2005</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present simple used as historical present</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>79.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present simple used conventionally</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of headlines</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.4 The New York analysis for historic present

Status of the present tense

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present simple used as historical present</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>69.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present simple used conventionally</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of headlines</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table (3) present simple used as historic present is 79% and in table (4) 69% . comparing it to present simple used conventionally in table (3) 20% only and in table (4) 30.2%.
4.3 Media language questionnaire

1- What kind of newspaper do you read? I read printed newspaper?

Table (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (1)

From table (1) and figure (1) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) by (29) and with (61.7%).
2- I read online newspaper?

Table (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (2)

From table (2) and figure (2) we note that most of the individuals study are (Sometimes) by (24) and with (51.1%).
**3-** I read facebook newspaper?

**Table (3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>%68.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>%12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>%100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure (3)**

From table (3) and figure (3) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) by (32) and with (68.1%).
4 - I read news on twitter?

Table (4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>%48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>%12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>%21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4)

From table (4) and figure (4) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) by (23) and with (48.9%).
5- What part of newspaper you read most? Just read the headliners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>%40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>%42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>%100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table (5) and figure (5) we note that most of the individuals study are (Often) by (23) and with (42.9%).
6- I read the headliners and the news stories?

Table (6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>%19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>%48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>%25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>%100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (6)

From table (6) and figure (6) we note that most of the individuals study are (Sometimes) by (23) and with (48.9%).
I would read the news stories only if I liked the headlines?

Table (7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (7)

From table (7) and figure (7) we note that most of the individuals study are (Often) by (30) and with (63.80%).
8- Do you think that the headlines are matching the news stories behind them?

Table (8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>%12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>%27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>%51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (8)

From table (8) and figure (8) we note that most of the individuals study are (Rarely) by (24) and with (51.1%).
Do you think that the language of newspaper is odd?

Table (9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table (9) and figure (9) we note that most of the individuals study are (Often) by (16) and with (34%).
Do you think headlines form a meaningful sentence?

Table (10)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (10)

From table (10) and figure (10) we note that most of the individuals study are (Sometimes) by (19) and with (40.4%).
**11**. Do you think headlines break grammatical rules?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table (11) and figure (11) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) and (Often) by (16) and with (34%).
Do you care about breaking grammatical rules in headlines?

Table (12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>%23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>%34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>%12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>%14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>%14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (12)

From table (12) and figure (12) we note that most of the individuals study are (Often) by (16) and with (34%).
13. I care about the credibility of the news regardless of breaking grammatical rules.

Table (13)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (13)

From table (13) and figure (13) we note that most of the individuals study are (Often) by (14) and with (29.6%).
14- What do you think is the most important part of newspaper? Headlines are the most important part of newspaper.

Table (14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>%89.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (14)

From table (14) and figure (14) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) by (42) and with (89.4%).
15- News stories are the most important part of newspaper.

Table (15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>%2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>%51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>%46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (15)

From table (15) and figure (15) we note that most of the individuals study are (Often) by (24) and with (51.1%).
16- Pictures are the most important part of newspaper.

Table (16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>%57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>%19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (16)

From table (16) and figure (16) we note that most of the individuals study are (Sometimes) by (27) and with (57.4%).
Do you think media is manipulative? I think the newspaper editors are manipulating us.

Table (17)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>%59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>%34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (17)

From table (17) and figure (17) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) by (28) and with (59.6%).
18- Media in general manipulating us.

Table (18)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>61.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (18)

From table (18) and figure (18) we note that most of the individuals study are (Always) by (29) and with (61.70%).
4.4 Newspaper headlines analysis

By analyzing a sample of 100 headline from The New York Times and The Telegraph, the analyzed sample confirmed that the present tense is on the lead as the tables (1) and (2) reveals. In table (1) 54% and 69.7% almost 70% of table (2). It is not surprising that the largest group of headlines with the finite verb are in simple present tense and because of this huge figures comparing to other tenses another two tables has to be made just to prove that the historic present is the main tense in headlines.

In table (3) present simple used as historic present is 79% and in table (4) 69%. Comparing it to present simple used conventionally in table (3) 20% only and in table (4) 30.2%.

At the beginning each tense used the headlines will be mentioned with examples and explained in detail with its function, of course the present simple will be first in its two main function conventionally and historically, as Example (1)(2)(3)(4) illustrates:

4.4.1 Simple present used conventionally

Example 1

How Santa makes money

The headline in example (1) is on present simple using conventionally now let's take a look at the article to see what tense the editor choose to complete the article with:

Despite Santa's best efforts at using Airbnb and selling leftover cookies, Claus Inc makes an annual loss of £8,421,792,249. Where could Father Christmas cut costs? Just when everything finally starts to slow down in the City.

The journalist completed the article with simple present because it is the correct tense, the same thing in example (2):-
Example 2

The typical American lives 18 mile only from mom.

The headline in example (2) is on present simple using conventionally let's see what tense the editor choose to complete the article with:-

Families traveling from far-flung places, returning home for the holiday That image of an American Christmas fits the perception of Americans as rootless, constantly on the move to seek opportunity even if it means leaving family behind. Yet that picture masks a key fact about the geography of family in the United States: The typical adult lives only 18 miles from his or her mother

After the first line in present continues just because the journalist is trying to make an image for the reader he completed the article with simple present not because it is the favorite tense in headlines but because it is the correct tens. The headlines in example (1) and (2) is on the present simple used conventionally which is less common, the major grope as the analysis reveals is on the present simple used as historic present as in example (3) and (4) :-

4.4.2 Present simple used as historic present

Example (3)

Star wars smashes box office records on opening weekend.

Although smashing the box took place in the past weekend but the journalist wrote it in present simple after that he completed the article with simple past as followed :-

"Star Wars: The Force Awakens" shattered box office records with an estimated $517 million (£350 million) in worldwide ticket sales on its opening weekend, a staggering debut that re-established the celebrated space saga as a global phenomenon.
The first "Star Wars" film in a decade recorded the biggest domestic opening in Hollywood's history, collecting $238 million over the weekend in the United States and Canada.

The same thing in example (4) after writing the headlines in historic present the journalist completed the article in simple past :-

**Example (4)**

*Miss universe host Steve Harvey apologizes for blunder.*

Although the apology took place in the past the headline was written in simple present and completed in simple past :-

*Harvey spoke to reporters assembled at the Planet Hollywood hotel-casino where the pageant concluded with him awarding the crown to the wrong person. Harvey said it was his mistake and that he would take responsibility for not correctly reading the card, which said that contestant Pia Alonzo Wurtzbach of the Philippines was this year's winner and Miss Colombia was the first runner-up.*

Reformulating the message beyond the headlines by means of the simple past tense make sense because first it is the correct tens second the reader at this point is reading the article after the headline achieved its goal with its special ornamented language regardless of the wrong tense used to draw attention at the expense of grammatical rules to the extent that this grammatical error has become a common rule in media language. as table (3) and (4) reveals that writing hot news in historic present is so common in headlines to make the news more fresh more vivid and to keeps the past alive see example (5):-
Example (5)

US admits that coalition air strike 'killed Iraqi soldiers'

Again the article was finished in simple past :-

About 10 Iraqi soldiers may have been killed by an American air strike as they fought Isil terrorists near the town of Fallujah, the US military admitted on Saturday.

4.4.3 Present simple double use

Headlines sometimes form a complex sentence with two verbs both are simple present both are in historic present as in example (6):

Example (6)

Joseph wins but only after Radio Times spoils it

This type of headlines usually used in sport news see example (7):

Example (7):

Andy murry wins sporty as Tyson Fury misses out an award

This type of headlines with Present simple double use is only 4% as table (3) and (4) illustrate. But its importance only because it is part of the simple present used in headlines as historic present.

4.4.4 Simple past

Usually used with the verbs killed and murdered

Example (8)

US. Soldiers are killed by Talibain attack in Afghanistan

Example (9)

Man killed by shark during Aruba shipwreck rescue
4.4.5 Simple past double used

The same as simple past usually used with the verbs killed and murdered in complex sentence with two verbs both in the simple past as in example (10):

Example (10)

Young Afghan American woman shot dead by mullah as she left her Kabul gym

4.4.6 Present Continuous

When this is the right tense why not using it, especially because it gives more live to the headline

Example (11)

Iraq and ISIS forces battling for control of central Ramadi

The article then written in the correct tenses as followed:-

For the first time, Iraqi forces engaged Islamic State fighters within the city center of Ramadi on Tuesday, reaching the edge of the inner government district in an attempt to seize the critical western provincial capital after months of approach and maneuvering, officials said.

4.5 Media Language questionnaire

The questionnaire started with few general questions to warm up and to drew attention to the rest of the more important questions, the first question was:-

1- What kind of newspaper do you read?
As time goes by the interest in printed newspaper is becoming lower and lower every day. If someone is having an accesses to internet with its huge amount of choices will use it, news on Facebook provided by the official pages of the well-known newspapers reduced the interest in printed newspapers in the last few years.

Twitter on the other hand with its condensed letters 140 letter similar to headlines is becoming more popular every day. According to the questionnaire twitter is number two after Facebook.

The fact that 42.6% rarely read printed newspaper is very interesting, Nobody will buy something if he or she can get it for free, that is what the newspaper on line providing weather it is on the websites, Facebook or on twitter.

2 - What part of newspaper you read most?

The significant of this question is figure out the important of headlines by knowing how many readers only read the headlines on one hand and on the other hand how many of them will read the story behind it if they like it.

3 - I just read the headliners.

40.4% of the readers always just read the headlines and 42.9% of readers often just read the headlines this numbers is very important because it reveals the importance of headlines.

4 - I read the headliners and the news stories.

Only 48.9% sometimes read the headlines and the news story and 19.1% often do, this percentage is not convincing assuming that those who choose this answer will read the news stories only if they liked the headlines. That assumption lead us to the next question.
5 - I would read the news stories only if I liked the headlines.

The analyzed sample confirmed the importance of headlines 63.8% always and 31.8.% often continue reading the article if they were interested in headlines, this is very important because it means that journalist are using headlines to drew readers attention convincing the reader to read the hall story.

6 - Do you think that the headlines are matching the news stories behind them?

%51.1 believe that headlines are rarely matching the news stories behind them is reflecting the miss trust between readers and headlines. The anxiousness of journalist to drag readers attention with the special language of headlines is not heading to the right direction, 0 is the number of those who believe that headlines always matching the news stories behind them.

7 - Do you think that the language of newspaper is odd?

The analysis from this point is aiming to focus on the awareness of readers of the odd language of headlines, 34% think it is often odd, and %29.8 think it is always odd. This percentage is telling that the readers are not making up their minds about the unusual language of headlines.

8 - Do you think headlines form a meaningful sentence?

This question is aiming to determine whether this odd language of newspaper headlines is achieving its purpose, but %40.4 believe it is only sometimes forming a meaningful sentence, again in this question the readers are not making up their minds about the language of newspaper headlines.

9 - Do you think headlines break grammatical rules?
34% say headlines are often and 23.4% say it is always breaking grammatical rules, is a good sign that readers are aware to some extent of the inaccuracy of grammar in headlines. Breaking grammatical rules are not only about tenses but it is also include leaving out auxiliary verbs, leaving out articles (a, an, the), and leaving out “to be”.

10 - Do you care about breaking grammatical rules in headlines?

The answers indicate that 34% if the readers often care about breaking grammatical rules and 23.4% of them always care, comparing to those who indicate that 14.9% rarely care and another 14.9% never observing it combining them it become almost 30% rarely or never care.

11- I care about the credibility of the news regardless of breaking grammatical rules.

What is more important to the readers the credibility of the news or breaking grammatical rules? The answers indicate that the credibility of the news are more important to readers than grammatical rules 42.6% always care, and %29.6 often care, combining them is more than two thirds.

12 - What do you think is the most important part of newspaper? (Headlines, pictures or news stories)

According to the analysis headlines are the most important part of newspaper. This was predictable and reflect the importance of headlines, 89.4% answered that headlines are always the most important part of newspaper, this is a High percentage. Journalists know that very well. The most visible and most obvious part of the newspaper are the headlines, this put pressure on the journalist to put more effort in it.

13- Do you think media is manipulative?

14 - I think the newspaper editors are manipulating us.

15 - Media in general manipulating us.
This question is very important. It gives us an idea about the public awareness of media manipulation. It seems that the awareness of newspapers' readers is high because according to the analysis, 59.6% always think the newspaper editors are manipulating us, 34% often think the newspaper editors are manipulating us.

Again, with the next question, even higher percentage 61.7% always think media in general manipulating us, 34% think media in general manipulating us. This high percentage reflects the awareness of readers to the manipulative media. The language of media in general and headlines in particular are no longer reliable nor believable as it was ten years before. What is keeping it going are the variety of newspapers so each newspaper has its readers with the same interest, and concerns.
Chapter 5
Summary, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

5.1 Summary of the study

This study focused on the language of newspaper headlines in general and on the tenses used in headlines in particular. Headlines are written in block language, this language is very important nowadays because it is also used in slogans, lists, titles, and text messages (including tweets) made up only of words that are essential to convey a message.

Historians say newspapers have instigated, supported, and justified wars. In other words the language of media is very dangerous weapon that must be dealt with very carefully. Specially the headlines because as this study proved that it is the most readable, most evident and the most important part of any newspaper. This study goes so deep in the history of linguistic to find out the origin of this language where it come from, what is responsible for making it so popular nowadays.

The condense language of newspaper headlines produced some major issues one of it is verbs. because even when they put some verbs in a headlines the tense is usually confusing the reader even more. The major reason for that is the space. There is only limited space provided for each headline, but more often this happens on purpose to make the headline somehow special with the aim to attract the reader's attention to the report or even to buy the newspaper at all. In that case, readers are mystified, confused and in the end, after reading the report they can feel disappointed as it did not fulfill their expectations.
Majority of readers use headlines to decide whether or not to read your article. Doesn’t matter how good or bad your actual article is. If it has a weak headline, they won’t read it. With the widespread of electronic newspapers the attention of studying headlines Increased not only that headlines are doing its main role in dragging readers attention but also it is very important with the searching engines.

The headline is a unique type of text. It has a range of functions that specifically dictate its shape, content and structure, and it operates within a range of restrictions that limit the freedom of the writer. It encapsulates the story, i.e. article content, in a minimum number words, attracts the reader to the story and, if it appears on the front page, attracts the reader to the paper. As with any good writing good headlines are driven by good verbs and good verb tense.

Understanding tense usage within headlines may lead to understand the language of headlines in particular and the language of media in general, most important to understand the manipulative media now days.

5.1.1 History of Newspaper Headline Language

This study goes so deep in the history of linguistic to find out the origin of this language where it come from, what is responsible for making it so popular now days.

The language of headlines was originated at the year 1851 in this year the first telegram service was Invented in British India. The telegraph companies charged for their service by the number of words in a message, with a maximum of 15 characters per word for a plain-language telegram, and 10 per word for one written in code. The style developed to minimize costs but still convey the message clearly and unambiguously.

In 1923, the American writer Ernest Hemingway conceived of the idea of a new theory of writing after finishing his short story "Out of Season", his posthumously published memoirs about his years as a young writer in Paris, he explains: "I omitted the real end [of "Out of Season"] which was
that the old man hanged himself. This was omitted on my new theory that you could omit anything ... and the omitted part would strengthen the story."

Hemingway's biographer Carlos Baker believed that as a writer of short stories Hemingway learned "how to get the most from the least, how to prune language and avoid waste motion, how to multiply intensities, and how to tell nothing but the truth in a way that allowed for telling more than the truth." .

5.1.2 Language Change

Languages change, usually very slowly, sometimes very rapidly. There are many reasons a language might change. People tend to think that older forms of languages are more elegant, logical, or ‘correct’ than modern forms, but it’s just not true. The fact that language is always changing doesn't mean it's getting worse; it's just becoming different. By 'correct English', people usually mean Standard English. Most languages have a standard form; it's the form of the language used in government, education, and other formal contexts. But Standard English is actually just one dialect of English. ( Birner, 1991).

5.1.3 Generative Grammar

The system of rules that specifies the sound–meaning relation for a given language can be called the “grammar” – or, to use a more technical term, the “generative grammar” – of this language. To say that a grammar “generates” a certain set of structures is simply to say that it specifies this set in a precise way. In this sense, we may say that the grammar of a language generates an infinite set of “structural descriptions,” each structural description being an abstract object of some sort that determines
a particular sound, a particular meaning, and whatever formal properties and configurations serve to mediate the relation between sound and meaning. For example, the grammar of English generates structural descriptions for the sentences I am now speaking; or, to take a simpler case for purposes of illustration.

5.1.4 Historic present

In linguistics and rhetoric, the historic present or historical present (also called dramatic present or narrative present) refers to the employment of the present tense when narrating past events. It is used in fiction, for 'hot news' (as in headlines), and in everyday conversation. The present tense is widely used in news headlines (spoken or written) for dynamic situations in the recent past (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 129–131).

The present tense is used for past time situations in informal conversational narration or in fiction:

There was I playing so well even I couldn’t believe it and along comes this kid and keeps me off the table for three frames!

The present tense is also widely used in news headlines (spoken or written) for dynamic situations in the recent past:

US admits that coalition air strike ‘killed Iraqi soldier

Language is seen as an abstract pattern located in the speech community and exterior to the individual. The human language faculty, an evolutionary development rooted in human physiology, is then viewed as the capacity to perceive, reproduce and employ this pattern. The mere fact of diversity is usually not a challenge to our understanding of the mechanisms of linguistic change, even when we cannot trace the exact historical paths leading to such divergence. (Labor, 2010: 7)
5.1.5 Tenses in newspaper headline language

To prove that the present simple used as historic present is the main tense in newspaper headlines an analyzed sample of 100 headline from The New York Times and The Telegraph, the analyzed sample confirmed that the present tense is on the lead. In table (1) 54% and 69.7% almost 70% of table (2), It is not surprising that the largest group of headlines with the finite verb are in simple present tense.

Because of this huge figures comparing to other tenses another two tables has to be made just to prove that the historic present is the main tense in headlines. It was divided in to two sections (present simple used as historic present / present simple used conventionally).

In table (3) present simple used as historic present is 79% and in table (4) 69% . comparing it to present simple used conventionally in table (3) 20% only and in table (4) 30.2%.

This numbers prove that the present simple is the main tense in newspaper headlines, it is also prove (which more important) the present simple used as historic present is the number one tense in newspaper headlines.

5.2 A review of the important questions answered in this study about media language

1- 42.6% of readers rarely read printed newspaper. Nobody will buy something if he or she can get it for free, that is what the newspaper on line providing weather it is on the websites, Facebook or on twitter.

2- 63.8% always continue reading the article if they were interested in headlines, this is very important because it means that journalist are using headlines to drew readers attention convincing the reader to read the hall story.
3- 51.1% believe that headlines are rarely matching the news stories behind them is reflecting the miss trust between readers and headlines.

4- 34% think it is often odd, and %29.8 think it is always odd. This percentage is telling that the readers are not making up their minds about the unusual language of headlines.

5- 40.4% believe it is only sometimes forming a meaningful sentence, again in this question the readers are not making up their minds about the language of newspaper headlines.

6- 34% say headlines are often and 23.4% say it is always breaking grammatical rules, is a good sign that readers are aware to some extent of the inaccuracy of grammar in headlines.

7- The answers indicate that 34% of the readers often care about breaking grammatical rules and 23.4% of them always care, and 30% rarely or never care.

8- The credibility of the news are more important to readers than grammatical rules %42.6 always care, and %29.6 often care, combining them is more than two thirds.

9- 89.4% answered that headlines are always the most important part of newspaper, this high percentage put pressure on journalists to put more effort in it.

10- 61.7% always think media in general manipulating us. 34% think media in general manipulating us. This high percentage reflect the awareness of readers to the manipulative media. The language of media in general and headlines in particular are no longer reliable nor believable as it was ten years before. What it keeping it going are the variety of newspapers so each newspaper has its readers with the same interest, and concerns.
5.3 Conclusion

The English language is generative, unlike the Arabic language which is preserved by Quran because it is the language of Quran, unattached by the deferent dialects, the English language changes very fast sometimes and very slow on others, according to human needs, technology, and attachment with other nations or cultures.

As the language changes the grammar changes with it, speakers and readers do not pay much attention to this rapid changes sometimes as long as it fulfill their needs. In the last years a form of condense language (block language) became very popular. 100 years earlier we would found it only in telegraphs, nowadays it is everywhere, in headlines, in text messages, and on tweets.

As with telegraph, space was the main cause of this change, but in headlines it went far beyond space to more dangerous causes as manipulation. A good example is historic present tense. the Contemporary linguists give it a name to make it more acceptable and stopped the confusion among readers about why is it acceptable to put past event in present simple tense. The widespread of historical present in news headlines is because they describe events that have already occurred. Headlines, in contrast, provide an element of freshness. You don’t feel that you are reading stale, news – news about an event that has occurred a day ago.

Media is becoming unreliable every day, Headlines are narrative hook to draw the reader into a story, using the wrong language sometimes or using the over exaggerated language other times are the main causes. Readers pay attention to the content of the news regardless of breaking grammatical rules to an extent that this broken rule was given a name by linguists to make it more acceptable.

Linguists consider media is one of the causes of language change. Media is a huge industry its main tool is language, this language has to be shaped according to its needs weather to make it more glamorous, more efficient, or simply for more space.
5.4 Recommendations

General recommendations for both readers, students, and researchers mainly to raise the awareness about media, techniques used by journalists to control the minds through the media.

5.4.1 Recommendations for readers

1 - Raise the awareness among readers about the flaws of media language, inform them about all the tricks the journalists are using to hook them.

2 - Start using the term manipulative media to raise the awareness among readers. This will create more aware readers, well prepared to handle this media.

5.4.2 Recommendations for teachers

1 - Teaching present history with its usage among other tenses will help the students and readers to become more educated about English language and how and why this language is very generative.

2 - Using the term manipulative media among students will encourage them to study it more often, and to perform more researches about it hoping for better media.

5.5 Suggestions for further studies

Media is a huge industry, a very important, sometimes dangerous weapon aiming for two things to sell more and to shape public opinion, every student must keep that in mind before he or she walk through this road weather this student is studying media in general or media language and grammar in particular.
5.5.1 Suggestions for further studies in Linguistics:

5.5.1.1 Media and social media impact on linguistic change

The diversity of the media nowadays between newspapers, magazines and TV channels led to the emergence of special language, this language has its impact on everyday life. Add to that the huge evolution on social media to the extent that it is affecting English language adding new rules and new grammar to it.

5.5.1.2 Syntactic change

Syntactic change is a phenomenon creating a shift in language patterns over time, subject to cyclic drift. The morphological idiosyncrasies of today are seen as the outcome of yesterday's regular syntax. For instance, in English, the past tense of the verb to go is not goed or any other form based on the base go, as could be expected, but went, a borrowing from the past tense of the verb to wend.

5.5.1.3 Block Language

Newspaper headlines are written in a block telegraphic style, headlines which often omit the copula creating syntactic ambiguity, also called amphiboly or amphibology. The term block language was introduced by H. Straumann in Newspaper Headlines: A Study of Linguistic Method (1935). This Language structure is typical of headlines, slogans, lists, titles, and text messages (including tweets) made up only of words that are essential to convey a message.
5. 5.2 Suggestions for further studies in grammar :-

5. 5.2.1 Past simple in newspaper headlines

Past simple is the number two tense in newspaper headlines, its main usage is with the verbs died, murdered and killed as this study shown but it still needs more researches and analyzing its usage in headlines.

- Women in 70s killed and several badly injured after Audi ploughs into packed coffee shop

5. 5.2.2 Leave out auxiliary verbs in headlines

With perfect, progressive and passive structures, auxiliary verbs are not necessary. This makes some headlines appear to be in the past tense.

- Lion escapes zoo – ten killed (ten people have been killed / were killed)
- Temperatures rising as climate changes (temperatures are rising)

5. 5.2.3 Use infinitives for future events in headlines

Using the future tense is not necessary in headlines instead using to + infinitive is more efficient more Brief and to the point in newspaper headlines.

- U.S to protect African lions under new rules
- U.S will protect African lions under new rules

- Robert Dust to be extradited for murder charges
- Robert Dust will be extradited for murder charges

- Switzerland to vote referendum on banning banks from creating money
- Switzerland will vote referendum on banning banks from creating money
5.5.2.4 Leave out "said" in reported speech in headlines

Reported speech is usually represented by a colon, or a hyphen, with the subject introduced with ‘on…’. This includes leaving out other verbs such as comment, tell, argue, announce, shout – unless the act of speaking needs emphasizing, for instance to demonstrate a promise or official policy.

- Mr Jones: “They’re not taking my house!”

5.5.3 Suggestions for further studies in Media

More studies need to be made on the geographic distribution of each sort of media branch, as each country or geographic region tend to favor one type of media, focusing on Television channels, Facebook, Twitter, etc.
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Appendices

Media Language Questionnaire

media language

What kind of newspaper do you read?
I read printed newspapers.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- never

I read online newspapers.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- never

I read Facebook newspapers.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- never

I read news on twitter.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- never
What part of newspaper you read most?
I just read the headlines.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

I read the headlines and the news stories.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

I would read the news stories only if I liked the headlines
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Do you think that the headlines are matching the news stories behind them?
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Do you think that the language of newspaper is odd?
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Do you think Headlines form a meaningful sentence?
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
Do you think headlines break grammatical rules?
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Do you care about breaking grammatical rules in headlines?
I care about breaking grammatical rules.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

I care about the credibility of the news regardless of breaking grammatical rules.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

What do you think is the most important part of newspaper?
Headlines are the most important part of the newspaper.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

News stories are the most important part of the newspaper.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Pictures are the most important part of the newspaper.
- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never
Do you think media is manipulative?
I think the newspaper editors are manipulating us.

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- never

Media in general manipulating us.

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- never