CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter presents literature review. The framework that is adopted in this chapter is divided into two parts. The first part introduces some related key concepts of the study. It begins with definitions of the concept of 'discourse' and 'discourse analysis'. Then it moves to discuss the types of discourse and differences between spoken and written discourse from different aspects, e.g., formal features, manner of production and their relationships. Proceeding next to include views about discourse and text, composing processes and composing as discourse.

The first part of the chapter also defines the concept of 'media discourse'. It includes discussions on 'Newspapers' as a media means for communication and differentiates between print and online newspapers. Newspaper language and articles structure are also dealt with for their relevance in the current study.

The second part of the chapter critically reviews some related previous studies concerning the analysis of *'Newspaper Articles'* to identify what others have said, and/or discovered about this area of investigation.

2.1 Conceptional Framework

2.1.1 Discourse

2.1.1.1 Definition of Discourse

The meaning of the term discourse has evolved through time. Since 1980s, many linguists have used discourse to refer to speech, such as Foucault (1982) who defines discourse as meaningful utterances and Slings (1999) who states that "discourse refers to speech as addressed by one

person to another" (p.35). However, the meaning of discourse has later extended beyond speech "to include every instance of language use" (Ansari, 2013, p.15).

Therefore, discourse can be viewed as language use, be it spoken or written; it is a continuous stretch of language, larger than a sentence, which constitutes a coherent unit (Pustejovsky, 2006). In other words, it is a connected speech or writing which could be of any length. In fact, there are several definitions of the term 'discourse' according to various theorists. Among those theorists is the French philosopher Foucault (1995) who considers discourse to be the acceptable statements within a certain community. For Johnstone (2002), discourse is the "actual instances of communication in the medium of language" (p. 2). In addition, Verdonk (2002) defines it as the "process of activation of a text by relating it to a context of use" (p. 18). Another key point, Hatim and Mason (1990) view discourse as "a matter of expression of attitude" and believe that it is "a mode of speaking and writing which involves the participants in adopting particular attitudes towards areas of socio-cultural activity: racial discourse, scientific discourse, domestic discourse" (p. 144).

2.1.1.2 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is the study of language in use (Fairclough, 1992). It studies the language beyond the sentence and analyzes its nature. Discourse analysis can be defined as a "set of methods and theories for investigating language in use and language in social contexts" (Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001, i). Likewise, Jorgensen and Philip (2002) state that:

> In many cases, underlying the word 'discourse' is the
> general idea that language is structured according to
> different patterns that people's utterances follow when
> they take part in different domains of social life, familiar

examples being 'medical discourse' and 'political discourse'. 'Discourse analysis' is the analysis of these patterns (p. 1).

Johnstone (2002) describes discourse analysis as "a methodology that can be used in answering many kinds of questions" (p. 4). It analyzes different types of texts such as dialogues, news, political speeches, and stories. It is not only concerned with the analysis of text structure, but it also takes into consideration context. The term context refers to "the physical environment in which a word is used" (George Yule, 2000, p. 128). It includes everything that surrounds the production of the text. The consideration of context helps to examine the language beyond the sentence and thus understand the message the reader or the speaker wants to convey. Therefore, context is seen as a primary factor in discourse analysis. The present study is going to analyze the text-discourse in varied contexts.

2.1.1.3 Types of Discourse

There are two types of discourse: spoken and written discourse. Spoken discourse refers to speech while written discourse refers to written texts. Such division is due to the fact that there are many differences between them.

2.1.1.3.1 The Relationship between Speech and Writing

The view that written language and spoken language serve, in general, quite different functions in society has been forcefully propounded by Goody (1977, as cited in Brown & Yule,1983).

Goody suggests that written language has two main functions: the first is the storage function which permits communication over time and space, and the second is that which 'shifts language from the oral to the

visual domain' and permits words and sentences to be examined out of their original contexts, 'where they appear in very different and highly "abstract" context' (1983, p. 43).

Brown & Yule (1983) suggest that, whereas in daily life in a literate culture, we use speech largely for the establishment and maintenance of human relationships (primarily interactional use), we use written language largely for the working out of and transference of information (primarily transactional use) . However, there are occasions when speech is used for the detailed transmission of factual information. It is noteworthy, then, that the recipient often writes down the details that he is told. So a doctor writes down his patient's symptoms , an architect writes down his client's requirements , we write down friends' addresses , telephone numbers , recipes , knitting patterns , and so on . When the recipient is not expected to write down the details, it is often the case that the speaker repeats them sometimes several times over . There is a general expectation that people will not remember detailed facts correctly if they are only exposed to them in the spoken mode , especially if they are required to remember them over an extended period of time . This aspect of communication is obviously what written language is supremely good at , whether for the benefit of the individual in remembering the private paraphernalia of daily life or for the benefit of nations in establishing constitutions laws and treaties with other nations.

The major differences between speech and writing, thus, are derive from the fact that one is essentially transitory and the other is designed to be permanent (Brown & Yule ,1983).

2.1.1.3.2 Manner of Production

From the point of view of production, it is clear that spoken language is different in certain important respects from written language .

The actual phonetic realization of language elements is only one component of face-to-face communication . In addition to purely verbal elements , we have non-verbal or paralinguistic elements like ' tone of voice' facial expression and gesture. Speakers body language in which they use different parts of their bodies such as hands and face to indicate a wide range of emotional states and intentions . The written language , on the other hand , is not associated with the use of paralinguistic features . The whole burden of the written communication falls on linguistic elements. There are certain graphological devices – punctuation, underlining, capitalization and so on – which fulfill something of the function of the paralinguistic element in speech, but compared to the resources available to spoken language, they are very few and very limited in communicative capacity . Written language has, therefore, to make use of the language system in such a way as to compensate for the absence of the variety of paralinguistic elements available in speech situations (Davies &Widdowson, 1974).

Not only are the speakers controlling the production of communicative systems which are different from those controlled by the writers, they are also processing that production under circumstances which are considerably more demanding. The speakers must monitor what it is that they have just said, and determine whether it matches their intentions , while they are uttering their current phrase, and simultaneously planning the next utterance and fitting that into the overall pattern of what they want to say and monitoring , moreover , not only their own performance but its reception by the hearers . They have no permanent record of what they have said earlier , once the words are said, they are gone. Only under

unusual circumstances do speakers have notes which remind them what they want to say next . The writers, on the contrary , may look over what they have already written , pause between each word with no fear of their interlocutors interrupting them , take their time in choosing a particular word , even looking it up in the dictionary if necessary , check their progress with their notes , reorder what they have written ,and even change their minds about what they want to say . Whereas the speakers are under considerable pressure to keep on talking during the period allotted to them, the writers are characteristically under no such pressure . Whereas the speakers know that any word which passes their lips will be heard by their interlocutors and, if they are not what they intend , they will have to undertake active, public 'repair' , the writers can cross out and rewrite in the privacy at their study (Brown & Yule, 1983).

There are , of course , advantages of the written language for the readers . They can control the rate at which they read , can naturally reread earlier portions of a text, skim, scan , jump forwards and backwards if it suits their purposes . They also can omit sections they already know about . It does not matter too much if the written form includes information which a particular reader already knows . In contrast , listeners are forced to take notice of the speakers. They do not directly control the rate at which they hear speech, nor they can re-listen or scan ahead without some action on the part of the producer of the speech as to ask for a repetition (Bygate, 1987) .

On the other hand, there are also advantages for the speakers. Speech is a reciprocal activity , where there is a constant interchange between the participants , each playing the role of speaker in turn . What the speaker says is controlled by the reactions of the listener expressed either by linguistic or by paralinguistic means .The reactions of the listener provide feedback to the speaker who modifies what he says and the manner in

which he says it accordingly to make it more accessible or acceptable to him . In speech , the participants are actively involved , each monitoring the other ; able to put each other right if they make mistake .However, writers have no access to immediate feedback and simply have to imagine the reader's point of view. They have to anticipate the reader's understanding and predict potential problems of comprehension (ibid).

In doing this, the writers have to make guesses about what the readers know and do not know, about what the readers will be able to understand and even about what the readers will want to read . If the writers get this wrong , the readers may give up the book or article in disgust before getting far . Both readers and writers need patience and imagination at a communicative level .

Speakers , however, are in a different position. They may need patience and imagination too , but to make sure that communication is taking place; they have to pay attention to their listeners and adapt their messages according to their listeners' reactions. With the help of these reactions, the message can be adjusted from moment to moment, understanding can be improved , and the speaker's task is therefore facilitated (Bygate, 1987) .

Whereas in a spoken interaction the speaker has the advantage of being able to monitor his listener's minute -by- minute reaction to what he says, he also suffers from the disadvantage of exposing his own feelings (Ekman & Friesen , 1974) and of having to speak clearly and concisely and make immediate response to whichever way his interlocutor reacts .

Thus , it is obvious that spoken and written language make somewhat different manners of production . Due to the differences in the manner of production of speaking and writing , language-users are likely to produce differences in the composition of spoken and written discourse. The following discussion explains this point.

2.1.1.3.3 Differences in Form between Written and Spoken Language

The differences between speaking and writing as forms is, again, a point appreciated by Goody (1977 as cited by Brown & Yule, 1983), and some other scholars who were studying spoken and written language (e.g. Labov,1972; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Chafe, 1979; Ochs, 1979; Ciourel, 1981; Goffman,1981).

In the discussion which follows, distinctions between spoken and written language as forms are presented , and which have been extracted by Brown & Yule (1983) from the works of the above scholars.

a . The syntax of spoken language is typically much less structured than that of written language :

I.   Spoken language contains many incomplete sentences , often simply sequences of phrases;

II.   Spoken language typically contains rather little subordination;

III.   In conversational speech, where sentential syntax can be observed, simple active declarative forms are normally found .

b. In written language an extensive set of metalingual markers exists to mark relationships between clauses (when /while temporal markers, so-called 'logical connectors' like besides , moreover, however , in spite of , etc), in spoken language the largely paratactically organized chunks are related by and , but, then, and more rarely if . The speaker is typically less explicit than the writer . In written language rhetorical organizers of larger stretches of discourse appear , like firstly , more important than and in conclusion . These are rare in spoken language .

c. In written language , rather heavily premodified noun phrases are quite common – it is rare in spoken language to find more than two premodifying adjectives and there is a strong tendency to structure the short chunks of speech so that only one predicate is attached to a given referent at a time .

d . In informal speech , the occurrence of passive constructions is relatively infrequent . That use of the passive in written language which allows non-attribution of agency is typically absent from conversational speech. Instead , active constructions with indeterminate group agents are noticeable .

e. The speaker typically uses a good deal of rather generalized vocabulary: a lot of, got , do, thing , nice , stuff , place and things like that , whereas the writers usually employ formal , elaborate and more technical vocabulary .

f. The written language avoids the expression that are peculiar to the oral language; a set of conventional 'colloquial' or idiomatic expression or phrase , such as tags , fillers (like listen , you know , I mean , I think , if you see and so on) .

g. The written language is less redundant than the spoken form of the language in that repetitions , duplications and rephrasing are avoided . It contains fewer signals for the same aspect of meaning . Speakers frequently repeat the same syntactic form several times , re-correct and improve what is already said .

h. Mistakes , both in syntax and wording are likely to be found in speech rather than the written form . This is because speakers always lose their place in the grammar of their utterance when they speak .

i. While the written language does not use "ellipsis" , speaker frequently make use of it , to produce ' incomplete' sentences or clauses . This consists of the omission of parts of a sentence , like syntactic abbreviation to facilitate production when time is short.

j. The message in speech is not so economically organized as it might be in print .

The above comparison shows basically the differences between spoken and written language/discourse as forms.

2.1.1.4 Discourse and Text

As a result of the difference between written and spoken discourses, some linguists believe that 'text' and 'discourse' are two different terms in the sense that text is written, i.e. sentences, while discourse is spoken, i.e. utterances. Stubbs (1983) differentiates between text and discourse and states that "one talks of written text versus spoken discourse" (p. 9). In the same way, Nunan (1993) views text as "any written record of a communicative event" which is distinct from 'discourse' that refers to the interpretation of the communicative event in context (p. 9).

However, others consider 'discourse' and 'text' to be synonyms such as Chafe (2003) who believes that both "refer to a unit of language larger than the sentence" (p.439). In the same way, Dakowska (2001) suggests using them interchangeably and notes that 'text' refers to "the linguistic product... and 'discourse' implies the entire dynamics of the processes" (p. 81).

In the current research work, the two terms, discourse and text, will be used interchangeably. Furthermore, since the subjects of analysis of the work are newspaper articles, the terms texts and articles will be used interchangeably as well.

2.1.1.5 Composing Processes

Advances in knowledge of composing are reflected in challenges to linear-stage conceptions of writing. Some theoretical and applied researches (e.g., de Beaugrande, 1984; Bracewell et al.,1982; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Nold, 1981; Witte, 1985) have shown that earlier simplistic linear-stage models of composing serve better as models of the emergence of the written product than they do as models of the thinking processes that writers employ in producing written texts. Such linear-stage models represent writing as consisting of a series of discreet stages such as

prewriting, writing, and rewriting. Linear-stage models see writing primarily as a problem in either arrangement or style, but seldom as a problem in invention/thinking (Flower & Hayes, 1981).

Composition is now viewed by some researchers and theorists as a knowledge/thinking problem and a communication problem (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Accordingly, composing processes are best seen as cognitive processes. These processes have been shown to recur in a nonlinear fashion during the act of writing. They have also been shown to interact with one another.

The powerful recent model of composing is developed by Flower and Hayes (1981) from their studies of thinking-aloud protocols collected from writers in the act of writing. Their cognitive process model represent writing as consisting essentially of three interacting components—the task environment, the writer's long-term memory (LTM), and composing processes themselves. The task environment contains two components : the rhetorical problem- which consists of the writing topic, the audience, and exigency- and the text which the writer has "produced so far". The writer's LTM consists of knowledge of topic, audience, and writing plans. Both the task environment and the writer's LTM affect and are affected by the writing processes themselves. These writing processes are three in number: planning, translating, and reviewing. Planning includes the sub-processes of generating ideas and plans, organizing ideas and goals, and setting procedural and substantive plans. Translating involves expressing ideas and goals in verbal forms. And reviewing includes the sub-processes of evaluating and revising, which can take as their focus either plans or text. Through the use of a monitor, the writer is able to switch back and forth among the processes and to embed one process or sub-process within another such that, for example, reviewing can become a sub-process or subroutine during planning.

According to Scardamalia and Bereiter (1994), the Flower and Hayes model "appears to serve a frame for working out more detailed accounts of how the mind copes with writing tasks" (p. 153).

Thus, the Flower and Hayes model represents composing as an exceedingly complex problem-solving activity invoked in response to a rhetorical situation that demands a communicative utterance in the form of an extended written text. Accordingly, the model suggests that the way a writer represents a rhetorical problem affects both the writing processes and the written product and, further, that the text will reflect decisions writers make either planning or translating (Witte &Cherry, 1985).

Bracewell et al. (1982) points out that the planning and translating processes identified by Flower and Hayes are not related to the text structure and the features the writer produces. Thus their discussion on writing processes diverts attention away from the connections between the planning and translating processes, and specific features of texts. Accordingly, their cognitive process model of composing lacks a certain specificity.

Bracewell et al.'s (1982) recent work helps add specificity to the Flower and Hayes theoretical model by hypothesizing certain relationships among planning, translating, and text. They see translating as influenced by both 'regulating' and 'framing' processes. They illustrate these processes by referring to research on conversation. Conversation involves more than content; it also involves the 'important processes' that regulate the 'flow' of the conversation and create a 'framework' by which the various "utterances can be interpreted and understood" (p.150) . According to them regulating and framing processes that govern the structure, content, and direction of conversation also figure in the comprehension and production of written discourse. Based on their theoretical considerations of comprehension processes, Bracewell et al. hypothesize that :

a close connection exists between frame construction processes in comprehension and planning the conceptual content of a paper. Translating processes provide the link between the conceptual frame on one hand, and the staging and use of language devices on the other (p.161).

Thus Bracewell et al.'s hypothesis, as it addresses the critical juncture between planning and translating, contributes the needed specificity to the Flower and Hayes cognitive process theory of composing by showing how the major processes of planning and translating are related and in turn how those two processes relate to text (Witte & Cherry, 1985).

This way, Bracewell et al.'s contribution is remarkably useful because it explains how the audience can use the text structure to infer the producer's conceptual structure, and how a speaker/writer must produce a text that is able to sustain the audience's inferences about the underlying conceptual structure. In other words, it helps explain a process of interaction through the framework of an utterance. It is the structure of the text that can support comprehension and make the entire discourse a coherent meaningful utterance which can be interpreted and understood.

On the other hand, Bracewell et al.'s contribution has an important implication to composition teachers. In accordance with the discussion about framing and regulating processes, teachers can then hypothesize that the problem of framing and regulating discourse is considerably more difficult for writers than for speakers; because writers are unable to interact with an audience physically present during production. And, therefore, the teachers cannot expect an immediate production in writing as in speaking. But rather, they have to provide enough time for writers to establish a framework, access to long-term memory to control the content, project themselves imaginatively into a situational context, and retranslate (revise)

portions of the 'text produced so far' to adjust them to the emergent framework or be content with a text that lacks coherence.

2.1.1.6 Composing & Discourse

In the study of composition as 'discourse' , people tend to focus specifically on aspects of what is unsaid or unwritten , yet communicated . In order to interpret the discourse , they have to go beyond the primary use of language , look behind the forms and structures present in the text and pay more attention to psychological concepts such as background knowledge , beliefs and expectations . In composition as discourse , people inevitably explore what the speaker or writer has in mind (Brown & Yule, 1983). The following are some key elements that are concerned in the interpretation of any discourse (either spoken or written) .

2.1.1.6.1 Cohesion

The texts must have a certain structure which depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of a single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of 'cohesion' or the ties and connections which exist within texts (Yule , 1985).

Halliday &Hasan take the view that the primary determinant of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create 'texture' : "A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text … The texture is provided by the cohesive RELATION" (1976, p. 88). Cohesive relationships within a text are set up "where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another . The connections can be created by the use of pronouns , which we assume are used to maintain reference to the same people and things .The connection can also be lexical , created by a number of terms which share a common element of meaning . The verb tenses, too,

can make a cohesive relationship between events in the discourse. A familiar type of explicitly marked cohesive relationship in texts is , often , indicated by formal markers which relate what is about to be said to what has been said before –markers like and , but , so and then" (p. 90) .

Halliday & Hasan (1976) provide an extended discussion of the relationships indicated by such markers , together with an extended taxonomy . The taxonomy of types of explicit markers of conjunctive relations is exemplified in the following :

A. Additive   and ,or ,furthermore , similarly , in addition

B. Adversative   but ,however , on the other hand ,nevertheless

C. Causal   so , consequently , for this reason ,it follows from this

D. Temporal   then , after that ,an hour later , finally , at last

It is , of course , not the case that any one of these formal markers stands in a simple one -to-one relationship with a particular cohesive relation :and for example , can occur between sentences which exhibit any one of the four relationships mentioned above .

Halliday &Hasan recognize that "it is the underlying semantic relation that actually has the cohesive power " (1976, p. 1) , rather than particular cohesive marker . Nonetheless , they insist that it is the presence of the cohesive markers which constitutes 'textness'.

Analysis of these cohesive links within a text gives us some insight into how speakers and writers structure what they want to say and may be crucial factors in our judgments on whether something is well spoken or written or not . However , cohesion , by itself would not be sufficient to enable us to make sense of what we listen to or read . It is quite easy to create a highly cohesive text which has a lot of connections between sentences, but which remains difficult to interpret. "Connectedness" is not simply based on connections between the words . There must be some other factor which lead us to distinguish connected texts, which make sense

from those which do not . This factor is usually described as "coherence" (Brown & Yule, 1983).

2.1.1.6.2 Coherence

The key to the concept of coherence is not something which exists in the language, but something which exists in people .It is people who 'make sense' of what they read and hear . They try to arrive at an interpretation which is in line with their experience of the way the world is . In listening to or reading a text , we keep trying to make the text 'fit' some situation or experience which would accommodate all the details and find a way to incorporate all the disparate elements into a single coherent interpretation. In doing so, we would necessarily be involved in a process of filling in a lot of 'gaps' which exist in the text . We would have to create meaningful connections which are not actually expressed by the words and sentences . It is our efforts to arrive at the writer's (or speaker's) intended meaning in processing a linguistic message that makes the whole discourse a coherent one (Brown & Yule,1983).

In conversational interactions , we are continually taking part ,where a great deal of what is meant is not actually present in what is said . Perhaps it is the ease with which we ordinarily anticipate each others' intentions that make the whole complex process seem so unremarkable. However, in conversational interaction, interpretation of a coherent discourse depends on our ability of computing the communicative function of the utterance rather than on what is said (Yule,1985) .

Labov (1984) argues that there are 'rules of interpretation which relate what is said to what is done' and it is on the basis of such social , but not linguistic , rules that we interpret some conversational sequences as coherent and other as non-coherent .

Labov, also points out that the recognition of coherence or incoherence in conversational sequences is not based on a relationship between utterances, but "between the actions performed with those utterances" (p. 70).

Widdowson (1979) suggests that it is only by recognizing the action performed by the utterances within the conventional sequencing of the actions that we can accept the sequence as coherent discourse .

To arrive at a reasonable interpretation, then , we must have a lot of knowledge of how interaction works which is not simply linguistic knowledge. This point is discussed below.

2.1.1.6.3 Background Knowledge

Adults are able to arrive automatically at interpretation of the unwritten and unsaid ; this is because they possess quite substantial amounts of background experience and knowledge . They use this pre-existing knowledge , which functions like familiar patterns , to interpret new experience (Yule,1985) .

Since the information adults arrive at is not directly stated in the text, it is described as 'inference' (Haviland & Clark, 1974). The inference is clearly derived from conventional knowledge and cultures of social community . Beaugrande (1980) notes : " the question of how people know what is going on in a text is a special case of the question of how people know what is going on in the world at all'' (p. 91).

Minsky's 'frame -theory' (1975) provides one way of representing the background knowledge which is used in the production and understanding of discourse . He proposes that our knowledge is stored in memory in the form of data structures , which he calls "frames" , and which represent stereotyped situations .

The notion of "frame" is described by Charniak (1979, as quoted by Brown & Yule, 1983) : "a process of fitting what one is told into the framework established by what one already knows" (p.239)

Riesbeck (1975, as cited by Brown & Yule, 1983) boldly asserts that 'comprehension is a memory process' (p. 243). Understanding discourse is, in this sense , essentially a process of retrieving stored information from memory and relating it to the encountered discourse .

Riesbeck & Schank (1978) describe how our understanding of what we read or hear is very much "expectation-based" (p. 36). That is when we read something or listen to , we have very strong expectations about what , conceptually , will be the subsequent utterance and that is based on our knowledge of what normally happens . In attempting to describe this phenomenon , many researchers use the concept of 'schemata' .

Bartlett (1932) believed that our memory for discourse was not based on straight reproduction , but was constructive; using information from the encountered discourse , together with knowledge from past experience related to the discourse at hand, to build a mental representation.

Thus, our understanding of what we listen to and read does not directly come from what words and sentences are on the page , but from the interpretation we create, in our mind, at what we hear and read.

It is common , then , to find uses of language which do not conform to the knowledge of the language system and which are nevertheless interpretable .

Composition , therefore , is not only exemplification of linguistic categories ; but also a piece of communication , a discourse of one kind or another which requires deep understanding and analysis .

To sum up, in the study of discourse analysis, the focus is often on aspects of what is unsaid or unwritten but it is communicated. The analyst

has to go beyond the primary use of language and look behind the forms and structure present in the text; relating it to social contexts and considering everything surrounding the text. This is, in fact, the procedure that is going to be applied for the analysis in the current study.

2.1.1.7. Historical Background

Discourse analysis has drawn the attention of many linguists who have provided a theoretical background and a practical methodology of how to examine language in use. Harris's 'Discourse Analysis' (1952) is one of the early works in discourse analysis where the famous linguist was interested in the distribution of linguistic elements in "extended texts" as well as "the links between the text and its social situation" (MacCarthy, 1991, p.5). MacCarthy (ibid.) summarized the major linguists whose works have contributed to the development of discourse analysis studies. Among these linguists are Hymes (1960), Austin (1962), Searle (1969), and Grice (1975). They studied language in relation to society and most of their works are critical studies in discourse analysis.

In addition to that, there are many works published in the field of discourse analysis in recent years. Many of them are worth mentioning such as discourse and politics (Schaffner & Kelly-Holmes, 1996; Howarth et al., 2000); ideologies (Schaffner, 1997) and national identity (Wodak, 1999); environmental discourse (Hajer, 1997; Harre, Brockmeier, & Muhlhausler, 1999); discourse and gender (Walsh, 2001; Wodak, 1997; Romaine, 1998); discourse of disability (Corker & French, 1999); applied discursive psychology (Willig, 1999); professional discourse (Gunnarson, Linell, & Nordberg, 1997) and professional communication across cultural boundaries (Scollon, & Yuling, 2001); the discourse of interrogation and confession (Shuy, 1998); academic discourse (Swales, 1998); discourse in cross-cultural communication (Hatim, 2000) and translation (Schaffner,

2002); discourse in everyday life (Locke, 1998; Cameron, 2000; Delin, 2000), and divine discourse (Wolterstorff, 1995).

Linguists study texts from two perspectives. They see them as consisting of words, clauses, or sentences that are connected together according to certain rules to be meaningful. Accordingly, they examine the linguistic and the semantic features of the text. Regarding the other perspective, some linguists study the external factors related to the text and the production of this text. This includes the text's cultural and situational contexts.

Jorgensen and Philip (2002) state that discourse analysis is not just one approach but "a series of interdisciplinary approaches that can be used to explore many different social domains in many different types of studies" (p.1). It can be applied to different types of language use like political discourse (Chilton, 2004), colonial discourse (Williams and Chrisman, 1993), and media discourse (Fairclough, 1995). The latter is a multidisciplinary field. It is the topic of many approaches of discourse analysis such as conversation analysis, critical discourse analysis, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics. Since the present study explores media discourse, more focus will be given below to this type of language use.

2.1.2 Media

Media is a window to the world and can be seen as a source to understand it (Talbot, 2007). Talbot (ibid.) believes that "very few of us, if any, are unaffected by media discourse… and… the importance of the media in the modern world is incontrovertible" (p.3). Media is the mirror that reflects many realities in this world. It is seen as a bridge to connect between nations from all around the world. In discourse analysis, Cotter (2001) believes that media "sets a standard for language use" (p. 30).

In the first place, the word 'media' can be seen as "both the technologies of communication and the public and private corporations that use them" (Lewis 2003, p.95). It is defined as "the various means of mass communication considered as a whole, including television, radio, magazines and newspapers, together with the people involved in their production" (Anderson, Bateman, Harris, and McAdam, 2006). It includes different channels such as TV, radio, newspapers, magazines, blogs, and social media. Broadly, there are two types of media; the electronic media, e.g. news reported through television and radios, and the print media, e.g. print newspapers and magazines (Afful, 2012). According to Bell (1991), media contents are divided into two categories: news and advertising. A third category namely, entertainment was later added by Fairclough (1995).

2.1.2.1 Media Discourse

Media discourse is a broad term that refers to the overall reality presented through print and electronic media, spoken or written texts (Cotter 2001). That is to say, media discourse is the use of language in media texts conveyed by electronic, printed or digital means. It can also be defined as interactions which "take place through a broadcast platform" whether it is spoken or written, "in which the discourse is oriented to a non-present reader, listener or viewer" (O'Keeffe, 2006, p.31).

Fairclough (1995) explains the nature of media texts as constituting "a sensitive barometer of sociocultural change, and they should be seen as valuable material for researching change. Changes in society and culture manifest themselves in all their tentativeness, incompleteness and contradictory nature in the heterogeneous and shifting discursive practices of the media" (p. 52). Such explanation shows that within the language of media, cultures, social power and identities are encoded.

2.1.2.2 Newspapers

Some believe that "nothing but a newspaper can drop the same thought into a thousand minds at the same moment" (de Tocqueville 1946, p. 95 as cited in Aitchison & Lewis 2003, p.95). Newspapers are a very important and reliable source of information and considered to be one of the traditional media types. They are usually published daily, weekly, fortnightly, monthly or quarterly. Newspapers, as other types of media, play a crucial role in influencing as well as reflecting public opinion. That is, a newspaper reflects and shapes the society's point view of the world. Hulteng and Nelson (1983) believe that "newspapers… play a significant role in the dissemination of detailed information about what goes on in the community, the nation, and the world" (p. 74). Furthermore, newspapers can also be considered a key cultural communications vehicle (Grosenick, 2004).

Basically, a newspaper can be defined as a "publication that appears regularly and frequently and carries news about a wide variety of current events" (Stephens, 2012). It can also be defined as "a closed, static package of news, information, and advertising, constructed in a typical industrial era line of production with a fixed periodicity or publication cycle" (Tremayne, Weiss, and Alves, 2007, p. 2). The term newspaper may suggest that the content of a newspaper is almost devoted to the news of the day (Reah, 2002). In reality, it contains "a range of items; news, comments and analysis, advertising, and entertainment" (ibid., p.2). It also covers a variety of topics and discusses so many social matters; it is filled with articles on various topics, reviews, advertising, entertainment, columns, editorials and "imaginative writing of various kinds" (Crystal, 1997, p.173).

2.1.2.2.1 Print & Online Newspapers

During the last decade, the growth of the internet and the spread of online newspapers have affected the printed ones in the sense that "the presence of online newspapers not only added to the quantity and quality of the available news supply, but also initiated changes in the supply, production, management and use of traditional offline newspapers" (Finnemann, 2003, p.7).

Eventually, Sparks and Yilmaz (2005) have stated that "it is much easier to access an online newspaper if you are white-collar worker sitting at desk with a computer than if you are manual worker" (p. 259). Thus, online newspapers are preferred by many readers since they are easier to access than printed ones. Another key point, they are usually updated and whenever any breaking events take place, editors can publish information instantaneously, whereas editors of printed newspapers would still have to wait for the printed publishing process to be completed (Domingo & Heinonen, 2008). Furthermore, readers of online newspapers can write comments responding to what they read while this is not possible in the case of printed ones. According to Van der Wurff and Lauf (2005), users of online newspapers can choose the part to read by "clicking hyperlinks" (p.4). Additionally, Ilebekk (1998) states that "the internet promotes two-way communication in a unique manner, and this leads to erasing of geographical distance on a whole new level" (p. 6). Some of the main differences between online and print newspapers are summarized in the following table:

Table 2.1: General Differences between Online and Print Newspapers

Aspect of Comparison	Online	Print
Accessibility	- Free	- Paid
Updating	- Can be updated	- Cannot be updated once it is printed
Readers	- Can be read by readers of distant geographical locations - Readers can respond to newspaper by means of communication provided (e.g. comments column provided after each article, Facebook, Twitter.. etc.	- Can only be read by local or national readers. -No communication means provided except through correspondences which may take longer time .
Visual elements	- Can contain some visual and audio elements other than images and figures, i.e. videos, and slides.	- Visual elements can only be images or figures.
Archive	Archive is available and can be easily accessed by the readers.	No archive is available for readers.

In addition to these differences, Kornetzki (2012) presents an essential difference between print and online newspapers. He states that:

> Comparing print and online editions of the newspaper, we cannot help but admit one essential difference between the editions. This difference is limitations of space, which imposes great restriction on the content of the print version. On the contrary, the content of e-newspaper can be enormous because online issues can

offer all the news that does not fit into the print version or which the print newspaper has never published, keeping the news constantly available and up-to-date (p. 26).

Some believe that online newspaper is the same as the print one in content (Tewksbury & Althaus, 2000, McAdams, 1995) and follow the style and the pattern of their printed counterparts since they are in general a "mirror of the print product" (Tewksbury & Althaus, 2000, p. 39). Others argue that online newspaper has fewer stories than what appears in print newspaper (Peng, Tham, & Xiaoming, 1999, Regan, 1995, and Singer, 2001). After all, for the current study, online versions of the selected newspapers have been chosen due to their availability and accessibility.

2.1.2.2.2 Newspapers Language

Jucker (1992) believes that newspaper language is "part of the larger variety of media language as a whole, and – on a different level- it is part of the variety of written language" (p.25). He states that "all newspapers share a large number of non-linguistic discourse features. The language is transmitted in printed form, and it is public in that it is intended for a very large audience" (ibid.).

The type of language used in newspapers is called 'journalese' (Crystal, 1997). Crystal (ibid.) defines this term as "a composite, a blend of what is characteristic of a number of different kinds of journalistic material" (p. 174) and argues that "there is not one, but a number of 'journaleses' that can be found between the pages of the daily and weekly press and while they do have a certain amount in common, their overall styles are different" (ibid., p. 173). The language of newspapers should be "unambiguous, undistorted and agreeable to all readers" (Fowler, 1991.

P.1). Generally, the language of news texts can be considered as an effective tool in affecting the perception of the public of different phenomena, and it also contributes in producing the social reality (Fairclough, 1992).

In fact, different newspapers reflect different ideologies, societies, and cultures according to the community the newspaper belongs to. Furthermore, articles in newspapers vary according to the importance of the topic or the event and according to the interest of the target audience. On the one hand, some analysts, e.g. Bednarek (2006), believe that there are some common features of the language of newspapers such as accuracy and precision. On the other hand, newspapers' language use differs in certain manners to "fit into the taste of their different readerships" (Conboy, 2010, p.1). Crystal and Davy (1969) state that "everything that happens to be printed in a newspaper or written by a journalist is not going to be linguistically homogenous" (p.173). That is to say, there is no homogeneity between articles whether they are from the same newspaper or not. They also believe that because newspapers readers differ, editors use different language and style. This, in fact, what is going to be studied in the present research; comparison of different language use and the meaning implied in newspaper articles produced by native and non-native writers of English.

2.1.2.2.3 Structure of a Newspaper Article

An article in a newspaper, consists of three main parts. The first part, which is usually the first paragraph, contains the Five Ws (Zelizer & Stuart, 2010) which refer to:

Who - who is the article about?
What - what is the article about?
Where - where does the article take place?
When - when does the article take place?
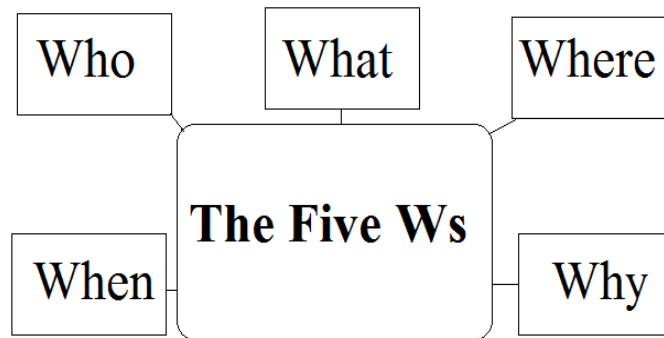Why - why is this happening? (see Figure 2.1)

Figure 2.1: The Five Ws

Source: (Zelizer & Stuart , 2010).

Bell (1998) uses the Five Ws as an organizing principle in his recent discussion of news parameters. Cotter (1999) talks about the Five Ws in relation to news values and the organization of stories. Talton (2010) believes that starting a story or an article by these Five Ws helps to "get the most critical information at the top of the article where most readers will see it" (p.33).

The second part of an article contains some important details, whereas the third one deals with "other general information or background information" (see Figure 2.2).
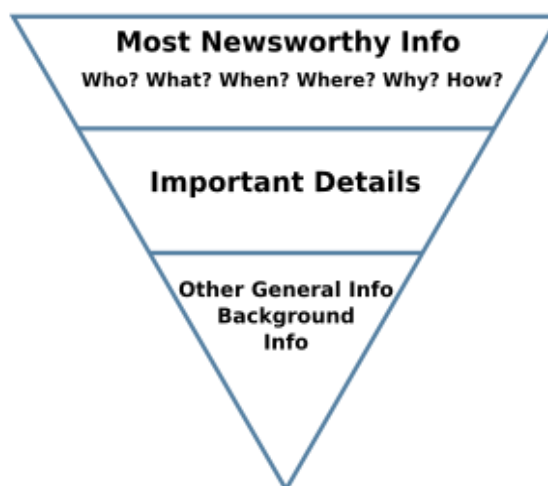

Figure 2.2: Parts of Newspaper Article

Source: (Zelizer & Stuart , 2010).

From another perspective, concerning the structure and how news is built, White (1997) identifies two phases of news: the nucleus and the body. The nucleus consists of the headline and the opening sentence, and the opening sentence usually repeats a part of what is presented in the headline. As for the body, it is the text that follows the nucleus.

To go over the main points, newspaper discourse is a reliable source of information. It is intended to a large number of audience and it plays a crucial role in influencing the public opinion.

Newspaper language differs in certain manners to "fit into the taste of their different readerships" (Conboy, 2010, p.1). In fact, there is no homogeneity between articles languages whether they are from the same newspaper or not. Each newspaper reflects different ideologies, societies, and cultures according to the community the newspaper belongs to.

In the present study, newspaper articles written by native and non-native writers of English will be compared to find out discourse differences between two different communities.

2.2 Previous Related Studies

This part of the chapter critically reviews 10 related previous studies concerning the analysis of *'Newspaper Articles'* to identify what others have said, and/or discovered about this area of investigation. The titles of the former studies first are mentioned along with the authors and the years of publication. Then they are briefly reviewed and some remarks are stated to highlight their relevance/contribution to the current study and what the present study may add to them. The studies are arranged according to the most recent years of publication and are numbered from 1 to 10 as follows:

(1) *Peculiarities of British Newspaper Discourse (Based on the Materials of 2015)*, **by Olha Zhulavska & Maria Vetoshkina, (2017).**

This study examined the lexical-semantic and grammatical features of the British newspaper discourse. Illustrative materials were selected from the British on-line publications in 2015. The objectives of the research centered on defining the concept "newspaper discourse", lexical and grammatical characteristics of the British newspaper discourse, the communication-information features, and the specific features of writing the articles by the authors. Descriptive method was used in carrying out the analysis.

The researcher concluded that the British newspaper discourse invoked not only intellectual, but also emotional feelings of the readers, made them take thoughts, change their reflections and make their own conclusions.

Dealing with the British newspaper discourse analysis from the lexical-semantic and grammatical points of view, the researcher arrived that the main characteristics of British newspaper discourse were: expressivity, brevity, evaluative character of articles, handling of terms in transferred use. Due to distinct grammatical composition, the newspaper articles of the British journalists were interesting and easy for reading.

The above reviewed study analyzed the lexical-semantic and grammatical features of the British newspaper discourse. However, it did not trace an important feature that makes a discourse significant and meaningful such as cohesion which constitutes textual unit beyond the sentence level. This special feature, in fact, will receive an elaborative analysis in the current study.

(2) *Contrastive Analysis of Lexical Choice and Ideologies in News Reporting the Same Accidents between Chinese and American Newspapers*, **by Xianzhong He &Xulu Zhou, (2015).**

This study examined the lexical choice of six articles of news reporting three safety accidents in China in *China Daily* and The *Washington Post*. The purpose of this study was to investigate the specific linguistic choices made by each newspaper to uncover the ideologies behind the words of news discourse covertly implied and unbeknownst to the readers; and further to explore causes of the difference from different aspects. The study also aimed to draw the language teachers' awareness to pay more attention to word choices to shape up the text meaning rather than to focus on sentence structures in their lecturing to language

The data of the study came from news reports on the official websites of *China Daily* and *The Washington Post*. The news reportage chosen to be examined were three accidents which happened in recent years in China. They were the *2011 Wenzhou train accident*, the *2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square attack* and the *2014 Kunming attack*. Thus, all together there were six sample news reports .

Guided by assumptions of critical discourse analysis and drawing on the framework of lexical classification in Halliday's (1994) systemic-functional grammar (SFG), the study was carried on. Some words of defining and describing the accident from both newspapers were paired for comparison.

The study proved that, firstly, there were similarities and differences in the lexical choice in news reporting the same events. Secondly, the news reports were never a value-free vehicle, but an ideological social practice. The news reporters were not objective or neutral; but rather, they

intentionally encoded ideologies into news reports by choosing words of their interests to exert influence on readers' view towards the world.

This study is relevant to the research under concern in the sense that it focuses on the investigation of the news discourse language to see how it embodies social reflection to affect readers and shape their position.

The relevance of the study also comes from its attempt to draw the language teachers' awareness to pay more attention to word choices to shape up the text meaning rather than to focus on sentence structures in their lecturing to language.

(3) *Discoursal Analysis of Rhetorical Structure of an Online Iraqi English Newspaper*, **by Nadia Abed Shakeh & Rami Delli, (2015).**

This study examined how the Iraqi writers maintain cohesion in the text by analyzing the various rhetorical moves in *Azzaman*, an online Iraqi newspaper. To this purpose, twelve opinion articles from *Azzaman* Iraqi newspaper were analyzed.

The study adopted the rhetorical structure analysis in order to describe the relations between text parts in functional terms. Rhetorical structure consists of sections and stages such as: introduction, intermediate (intermediate or solution stage) and coda section (conclusion or moral stage). The use of rhetorical structure provides the macro structure in writing, which helps in making the writing more organized. Consequently, the writing could easily be understood and is reader-oriented.

Generally, the researchers concluded that the way Iraqi online opinion writers write in *Azzaman* news followed a more structured flow of writing. Such writing was similar to the way western writers write. The solution stage, provided in articles to persuade the readers about the issues discussed. Apparently, the rhetorical structure in writing the online opinion

articles used persuasive techniques in order to influence the readers in adopting the media's political views.

The above study was confined to analyze the rhetorical structures used by the writers in the newspaper opinion articles to show cohesion within the text and influence the readers. However, a media text has many other features that can bring out the links within the discourse and making it meaningful evoking interactional process between the writers and the readers. In fact, this is the issue of analysis in the present study, i.e., analysis of discourse features in media texts.

(4) *Language Manipulation in Media***, by Suzan Ismael Wadi & Asmaa Awad Ahmed, (2015).**

This study examined reported news by two different sources of media. It attempted to employ critical discourse analysis tools to illustrate how the same piece of news conveyed by two different newspapers tries to side the reader in a specific position. It aimed to demonstrate how media texts are not as objective or neutral as they claim; but rather authors of news articles use language and words to define the ideologies they stand for and try to influence readers.

The two pieces of news selected for the study were: "Israel Raid Kills Palestinian Civilians" reported by *Al Jazeera Online* and "Palestinian Woman Dies in Israeli Missile Strike" reported by the *International Herald Tribune* newspaper.

The analysis sought to compare the two news articles using critical discourse analysis tools such as framing, genre, foregrounding and presupposition, topicalization, agency, modality.

The analysis exemplified how the same piece of news was conveyed by two different newspapers in a way that endeavored to place the reader

in a certain position. By doing so, it was proved how media messages are not as neutral as they claim to be.

The study has also proved how a text that may influence readers will vary from one reader to another depending on their beliefs and approaches towards different issues in life and depending on how each reader may interpret and comprehend a particular text.

This study used a particular political context for analysis to demonstrate how media writers try to influence the readers with particular point of views. In contrast, the present study will analyze variety of contexts in order to find out the variations of authorial persuasive styles and textual interactions.

(5) *Evaluation in Media Discourse: Contrasts among Journalists in Reporting an Event*, **by Maedeh Ghavamnia & Hossein Vahid Dastjerdi , (2013).**

This study examined the expression of opinions through language by the news writers. That is, how news writers expressed their opinions about the events, people, and situations they reported on. The study compared the news coverage of the airplane crash in Iran on January 11th 2011 by Iranian and foreign journalists extracted from online newspapers. The aim of the study was to reveal how differences in the writers' viewpoints and opinions influenced the way news discourse was represented to the public.

The researchers analyzed the variations in the presentation of the same news story from the journalists' perspective by adopting Bednarek's evaluative parameter approach to text. The writer's attitude may relate to certainty or obligation or desirability or any of a number of other sets of values .

The study has demonstrated how evaluation can draw more attention to the reported events and make it stand out more. The analysis revealed a

significant difference among the way information was reported by the two groups. The Iranian reporters did not add any additional information in their reporting technique, relying on the statements of others and quoting almost all of what was written in the online media; whereas the foreign journalists provided their own insights and viewpoints, elaborating on the accident.

This study may contribute to the study under investigation in that 'evaluation' can be used to express the writer's opinion to construct relation between the writer and reader. Newspapers writers try to construct a text which is in line with what they think are the opinions, feelings of their readers. Once they have an audience in mind, then they can decide in what tone of voice they want to address them considering the social contexts. Therein lies the process of interaction which is an essential component of discourse features and which will be given considerable attention in the current study.

(6) *A Discourse Analysis of the Media Representation of Social Media for Social Change - The Case of Egyptian Revolution and Political Change*, **by Minavere Vera Bardici, (2012**).

This study examined a set of selected media texts to establish, by means of a discourse analysis, how and with what purpose in mind, the online media report on the relationship between social media and the Egyptian uprising and political transformation, a social relationship that seemed to be overstated and constructed in various ways by different journalists.

The researcher employed discourse analysis as a tool to analyze the selected media texts. Six stages were set out in the analysis of discourse, encompassing: (1) surface descriptors and structure, (2) objects (3) social

actors, (4) language and rhetoric, (5) framing, and (6) ideological standpoints. The study was concerned with the interpretation of how meaning was constructed in a particular context, and how people were influenced by media discourse.

The analysis revealed the intersection between the media discourse, subjects and ideology. The researcher concluded that media representation tended to be rhetorical – and it did ideological work. It played a role in constructing a positive image of different corporate players, namely Facebook, Twitter and media companies.

It is also concluded that media texts reporting on the role of social media entailed the processes of knowledge production, distribution and consumption (reception and interpretation). This implied the interactive process of discourse production.

This study is relevant to the concerned research in which it makes interpretation of media discourse meaning and analyzes how it influences the readers to construct understanding and views of the world. Similarly, the reviewed study is also linked to the study under investigation in the sense that it reflects discourse production as an interactive process.

On the other hand, the study was only concerned with an event and examined a specific context, i.e., socio-political context. The present study will examine a variety of media discourse contexts such as economical, social, cultural and educational.

(7) *A Critical Discourse Analysis of News Articles, by The New York Times and The Tehran Times, Covering the U.S.-led War in Afghanistan*, **by Mohammad Hossein Ebrahimi, (2010).**

This research analyzed the discourse of news articles in *The New York Times* (NYT) and *The Tehran Times* (TT) to examine the newspapers'

attitudes towards views on the issue of the U.S.-led war in Afghanistan, the relationship between their attitudes, the linguistic features which are employed by the two newspapers texts/articles and their underlying meaning/ideological positions; and whether writers have taken biased stances and positions for the country they are representing in covering the same issue.

The data comprised 20 news articles from The NYT and The TT (10 articles each). The framework used for the analysis was Hallidayan approach of linguistics known as Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The analysis focused on the linguistic choices meaning, that is, the meaning found in words (lexis) and grammar together. The linguistic choices chosen to be analyzed in the news articles were: *active and passive voices*, and *nominalization* within ideational meaning, *modality and lexical choices* within interpersonal meaning and *thematization* within textual meaning.

 The researcher concluded that biasness was found in the news articles of both newspapers. *The New York Times*, however, has used, by far more the mentioned features, to be more equivocal and consequently to convey their ideologies and ideological practices and naturalized the situations and circumstances as commonsensical.

It was also concluded that the linguistic choices done by media texts' writers aimed at controlling readers' minds with some hidden meanings

What characterizes this work and makes it relevant to the present study is the analysis of the linguistic choices (lexical choice & grammar) and using them as a resource for interpreting meaning. In addition, the researcher's second conclusion implies the process of textual interaction which is going to be examined in the current study.

(8) *The Discourse Analysis of a Newspaper Article*, **by Elena Buja, (2010).**

This study attempted to show the way in which by analyzing the discourse of a newspaper article, we may uncover a certain culture in a specific period of its historical development. In order to do that, an article chosen from a Romanian satirical newspaper, *Academia Caţavencu1*. The analysis was based on Widdowson's (1979) view of discourse-as-process, the focus was on three main aspects, namely the role of context, topic and the representation of discourse content, and the nature of reference in text.

By investigating these aspects, the researcher could bring further evidence in support of the idea that a text could be regarded as an interaction between the writer and the reader. It was also proved how the role of context in analyzing discourse contributes to derive appropriate inferences about the writer's message. Finally, since any text needs to be cohesive, the researcher has shown how the various types of reference employed by the writer contribute to the cohesion of the newspaper article.

This study could support the research under concern in that it regards a text as an interaction between the writer and the reader and it combines linguistic meaning with context in order to get the writer's message. It also draws attention to how various types of reference contribute to the text cohesion which is the central point in the present study.

(9) *A discourse analysis of media texts: a case study of Mutahi Ngunyi's texts in the Sunday Nation Newspaper*, **by Johnstone Obare, (2010).**

This study investigated the communicative effectiveness of media texts because media texts form a domain in communication which is accessible to many readers. Mutahi Ngunyi's texts in the *Sunday Nation* newspaper formed the source of data for the study. They were texts

written and based on local, national and political contexts in Kenya. To analyze the data, the researcher made use of *'Critical Discourse Analysis Theory'* to examine how effectively Ngunyi's texts are communicative. Cohesion and coherence as communicative principles in the texts were identified and described. The results revealed that Ngunyi's texts are cohesive , coherent and communicative because they are informative and acceptable to the readers. This was because Ngunyi uses various linguistic strategies by taking the local, national and political context into consideration making his opinions informative and acceptable to his audience.

This study is relevant to the current research as the domain of study is discourse analysis and the data for analysis is media texts. The study focuses on showing how communicative and effectiveness the texts are. This, in fact, reveals the interactive process between the author and the audience which forms a central part of analysis in the present study.

(10) *Cohesion in Texts: A Discourse Analysis of a News Article in a Magazine*, by Hind Tahseen Hameed, (2008).

This Study attempted to analyze an English text from a magazine to identify cohesive elements in text : which type of cohesion was the most substantive contribution to texture ;and whether this type was effective or not. The purpose of the study was to draw attention and understand how cohesion functions within a text creating semantic links.

Using the *Newsweek* article *"Ruins With A View"* as a basis, the textual aspect of meaning through cohesion was analyzed. The principles of referencing, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion put forth by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor (1995) were applied to the article and were analyzed to demonstrate the relevance of the cohesive

elements that were present in texts which contribute to the overall meaning of the text.

The analysis revealed that the most often cited types of cohesion that function to create texture within the text were reference and lexical cohesion. Therefore, the textual analysis in this study proved that cohesion is an important aspect for creating meaning within text.

The above reviewed study was confined to the analysis of one type of discourse features that create semantic links within a text, i. e., cohesion. The present study also addresses this issue of analysis and additionally it is concerned with the analysis of more of the discourse features that produce meaning within a text, such as how the authorial intentions revealed, how the writers address readers and how readers interpret the writers' messages. This, in fact, creates a process of textual interaction that play a very important role in getting the meaning across others.

To put it into focus, all the above reviewed studies drew attention in order to study language in use, we need to study discourse and go beyond studying language alone. We should consider the social contexts in which texts occur rather than looking at language in isolation or as words on the page. Particular language use has different meaning in particular contexts. Language use should be studied with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

The reviewed studies illustrated how writers use language to create a point of view and how they position readers this point of view to create textual interaction.

The studies also exemplified how same topic reported by two different newspapers may produce different perspectives, different ways of thinking and different ideologies. Actually, the present study is going to

prove this as well; and additionally will refer to discourse features variation between two analyzed texts dealing with similar topics written by native English writers and nonnatives.

2.3 Summary of the Chapter

'Discourse' refers to language use whether spoken or written; and *'Discourse analysis'* is the study of discourse that has been given numerous definitions by different linguists.

Discourse takes the form of two types; spoken and written. Such division is due to the fact that there are many differences between them; differences in the form, manner of production and functions for each mode. As a result for these differences, some linguists believe that 'text' and 'discourse' are two different terms in the sense that text is written, i.e. sentences, while discourse is spoken, i.e. utterances.

For composing written discourse, cognitive processes are involved. These processes have been shown to recur in a nonlinear fashion during the act of writing and interact with one another. To make the discourse interpretable, some key elements are concerned such as coherence, cohesion and background knowledge that is stored in our mind.

An important aspect of discourse analysis is *'media discourse'* which studies media texts conveyed by electronic, printed or digital means. One of the most common types of media texts is a newspaper article; which could be accessed via online publication or in print. The newspaper language differs in certain manners to "fit into the taste of their different readerships" (Conboy, 2010). It reflects different ideologies, societies, and cultures according to the community the newspaper belongs to.

Several studies have been carried out in the field of 'media discourse'. In fact, media is an important discourse domain. The study of media language is relevant within many disciplines, such as "linguistics,

sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, semiotics, communication studies, sociology and social psychology" (Bell, 1991). As for 'media discourse analysis', 10 previous studies were reviewed in this chapter highlighting their relevance and contribution to the existing research.