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MANIPULATION OF SEMANTICS AND SYNTAX: THE USE OF EMOTIVE  
LANGUAGE IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC NEWS REPORTS AND  
EDITORIALS WITH REFERENCE TO TRANSLATION

BY  
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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE  
FOR THE PH.D. DEGREE IN TRANSLATION THEORY

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY  
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DEDICATION

TO MY AFFECTIONATE MOTHER WHO MADE THIS WORK POSSIBLE.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

<i>SLT</i>	Source language text
<i>TLT</i>	Target language text
<i>CD</i>	Communicative Dynamism
<i>T</i>	Theme
<i>R</i>	Rheme
<i>E</i>	Element
<i>TG</i>	Traditional Grammar
<i>TP</i>	Thematic Progression
<i>S.E.</i>	Supra-sentential Entity
<i>FSP</i>	Functional Sentence Perspective

## ABSTRACT

Since language is an important means of communication between human beings, it is held that writers or speakers can affect their readers or hearers by using certain linguistic means. The manipulation of semantics and syntax, namely the use of emotive language, is seen as an affective means resorted to by text producers to influence the people's acceptance of the truth.

Emotional language aims ultimately at persuading the addressee to accept the facts as they are presented by writers. It is regarded as a necessary condition for persuasion to be successful. This is due to the persuasive force of emotive meaning exerted upon the receiver. In addition, the employment of emotive language may be attributed to ideological considerations. This will be demonstrated in Chapter II.

Emotiveness, as a means of persuasion, can be expressed by using certain devices such as repetition, intertextuality, word-order, figures of speech, intensifiers ... etc. These strategies will be discussed in detail with reference to translation in Chapter III.

Furthermore, I must say that some of my remarks have been based on the findings of outstanding grammarians and linguists, and therefore, I have been obliged to quote from such works to substantiate my points of view.

Before proceeding with the investigation, I must point out that the entire data of my work will be confined only to news reports and editorials both



in Arabic and English, and for this end a number of articles have been used from official newspapers in both languages.

Chapter IV is a summary and conclusion.

## **CHAPTER I**

### **I. Introduction:**

Chapter I represents the introductory part of the thesis. It reveals the close relevance of text linguistics to the science of translation. It also shows the importance of translation as one of the major means of communication between different nations. This chapter, furthermore, reviews translation models such as the grammatical, the cultural, the interpretative, and the text-typological model; functions of language as observed by linguists; and, finally, meaning and syntax in the process of translating with a special regard to the notion of equivalence between the source language text and target language text.

#### **1.1. The Relevance of Text Linguistics to Translation:**

The first signs of the relevance of translation research to text-typological issues emerged after the Second World War in view of the massive exchange of information, particularly in the field of science. As a result, translation became important as a medium of international communication and rapprochement.

Modern linguistics stresses the fact that texts are entirely different in structures, situations and functions. According to Wills (1977:112), "Texts are produced for a large spectre (sic) of communicative purposes". What has been said just now is also true of translation. The translator, according to Dressler (1972), does not translate "words or individual

sentences, but texts". Hence, translation is understood as a procedure aimed at producing an equivalent text as close as possible to the source text. This procedure also requires syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic comprehension by the translator of the original text, because text is above all considered as a maximal unit.

Before going any farther in the subject of text linguistics, it would be appropriate to review some of the various definitions of translation which reveal the inherent relevancy of text linguistics to the science of translation. For instance, Nida (1969:495) maintains: "The scientific study of translation can and should be regarded as a branch of comparative linguistics, with a dynamic dimension and a focus upon semantics". Again, Fedorov supports the view that "translation theory should be regarded as a branch of linguistics, since every type of interlingual translation must be looked at within the framework of the interrelations between source language and target language"(Wills: 1977, 66). Catford (1965:1) follows a similar line of reasoning: "Translation is an operation performed on languages. It is a process of substituting a text in one language for a text in another language. Clearly, then, any theory of translation must draw upon a theory of language - a general linguistic theory". However, all this in many ways confirms the fact that the science of translation is closely related to text linguistics. In a word, all the above-mentioned statements boil down to Wills's verdict: "However, by no means all text-linguistic research, despite or perhaps because of its manifold ramifications, is relevant for the science of translation to the same extent" (1982:113).

It has been claimed by text linguists that every text is characterised by one or several basic communicative functions. Texts with a comparable

basic communicative function can be combined into a text type, i.e., expository, instructional, and argumentative. On this basis, text-typologists assert that different text types require in the process of translating not only different transfer methods, but also different translation equivalence criteria.

Viewed from a text-linguistic perspective, each text is dependent on conditions of origin and reception, that is to say situationality which must be reflected in any attempt to deal with texts, taking account of text-internal and external factors, i.e., it involves textual and contextual dimensions. Accordingly, it is, text-linguistically speaking, the task of the translator to deal with original texts in such a way as to guarantee an optimal degree of translation equivalence in the target text. In other words, according to Wills (1982), text-linguistically focused translation research must develop a frame of reference which views a text as a communicatively-oriented configuration with a thematic, a functional, a text-pragmatic dimension. These three textual dimensions can be derived from the respective text surface structure .

Text linguistics, therefore, seems to be of outstanding significance for the science of translation, because the text confronts the translator with a double task: first, to analyse the text under consideration, i.e., text function, subject-matter, and the relationship between addresser and addressee in the source language text; and secondly, to carry it over adequately into the target language text. In doing so, being armed with the principal rules of text linguistics in the process of translating, an optimal and adequate translation may be arrived at in the long run.



Having discussed the relevance of text linguistics to the science of translation entirely from a theoretical point of view, let us now see how they are practically approached. For example, let us consider the following text:

#### Text A

Oral health care does not have the makings of a dramatic issue. Very few people die of oral disease, and its effect on the economies of nations is insignificant. Yet very few people manage to avoid oral disease, and the two major variants - dental caries and periodontal disease - can and do cause irreversible damage. In the process, dental caries can cause some of the most severe pain that the average person is likely to experience in his lifetime. In 1978 a national survey in the United Kingdom, where four per cent of the national health budget is spent on dental care, showed that thirty per cent of the adult population was edentulous.

Yet the United Kingdom, like other countries with a long-established dental care system and the high levels of dental caries and periodontal disease generally associated with Western culture, now seems to be experiencing a minor revolution. Not only has average dentition life expectancy increased by five years in the past decade but reports are now coming in of dramatic reductions in the prevalence of dental caries in school children in different parts of the country, some from fluoridated areas, some not. The United Kingdom is by no means unique in this respect. Similar observations have been reported in Australia, New Zealand, and the USA. (Bulman, Department of Community Dental Health, Dental School, London Hospital Medical College, London, England.)

The above-cited text is an argumentative text. It is a thesis cited to be opposed. The field of the text is medical, the mode is written to be read, and the tenor is semi-formal. The beginning of the text is, as stated earlier, a thesis cited to be opposed. The function of this step is to define sharply what is to be opposed. In the second step in the argumentative procedure, we find substantiation and here the text producer tries to prove his thesis. The third step is opposition by which the text producer refutes what he has said at the beginning. The last essential step in the argumentative procedure is the conclusion. The function of this step is to present the viewpoint of the text producer. Its ultimate objective is to convince, and consequently, persuade the readers of the writer's point of view. The addressee is invited to reject the refuted view and then to accept what is presented in the concluding step. We, as readers, notice that the text producer is following the give-and-take technique. At the beginning, he tries, with substantiation, to convince us that Britain was not doing enough in the field of dental care because 30 per cent of the adult population was edentulous. But afterwards he opposes what he has said when he says "yet the UK , like other countries ... now seems to be experiencing a minor revolution" . This is a case of situation management. He keeps himself within a 'trade-off escalation', that is to say a balance between efficiency and effectiveness which will have to be appropriate to the situation and to the participant's roles(de Beaugrande:1981,165). Therefore, in the situation management the dominant function is to guide the situation in a manner favourable to the text producer's goals.

From the foregoing points, we should admit that the emergence of text linguistics in the sixties has marked a new phase in the history of linguistics and translation. Before that time, translation was very

traditional because it lacked a proper linguistic approach. It floundered between various linguistic models such as the grammatical and the cultural, which proved to be a failure. Nevertheless, we should not deny the fact that these models paved the way for the emergence of the text-typological model which can best be adopted in translation. In this respect, it would be quite appropriate to give a brief glimpse of these various linguistic models of translation.

## **1.2. Translation Models**

Though there have been important shifts of emphasis concerning translation, the discussions and arguments about its nature did not undergo any perceptible change. The disagreement basically lies in two points: literal versus free translation, and emphasis on form versus emphasis on content. Knox (quoted in Steiner:1975) sums up the whole issue in two questions, "Which should come first, the literary version or the literal; and is the translator free to express the sense of the original in any style and idiom he chooses?". At the present time, there are, according to Chau (1984), four basic models of translation attached to different theories of translation which have different conceptions of language and, consequently, of the approach to translation.

### **1.2.1. The Grammatical Model:**

For the proponents of this model who consider language as a grammatical code for communication, the translation of a text is an inter-lingual operation conceived in linguistic terms. It is the replacement of the grammar and lexis of the source language by the grammar and lexis of



the target language. The approach is empirical and anti-mentalistic. It is practised by reference to prescriptive grammar in the 'traditional grammar method', and by reference to descriptive contrastive grammar in the 'formal linguistic method'. Both methods operate on the level of 'langue' with words and sentences as units of translation. Thus, equivalence may be sentence to sentence, group to group, or word to word. Equivalence between grammatical units may be considered at different levels or ranks: machine translation, for instance, would be at word or at morpheme rank. This is the model adopted by advocates of Bloomfieldian Structuralism like Catford and others, as well as by those who subscribe to Chomskyan linguistics like Fedorov.

Within the grammatical model, a translation will be the replica of the source language text structure regardless of whether the reader, who may be living in a different society, will understand certain customs or cultural references, or whether the text will produce the same effect. The contextual elements are not taken into account, as the translator is primarily concerned with the structural or grammatical correctness and accuracy at the level of the sentence.

Let us take for example the translation into English of an Arabic text. The translator ignoring cultural differences will translate shukran muqaddam by a Syrian in response to a compliment on a newly acquired piece of jewelry by 'thank you, it is yours' or 'thank you, I offer it to you'. These renderings are 'grammatically' correct. The sense, however, is not adequately captured and the translation is therefore dubious. A more appropriate rendering might be 'thanks a lot'. Another example is that of someone referring to his wife as Umm Ahmad literally 'the mother of Ahmad, the eldest son'. This is correct but for an English receiver, it



makes little sense and would be more appropriately rendered by 'the Mrs.' or 'the wife'.

### **1.2.2. The Cultural Model:**

Language here is a cultural manifestation and translation is an inter-cultural operation. The theory follows two methods: first, 'the ethnographical semantic', whose approach to translation is semantic, focuses on the contrasts between two different world views and on how to express the source language so that it is assimilated in the world of the target language as naturally as possible. Second, 'the dynamic equivalent' with an ethnographical approach, concentrates on the target language reader response and on how to make him react similarly to the source language reader. The former, as is the case with the grammatical model, operates on the level of 'langue', that is to say, "any particular language that is the common possession of all the members of a given language community" (Lyons: 1981) and takes the lexicon as a unit of examination. The latter, the dynamic equivalence, operates on the level of 'parole', that is the use the individual makes of langue, and takes the sentence as a unit of examination. And if in the grammatical model the role of the translator is to substitute a code by another code, his role in this model is to substitute the meaning of the culture as far as possible. To illustrate this point, Nida (cf. Mounin:1963) distinguishes two types of equivalence: formal equivalence or equivalence of form and dynamic equivalence based on the principle of equivalent effect. He classifies the problems of equivalence when going from one cultural world to another within a translation into five fields: ecology, material culture, social culture, religious culture, and linguistic culture.

In both models, the translator's duty is to achieve an acceptable rendering. He will keep the structures used in the original only in so far as they do not hinder total comprehension and assimilation of the whole text, in which case he will intervene to clarify certain concepts or omit others. The Arabic al-salāmu ʿalaykum, for instance, will not be rendered by 'peace be upon you' which has religious overtones, instead it will only be 'hello'. The same may be said of ahlan wa-sahlan that an Arabic speaker would say when for example opening the door for someone. Its equivalent 'Welcome' would seem formal and even unnatural to a native English speaker who would just say 'come in' in this situation.

### **1.2.3. The Interpretative Model:**

There are two methods in this model: the 'text analysis' method which is contextual and advocates that translating should be an objective interpretation of the source language text, and the 'hermeneutic method' which is existential and for which translation is an 'ontological, inter-subjective interpretation' of the source language text. In the interpretative model, and for both methods, language is an inter-personal and personal means of communication, and translation is an inter-textual operation.

Both methods operate on the level of parole taking text as a unit of examination. In text analysis, on the one hand, the duty of the translator to the source language text is to achieve a holistic reading by reconstructing the meaning of the source language text and conveying it to a particular audience at a particular moment. In the hermeneutic method, on the other hand, the translator's duty is to achieve a co-



subjective reading by "sympathizing with the author and creating a new existence through language" (Chau:1984). The approach is non-scientific and subjective.

Within this model and more particularly within the hermeneutic method, translation becomes a re-creation of the source language text. Let us take the example of an English text about the life of the Watson family who live in a small English village. The translator will, first of all, find a new setting: a small village in Algeria for example; and another family, the Masri family. The latter would not go to church on Sunday, but to the mosque on Friday. Mr. Masri would not go to the local pub, but to the local maqha, 'cafe', and weekends would be on Thursday and Friday.

The ultimate objective of these theories was to substitute a target language structure for a source language one, or to substitute different cultures, and that was quite disappointing. Modern text linguistics, on the other hand, has stressed the fact that texts are the primary forms of linguistic manifestation. According to Wills (1977:112), "Texts are produced for a large spectre (sic) of communicative purposes. They show different conditions of origin, different structures, functions and they are designed for different recipients". This is also true of translation, as mentioned before. "The translator does not translate words or individual sentences but texts" (Dressler: 1972).

It is a fact that translation involves far more than replacement of lexical and grammatical items between source language text and target language text, and it certainly does not involve mere strings of unrelated sentences, because sentences are parts of a larger unit, which is the text.

Therefore, our main concern will be focused on the text as a maximal unit for translation.

In Arabic, the closest equivalent for the English word 'text' is the word nass. Although the term is loosely used to indicate any written piece of composition in verse or prose, ranging from a short passage to a whole book, the word nass, when it does not mean 'textbook', implies that the composition has a sort of related meaning and coherence. Thus, as indicated above, the Arabic nass will be taken as a maximal unit for translation, because it often provides the translator with a clear conception of the interrelated meanings among sentences and helps him to disambiguate certain expressions, particularly, those which seem to pose semantic problems in translation.

According to Lyons (1977 : 631), in standard, as opposed to dialectal language, the term 'text' is normally understood as " the product of more or less conscious and controlled composition". Lyons's definition, further, states that the text has a determinate beginning and end; and some kind of internal coherence or unity among sentences. In practice, when translating a text, coherence and unity should be maintained in the target language text.

This shows that text linguistics appears to be the most adequate model in the science of translation. It helps translators first to study and analyse text then to render it faithfully into the target language text without distorting the spirit of the source language text. This may be demonstrated in what is called the text-typological model.



#### **1.2.4. The Text-typological Model:**

The method followed in this model is mainly based on discourse analysis and text linguistics. Text-typologists observe that three major contextual dimensions should be taken into consideration in the procedure of translating any text: pragmatics, semiotics, and communicativeness. Pragmatics defines discourse action on the extra-textual environment; semiotics regulates the 'interaction' of pragmatic intentions with the environment; and the communicative dimension sets up discourse 'transaction' providing three contextual variables: field as the subject-matter which can be interpreted in terms of semantics, tenor as the degree or level of formality which can be defined in terms of syntax, and mode as the medium in which the text is either written to be read or written to be spoken. Hence, the conflation of pragmatics, semiotics, and communicativeness is called 'text-typological focus' (Hatim:1984). This text-typological focus yields different text types. According to de Beaugrande (1981:186), "A text type is a set of heuristics for producing, predicting and processing textual occurrences and hence acts as a prominent determiner of efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness". Therefore, text types, on the basis of pragma-semio-communicative function (Hatim:1984), can be classified into three basic categories, subsuming a number of others:

##### **1. Expository:**

This can be divided into three kinds: descriptive, focusing on objects and relations in space, as in:

Text 1

Scottish highlands and lochs are a favourite haunt for British visitors who frequently return to ski in the Cairngorms, sail among the Western Isles, play golf at one of four hundred courses, or watch kilted pipers play at the many festivals and tournaments.

The second kind of expository text-type is the narrative where the focus is on events and relations in time as in the case of news reports and here we are non-evaluative. This can be seen in the following text,

#### Text ( 2)

A Greek freighter was hit by Iraqi bombs on Saturday and ran aground off the Iranian port of Bandar Khomeini, a Greek shipping ministry spokesman said. The twenty-one crew are all safe and awaiting repatriation, he added. Iraq said on Saturday that its aircraft sank an unidentified vessel in the Gulf. It has declared the north-eastern sector of the Gulf as a military zone and has threatened to sink any ship entering the area.

The third kind of exposition is the conceptual in which the focus is on concepts and relations in terms of either analysis or synthesis.

## **2. Instructional:**

This is neither argumentative nor narrative, rather it is regulative. The mode is written to be read reflectively. The field is international law and treaties. An instructional text-type aims at the formation of future behaviour, either with option as in advertising or with no option as in treaties, contracts, and other binding documents. For example,

### Text 3

The states parties to this convention, prompted by the desire to settle all issues in a spirit of mutual understanding and co-operation, noting that the developments that have occurred since the United Nations conferences, conscious that the problems of ocean space are closely related and need to be considered as a whole, have agreed as follows...

#### **3. Argumentative:**

This can be overt as in the counter-argumentative (letter to the editor) or covert as in the case-making of a propaganda tract, where a thesis is cited and argued through. The latter form may be considered as expository plus evaluative. In this text type we find that the text begins with the thesis or what we call a tone setter on which the whole text is based. The tone setter is either a thesis cited to be opposed or thesis cited to be argued through. The thesis is a statement of opinion set by the text producer for achieving his purpose, that is to say persuading his readers of a point of view. It follows, then, that text types are pragma-semiotic constructs. They take shape and materialize in text structure. For example, let us consider the following argumentative text:

### Text 4

This week Sir Geoffrey Howe becomes the first British Foreign Secretary to pay an official visit to Australia and New Zealand for as long as fifteen years. But it is hardly a path worn smooth by a procession of British Ministers....(The Times: 20.4.1987)



However, it should be noted at this stage that this model is not to be confused with the interpretative model ( the text-analysis method). A basic difference between the two is that whereas the text-analysis method is quantitative, text-typology primarily focuses on function. Text-analysis uses statistics. It isolates a language sample, for example the English used in science identifies a given linguistic feature, for instance 'voice', and counts the frequency of passive constructions with the aim of arriving at quantitative generalizations such that as the passive in English for science accounts for x per cent. The text-typological model, on the other hand, takes each language sample as a communicative event in its own right , considers the function of a particular utterance in a particular text and relates it to a type. Whereas the former model would state that there must be an x number of passives in a scientific text, the text-typological model would instead analyse the various uses of the passive and its function according to the type of text. For example, the passive form, with a deep sense of horror like fujjāt 'was afflicted with grief', conveys an idea of catastrophe, shock, and consternation and sets the scene for further developments along similar lines.

In the text-typological model, the duty of the translator towards the target language text is to achieve an objective reading by rendering the text in the equivalent type and form as it appeared in the source language text. The translation process within this model involves, as indicated before, keeping the appropriate equivalence at the three levels: structure, text, and context which comprise three contextual variables or parameters: pragmatics, semiotics, and communicativeness.



### **1.3. The Functions of Language:**

Attempts to provide a general set of labels for the principal functions of language have resulted in a vague, and often confusing, terminology. In addition to the basic functions of language, most of linguists and discourse analysts adopt two terms to describe the major functions of language and emphasise that this division is an analytic convenience. The function which language serves in the expression of content will be described as 'transactional', and that function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes will be described as 'interactional' (Brown and Yule: 1983). This distinction, 'transactional/interactional', stands in general correspondence to the functional dichotomies, 'representative/ expressive', found in Bühler (1934), 'referential/emotive' (Jakobson:1960), 'ideational/interpersonal' (Halliday: 1970),and 'descriptive/social-expressive' (Lyons:1977).

To continue the discussion, it would be quite convenient to make a distinction between the transactional and interactional views. In the transactional aspect, on the one hand, linguists and linguistic philosophers frequently acknowledge that language may be used to perform many communicative functions. They, nonetheless, make the general assumption that the most important function is the communication of information. Therefore, Bennett (1976:5) observes that "it seems likely that communication is primarily a matter of a speaker's seeking either to

inform a hearer of something or to enjoin some action upon him". In the interactional approach, on the other hand, sociologists and sociolinguists are particularly concerned with the use of language to establish and maintain social relationships. Thus, discourse analysts and linguists remark that everyday human interaction is mostly characterized by the interpersonal rather than by the transactional use of language.

Quoting Hugh (1941:40), "language has two functions: the referential and the emotive functions. Referential language refers to objects or actions or situations which can be pointed to or described, and makes statements which may be verified or disproved by other people. Emotive language expresses the writer's or speaker's feelings, and aims at stirring those of the hearer and perhaps spurring him on to some action". It is evident from this statement that language is mainly used to fulfil different purposes on the part of the writer or speaker. Here what interests us is the emotive phenomenon of language since it is our main concern in this thesis.

Halliday, like other linguists, distinguishes three grammatically relevant language functions: the 'ideational' the 'interpersonal', and the 'textual'. The first refers to what is commonly called the 'cognitive meaning' or 'propositional content' of sentences; the second refers to distinctions such as those of 'mood' or modality, for example, the differences between statements, questions, and commands; and the third function refers to the way in which the grammatical and interactional structure of sentences relates them to one another to continuous texts and to the situations in which they are used (Lyons: 1970).



Language is used to serve a variety of different needs: first, language serves for the expression of 'content', that is of the speaker's experience of the real world, including the inner world of his own consciousness. This, as termed by Halliday, may be called the ideational function. In serving this function, language also gives structure to experience and helps to determine our way of looking at things. Second, language serves to establish and maintain social relations, for the expression of social roles which include the communication roles created by language itself, for instance, the roles of questioner or respondent. Finally, language serves to provide for making links with itself and with features of the situations in which it is used. This may be called the textual function, since this is what enables the writer or speaker to construct texts. One aspect of the textual function is the establishment of cohesive relations from one sentence to another in a discourse ( Hasan: 1968).

As stated before, most writers on language agree that, fundamentally, any language has a twofold function or a 'double task' as Hayakawa terms it. Accordingly, the function of language may be said to be:

1. Objective, impersonal, informative, referential or factual, when it is employed to report, state, declare, notify, or convey thoughts, facts, or information, i.e., communication, using the ordinary words, the normal word order, syntax, with a complete absence of any of the emotional or affective devices.

2. Subjective, personal, emotional or emotive, affective to give expression to the speaker's or writer's emotions and attitudes. It is used to rouse in others certain feelings or attitudes to dispose their minds in a certain way, or to incite in them certain reactions.

To sum up the previous points, it may be maintained that writers and speakers have at their command certain means of expressing their emotions, feelings, attitudes, and of trying to impress or affect the reader or speech-partner in a certain way, directly by means of words. In other words, text producers can, explicitly or implicitly, affect their readers by using different techniques employed beneath the texture of their texts. In this context, the emotive use of language is seen as an effective means resorted to by writers to influence the people's acceptance of a statement. Therefore, we may conclude from the foregoing points that one of the original and primary functions of language is seen to be that of serving the release of emotions, the emotions being discharged into a lightning conductor, where it may do no further harm. This function is called the emotional or emotive function which will be discussed in detail in Chapter III.

#### **1.4. Meaning and Syntax in Translation:**

Scholars and philosophers have looked at the notion of meaning from different perspectives. They have offered various theories of meaning to support, in one way or another, other kinds of theories. However, they have only recently come to recognize the importance of a theory of meaning for understanding the various uses of meaning. On the one hand, some semanticists regard meaning as use, i.e., words are used in language to mean something else and ultimately to communicate. This association of meaning and use can best be illustrated by quoting Wittgenstein's statement "the meaning of a word is its use in the language". Moreover, he emphasizes not just the role of an expression within the language, but



the role of language in human life. He remarks that "language is integrated into our behaviour and our interactions with others in an intimate way. We use it to give commands, to answer questions, to greet each other, to argue, and so on" (Fodor: 1977, 19).

Other theorists, on the other hand, consider that meaning is rooted in the framework of speech acts theory. They believe that any sentence or even any utterance must imply another meaning. In fact, the theory of speech acts, developed originally by Austin (1962), is explicitly concerned with sentences of all kinds. Austin's main concern is to characterize the kinds of act that can be performed by uttering sentences. It has been argued that to specify the speech act for which a sentence is standardly used is to specify the meaning of that sentence. In this respect, Austin distinguishes three kinds of speech act: a locutionary act is an act of uttering a sentence with particular referents for the terms it contains. It is an act of saying something. An illocutionary act is an act of asking a question, giving a warning, making a prediction. It is an act performed in saying something. A perlocutionary act is an act of persuading someone to do something. It is an act performed by saying something.

The literature on the subject of meaning contains a bewildering diversity of approaches, conceptions, and theories, most of which can be grouped, according to Alston, into three types: "The referential theory which identifies the meaning of an expression with that to which it refers or with the referential connection; the ideational theory with the ideas with which it is associated; and the behavioural theory with the stimuli that evoke its utterance and the responses that it in turn evokes" (Lehrer: 1970, 19).

#### **1.4.1. Abstract Meaning Versus Languages in Concrete:**

When we speak of translation, we are primarily concerned with concrete and material language. Naturally, this does not mean that the process which goes on between the source language text and the target language text should consider concrete concepts and concrete associations only, but rather that "translation and interpretation have to be based on words, sentences, linguistic meaning, language, because apart from the interpreter's paralinguistic and body language ... they have no other material foundations" (Newmark: 1981, 98). Words, however, are not divine entities that stand by themselves, "as a proof of the existence of God, or as a way of predicting the future" (Crystal: 1971, 42), but they are 'linguistic symbols', to quote Nida's term, that are free, arbitrary and conventional. The freedom with which we are allowed to deal with words, or linguistic symbols, enables us to communicate with others, because "without such freedom no communication in the usual sense -much less translation from, one language to another - would ever be possible" (Nida :1964 , 49).

Meaning, therefore, does not exist without words. According to Newmark (1981:98), "meaning arises from sights, sounds, smells, tastes, surfaces, ... as well as desires, feelings, ideas, memories, images, ... etc, that reach consciousness; but all these can only be mediated by words, assisted sporadically by mental images". Yet when one translates, he does not transfer free words from the source language to the target language. Although the 'freedom of symbols', according to Nida, enables us to enter and use different symbols already known in one language "to describe new objects which come into the culture" (1964 : 49), yet when we



translate, we translate words that are used in context, that is "words that are lexically conditioned and constrained by collocation and connotation, grammatically by syntax, intonationally by word order, sometimes phonetically by assonance, alliteration, and moreover they are normally referentially bound" (Newmark 1981 : 135).

#### **1.4.2. Words and Meaning:**

When dealing with the meaning of words, I do not wish to say that the translator should depend on 'literal' or 'word-for-word' translation; rather I would like to emphasize that words are textually and culturally bound. But in this part, I will be concentrating on words rather than structures. Therefore, the problems of dictionary meaning versus contextual meaning, polysemy, synonymy and lexical translatability will be investigated.

##### **1.4.2.1. Dictionary Meaning Versus Contextual Meaning:**

When the translator is faced with words which are unfamiliar to him or, in a more general term, ambiguous, he will usually refer to the dictionary for help. It is obvious that the dictionary may not be the only reliable source for a final or better solution for the translator has "to reconcile several possible meanings, including the author's intended meaning, the dictionary definition, and his own interpretation of the word or phrase" (Duff 1981 : 17). The dictionary may furnish several possible meanings for one word, and the translator will be faced with another, more subtle and more intriguing issue, when he has to choose the appropriate equivalent for that word. Looking more closely into the target language

text, we find that the translator sometimes gives more than one equivalent in his translation for a given item in the target language text. Furthermore, he tries to improve the target language text either by omitting or by adding certain words or expressions for the sake of clarification.

#### **1.4.2.2. Polysemy:**

Polysemy occurs when one word in a language has several different meanings. The word 'mouth', for example, is a polysemous form in English which indicates several different meanings; it is "one lexeme with several different senses 'organ of body', 'entrance of cave', etc" (Lyons 1977 :550). It is not necessary, however, that a polysemous word in English should have a similar diversity of meaning in another language. Therefore, we would expect to find a different set of polysemous words in Arabic.

Polysemy is related to the broader issue of ambiguity, in which one surface expression has many underlying structures. Lyons (1977) tries to explain 'polysemy' in terms of several criteria, i.e., by supplying etymological information in which the historical derivation of words is given, by using the native speaker's intuitions of relatedness of meaning, or by applying a componential analysis of the meanings of words. Nida (1969), on the other hand, does not consider 'polysemy' to be a crucial problem for the translator, since "the different meanings of a single word are rarely in competition, for they not only have relatively well-defined



markers which help to differentiate the meanings, but so often they are so diverse as not to compete with one another for the same semantic domain" (1969 : 63).

Arab linguists refer to the problem of 'polysemy' as ishtirāk. They argue that such a phenomenon enriches the language and make it more capable of representing the physical world around us. They also believe that all kinds of ishtirāk of one single root have one general meaning. So, many meanings will be attached to the original meaning of a particular root, and they will develop in the course of time and diverge from the original meaning of that root. That is why one single word has many meanings besides the original one. For example, the verb rawā is a polysemic word which has an original meaning 'water', and an additional meaning 'to tell a story'. To illustrate the semantic domains of this polysemous word, I shall use it in sentences:

rawā

a. rawā Ahmadu l-arda.

Watered Ahmad the land.

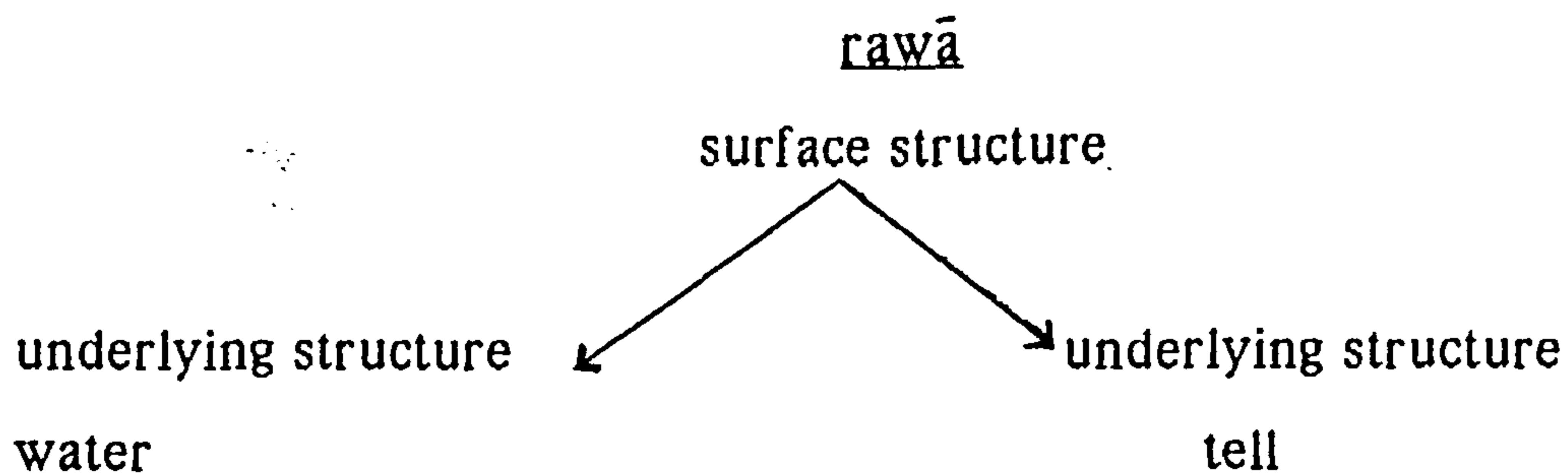
Ahmad watered the land.

b. rawā Aliyyun qissatan.

told Ali a story.

Ali told a story.

The underlying structures of the above polysemous verb can be shown in the following diagram:



However, our main concern here will not be concentrated on arguments about the original meaning of words, but on the nature and domain of the semantic phenomenon of polysemy and its implications in the field of translation within the framework of emotive language. As seen in the above example, the two different meanings of rawā can only be determined by the use of each verb in its actual context, because after all "context clarifies" ( Duff ; 1981,33 ).

It is evident from the above-cited example that polysemy occurs in Arabic as well as in English. However, polysemy is language specific, that is , the linguistic forms which carry different meanings in Arabic may not be the same as those which carry different meanings in English. Such polysemous forms must be handled with the utmost care by the translator, because they cannot be translated properly out of their context.

#### **1.4.2.3. Synonymy and Lexical Translatability:**

Synonymy occurs when two or more linguistic forms can be used to substitute for one another in a particular context, and still give similar but not necessarily identical meanings. Many linguists believe that complete synonymy does not exist in any language and complete

equivalence in translation is something unattainable. Nida, for example, defines synonymy in language as "words which share several but not all essential components and thus can be used to substitute for one another in some but not all contexts without appreciable difference of meaning in these contexts" ( 1969:7 )

Newmark takes a position similar to that of Nida when he declares, "I do not approve of the proposition that translation is a form of synonymy" (1981 : 101). Again, McGuire considers that even apparent synonymy does not yield equivalence; "hence a dictionary of so-called synonyms, may give 'perfect' as a synonym for 'ideal' or 'vehicle' as a synonym for 'conveyance' but in neither case can there be said to be complete equivalence, since each unit contains within itself a set of non-translatable associations and connotations" ( 1980:15 ).

As pointed out, synonymy presupposes replaceability and interchangeability . This means that words can be described as synonymous if they are interchangeable and replace each other in any and every context without any change of meaning. In this regard, equivalence may be an appropriate criterion for translation instead of synonymy. What is meant by equivalence here is that every linguistic unit has a characteristic distribution. If two or more units occur in the same range of contexts, they are said to be equivalent. In a word, it may be said that the pragmatic, semiotic, and communicative dimensions seem to be of extreme importance for establishing and maintaining the notion of equivalence in translation.

Apart from the types and theories of meaning, I turn now to the issue of



emotive meaning which constitutes the core of this discussion. According to David Crystal, "emotive is a term sometimes used in semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning. The 'emotive meaning' of an expression refers to its emotive effect on the listener, as in the 'emotive content' of propaganda speeches, and advertising language" (1985:108 ). It has been generally agreed that the meaning of a word is what has been associated with the word. We not only associate images and ideas and thoughts with words, but we also associate feelings with them. The word 'sea', for instance, will rouse in our minds thoughts about the sea or an image of it, and in most of us it will also rouse feelings of pleasure. On the other hand, if a person's only experience, in connection with the sea, had been the drowning of a friend or near relation, the word might arouse feelings of fear. There is an official terminology used in connection with this distinction between the thoughts, ideas, images, associated with a word, on the one hand; and the feelings which are associated with a word, on the other hand. According to King and Ketley ( 1939 ), this distinction can best be illustrated by stating that the feelings which are associated with a word are called its 'emotive meaning'; the thoughts, ideas, images which are associated with a word are called its 'reference'. Therefore, it might be said that the reference of 'sea' is perhaps an image of the actual sea, and thoughts about it; the emotive meaning of 'sea' is constituted by the feelings of pleasure or the feelings of fear and hatred. At this point, we should emphasize that we cannot discuss the meaning of any words, apart from the sentences and situations in which they occur, because words are only parts of speech and the sentence is the smallest unit that has a proper meaning. Hence, the larger becomes the cluster of ideas and feelings associated with it, the richer becomes its reference and its emotive meaning.

It would be useful, at this stage, to discuss briefly syntax in relation to the process of translation. It is understood that, in addition to its basic functions, syntax can be used in language to create positions of special emphasis and focus. Clefting, for instance, is a syntactic device used to focus on a particular constituent in the sentence. The process of clefting involves extracting a constituent from its basic position in the sentence and putting it in a more prominent position, for example:

1. Most of the cotton we see in Britain comes from oversea countries.

The constituent, from oversea countries in (1), may be given more emphasis by placing it at the beginning of the sentence and surrounding it by the words it is /was ... that ... as follows:

2. It is from oversea countries that most of the cotton we see in Britain comes.

Sentences resulting from this process are called cleft-sentences. In addition to the clefting device, other devices are used to achieve similar effects, for example, the passive voice and word-order; these have to do with foregrounding and backgrounding. Actually, these syntactic devices are used for prominence, emphasis, and focus. They also serve other functions like markedness or the deletion of the subject as in the case of the passive voice.

It is a fact that the semantics of a sentence can be affected by its syntax. Although the same words can be used to produce two versions of a sentence, the semantics of each sentence will vary as the pattern of its word order varies. The way in which words are arranged reflects the semantic purpose of the text producer. This leads us to say that the



syntax of a sentence may be manipulated to produce a specific effect on the receiver.

We, as students of translation, should take into account both semantic and syntactic dimensions when translating any text. This is because meaning to a translator is as important as colour to a painter. It has been argued that meaning is the soul of the target language text in the process of translation, otherwise, if the semantic dimension is ignored by the translator, the translation will be distorted. Equivalence between the source language text and the target language text should be maintained as much as possible whether semantically, or syntactically, because the main task of the translator is ultimately to convey the same effect to the recipient. Here, we should assert that if the source text is emotive, then, the target text should be translated, in turn, as emotively as possible so as to achieve the same effects on the receiver. In support of this view, Newmark (1981:133 ) suggests that :“The translator has to emphasize the emotive and affective elements present in the source language text over the informative or content elements, because the context requires it. But, while stress remains on the importance of transferring into the target language text the whole message present in the source language text, including the cultural differences which the source language text message connotes, elements or connotative meaning must be handled with deep perception so that only the text itself within the related culture is the obligatory factor on which the translator must rely”. The translator must not be tempted to connote meanings which are not intrinsic to the appropriate situations of the source language text or the target language text cultures; otherwise the translation would become partially or totally distorted . This point will be explained with examples by taking Arabic



texts to be translated into English to see how the emotive elements are reflected in the target language texts. This illustration will be given in Chapter II.

### **1.5. Equivalence in Translation:**

Many linguists and theorists of translation have discussed the notion of equivalence in the process of translating between source language text and target language text, but each has looked at it from a different angle. Generally speaking, translators agree that a translation 'corresponds to' or 'matches' its original in relevant respects. Many different labels have been given, each of them representing a specific characterization of what an acceptable translation is to be. Some of these labels are: 'similarity', 'analogy', 'adequacy', and 'congruence', but most contemporary theoretical discussions on translation use the term 'equivalence'. According to Catford (1965:94), "for translation equivalence to occur, both SL and TL text must be relatable to the functionally relevant features of the situation". Catford, furthermore, distinguishes between situational features which are 'linguistically' relevant and those which are 'functionally' relevant. By functionally relevant situations, he means those relevant to the communicative function of the text in that situation.

Nida ( 1969 : 12 ) believes that translation involves the closest natural equivalence between the source language and the target language, since "the best translation does not sound like a translation". In order to achieve what Nida terms 'dynamic equivalence', the translator should give priority to meaning, rather than form or style. By 'dynamic equivalence', Nida means that it involves 'the reproduction of the

message rather than the conservation of the form of the utterance' (1969: 14 ). Nida, furthermore, discusses the problem of translation equivalence in terms of four priorities: the priority of (a) contextual consistency over verbal consistency, (b) dynamic equivalence over formal correspondence, (c) the oral, i.e., heard form over the written form, and (d) familiar forms over traditionally more prestigious forms.

In discussing the issue of equivalence, Popovic (1970 : 79,83 ) stresses the importance of the 'concept of shifts' which sees translation as a semiotic transformation. The 'concept of shifts' in Popovic's framework may be considered a practical interpretation of Nida's term 'dynamic equivalence' except that the former capitalizes on the fact that the translator's aim is to achieve 'expressive identity' between the source language and the target language texts.

Lefevre ( 1975 ) takes the discussion of equivalence a step further, when he stresses the importance of 'communicative value'. According to him (1975 : 96 ), "the translation of literature is mainly concerned with matching communicative value with communicative value". By 'communicative value', Lefevre means the ability of the translator to measure the time - place - tradition elements found in both the source language and the target language. Thus, Lefevre takes into account the historical, i.e., diachronic, geographical, and contextual aspects of the text.

For Susan McGuire ( 1980 : 29 ), "equivalence in translation, then, should not be approached as a search for sameness, since sameness cannot even exist between two target language versions of the same text, let alone between the source language and the target language versions". This view is very similar to Nida's which emphasizes the importance of equivalence



rather than identity.

Furthermore, linguistics and semantics introduce the equivalence relation in terms of synonymy as 'semantic equivalence'. Mates supports this view saying that "two expressions are synonymous in a language if and only if they may be interchanged in each sentence in language without altering the truth value of that sentence"(1950: 209) . In this way, it seems that synonymy may be defined in terms of equivalence. The two expressions may be viewed as semantically equivalent in the sense that their semantic characteristics do not differ. Mates, on the one hand, says of translation: "A body of discourse A is a translation of another body of discourse B if and only if there is a correspondence between the meaningful parts of A and those of B such that corresponding parts are synonymous" (1950 : 202). On the other hand, Catford (1965 : 20 ) defines translation as "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)". From these two definitions, it may be said that although the two seem to differ in that the first defines translation in terms of synonymy whereas the second is put in terms of equivalence, it is apparent that they start from different premises with respect to the nature of meaning in natural languages.

From the viewpoint of a theory of texts, Neubert ( 1970 : 451 ) observes that: "Translation equivalence must be considered a semiotic category". This is to say that it comprises a syntactic, a semantic, and a pragmatic component. In other words, equivalence results from the relation between signs, from the interrelation between the signs and what they stand for, and from the interaction between the signs and what they

stand for. These three components are hierarchically related to one another: semantic equivalence must be given priority over syntactic equivalence whereas both syntactic and semantic equivalence are conditional and modified by the requirements of pragmatic equivalence.

However, from the foregoing discussion of the issue of equivalence in translation, we may discern one general fact behind these seemingly different standpoints, i.e., that complete equivalence is a far-fetched task; in fact, it is impossible. This will lead us to the question of untranslatability which will be discussed in Chapter III.

The aim of this thesis is to produce a comparative study of the emotive use of language as displayed in English and Arabic news reports and editorials. I shall also explore the strategies which express the phenomenon of emotional or affective language. A comprehensive analysis of these devices will be introduced in Chapter III.

The format of the thesis will be as follows:

Chapter I represents, as has already been stated, the introductory chapter of the thesis.

Chapter II presents some theoretical notions related to the topic under consideration. This chapter reviews the idea of emotiveness in conjunction with persuasion and ideology. It will comprise two sections: Section One concentrates mainly on the phenomenon of persuasion as a means of emotiveness, elements of persuasion, the use of emphasis, the concepts of persuasion and manipulation, persuasion and emotional



language, persuasion versus argument, rhetoric and stylistics in terms of emotive language, and, finally, the structure of editorials and news reports. Section Two centres on the issue of ideology as closely related to language. This section is also concerned with identifying the inherent relationship between ideology and news reporting.

Chapter III represents the core of the thesis. It includes two sections: Section One gives a comprehensive analysis of the strategies employed by text producers to demonstrate their emotive language beneath texts. Four patterns of strategies will be distinguished, i.e., semantic, rhetorical, stylistic, and syntactic, each pattern subsuming a number of strategies. Initially, this section comprises two stages: emotive versus non-emotive meaning in parallel English news reports and editorials; and emotive versus non-emotive meaning in non-parallel English and Arabic editorials. Section Two deals with the emotive phenomenon in the expository text-type, namely the news reports, by analyzing three texts in Arabic. A comparative analysis of the three texts will be introduced in addition to a translation of text A. to trace the emotive features in the target text.

Chapter IV is a summary and conclusion.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **Emotiveness in relation to persuasion and ideology:**

This chapter reviews the notion of emotiveness in connection with persuasion and ideology. It will be divided into two sections: Section one, on the one hand, deals with persuasive language as a means of emotiveness, elements of persuasion, emphasis as a factor leading to emotiveness, persuasion and emotional language, the use of emphasis, the concepts of persuasion and manipulation, rhetoric and stylistics in terms of emotive language, and, finally, the structure of editorials and news reports. Section Two, on the other hand, concentrates on the issue of ideology, investigating the subsistent relationship between language and ideology, particularly ideology and news reporting through the medium of analysing some news reports.

#### **Section One:**

##### **2.1. Persuasion As a Means of Emotiveness:**

In a broad sense, persuasion may be understood as any form of discourse that influences thought, feelings, or conduct. In this sense, we may assume that all speech is persuasive, because all speech is influential. Hence, it should be made clear that the fundamental basis for distinguishing persuasion from other forms of discourse is the conscious purpose of the addresser. Bettinghaus (1968,13) defines persuasion as "a conscious attempt by one individual to change the behaviour of another

individual or group of individuals through the transmission of some message". In a similar line of thinking, Brembeck and Howell (1952, 24) view persuasion as "the conscious attempt to modify thought and action by manipulating the motives of men toward predetermined ends". It is evident that these authors stress the conscious intent of the persuader, behavioral change, and message transmission. We should mention here that the preceding definitions, although not exhaustive, offer us a way of conceptualising the process of persuasion.

### **2.1.1. Elements of Persuasion:**

According to Macpherson (1920), persuasion is regarded as a mental process. There are in it three main elements: the 'intellectual', the 'imaginative', and the 'emotional', each of which combines and fuses with others so as to produce a distinctive form of expression. The writer whose aim is to persuade must not only convince his hearers or readers intellectually, but he must also stimulate their imaginative faculty, and stir them to action by appealing to their emotions and sentiments. It may be suggested that the imaginative element in persuasion, as a form of expression, appears in illustrations and figures of speech such as simile, metaphor, analogy, and exemplification.

The primary function of illustration is to make clear some ideas or propositions. Since ideas tend to realise themselves in action, illustration, as assisting in the formation of vivid ideas, has the additional value in persuasion that it tends to affect conduct and to lead to the action that the writer desires. Therefore, we may maintain that illustrations impart clearness and vividness to ideas.



As the imaginative element finds its expression in illustrations and figures of speech, so the emotional element expresses itself in emotional figures, such as interrogation, exclamation, and prediction. Emotional figures of speech are characteristic features of persuasion and especially of spoken persuasion. The emotional element, indeed, in some form or other, must necessarily be present if persuasion is to be effective, because it is the driving-force that must in its turn induce the reader or hearer to act in accordance with the beliefs advocated. Hence, if our objective is to persuade, we invoke feelings that will elevate the spirit and stimulate to action.

Another vital expedient which may be employed for the enlivening of emotions indirectly, through the intellect and imagination, is to emphasise the importance of the subject. By this means we fix the attention more closely, and add vividness and strength to the ideas, thus increasing, in turn, the intensity and force of the emotions aroused in the recipient. The subject of emphasis will be discussed later in detail.

### **2.1.2. Persuasion and Emotional Language:**

The inescapable fundamental thesis of persuasion is that it is, as stated earlier, a process of influencing the behaviour of the persons who are being addressed. The soundness of persuasion stems from the method resorted to by text producers, that is to say emotional language. Emotion, inter alia, seems to be the strongest method in persuasion, because it stirs and agitates the feelings of the recipients. In fact, the way of emotional language makes the reader or hearer the slave of the text producer.



According to Weiss (1959, 137), "the emotionality of the language employed to project the communicator's viewpoint is a significant determinant of emotional arousal in the communicatees".

As far as emotional language is concerned, it is clear that communications with a high proportion of emotionally toned words are more effective in arousing emotions than are non-emotional presentations of the same information. Hence, the basic assumption underlying the procedure is that affection may be provoked by the kinds of words used to describe an object. That is, besides their cognitive significations, words carry an affective loading given by their associations. In general, semanticists note that some words are employed primarily for affective arousal or expression rather than for their information value.

### **2.1.3. The concepts of Persuasion and Manipulation:**

As has already been illustrated, the objective of emotive language is to influence people's acceptance of the point of view. Similarly, persuasion of people calls for an influence exerted by the text producers. In this regard, Harre (Van Dijk: 1985, 126) observes that "persuasion and manipulation are social psychological concepts. They describe processes of interpersonal action, they imply an asymmetrical direction of influence, and, at least the former, seems to justify the existence of a psychological state or condition, that of being persuaded. The latter also seems to have psychological entailments but they are of a negative kind, namely that the victim of manipulation is unaware of the influences exerted upon him". Again, Aristotle seems to hold that there are three necessary conditions for persuasion to be successful. He suggests that "we persuade others by three means: by the appeal to their reason; by

the appeal to their emotions; by the appeal of our personality or character" (Corbett: 1965, 39).

Armed with such information, we may maintain that emotion has always been considered, *inter alia*, as a vital ingredient in persuasion. Therefore, it is toward producing these effects that writers or rhetoricians direct the whole of their efforts.

## 2.2. Persuasion Versus Argument:

Persuasion, as mentioned before, is that form of discourse which attempts to influence human conduct, belief, or feelings. We may argue that another related form of discourse is argument. The chief distinction between persuasion and argument may be seen as one of method, despite the fact that both seek to achieve influence. Persuasion utilises in Aristotle's phrase 'all available means', while argument is 'reasoned discourse' (Oliver: 1957) which attempts through facts and logic to influence the mind. Thus, the first clear distinction between them is that argument makes its appeal to the thinking abilities of the listeners, whereas persuasion appeals through emotions.

It should be mentioned here that the term 'argument' is understood to mean the use of a statement in a logical process of argumentation to support or weaken another statement whose validity is questionable and contentious. Argumentation may be thought of as the art of producing in the mind of the addressee acceptance of ideas held true by a writer or speaker. The idea of argumentation will be discussed later in detail under the heading of the structure of editorials.



### **2.3. Emphasis As a Means to Emotive Language:**

It is true that persuading a receiver of an idea, in some situations, requires an irresistible direct influence to be exercised over the mind of this receiver. Emphasis, as a conducive factor to emotional language, provides a vital means of fulfilling this objective, as it urges the recipient to surrender to what is emphasised. Thus, emphasis, with its various types, is seen as one of the principal characteristics of highly emotional language simply because it contributes to the reinforcement of the proposition's certainty. The reinforcement of the proposition leads to acceptability which gives rise in the long run to the persuasiveness of the text. Here, it should be said that reinforcement is mainly manifested by repetition. Reinforcement, by definition, is a feature of colloquial style whereby some item is repeated either completely or by pronoun substitution for purposes of emphasis, focus, or thematic arrangement. Its simplest form is merely the reiteration of a word or phrase for emphasis or clarity. For instance,

I agree with every word you have said- every single word.

A reinforcing pronoun is sometimes inserted within a clause where it substitutes for an initial noun phrase, for example:

This man I was telling you about - he used to live next door to me.

The writer or speaker may insert the pronoun because the initial phrase is too long to form the subject of the sentence without awkwardness or



confusion or because he cannot in the act of writing or speaking think of any way of continuing without restructuring the sentence and therefore decides to make a fresh start.

### **2.3.1. The Role of Emphasis in Discourse:**

Discourse analysts believe that a piece of writing may be unified and coherent and still not be effective if it does not observe the principle of emphasis. Like unity and coherence, emphasis is a principle of organisation in discourse. At this point, it may be said that emphasis is conceived of as a measure of the relative importance of a unit of attention in the sentence. Emphasis directs the attention of the recipient to some units at the expense of attending to other units which are seemingly of less importance. We may presume that emphasis is understood as a relative measure and, moreover, an element of context.

Furthermore, emphasis may be regarded as a discursal feature. It is used as a cohesive link, that is to say contrast and given/new information. Emphasis may be employed to stress the content as in political speeches, i.e., implying ideology.

### **2.3.2. The Use of Emphasis:**

Grammatically speaking, emphasis is looked at as a means of giving special importance or significance to a word or phrase in a sentence. It is, indeed, the force or intensity of expression. Writers or speakers can express emphasis by using different types, of which some can be manifested by semantic and lexical devices and others by stress, intensification and position. Emphasis can also be explicated by

information focus and theme. According to Quirk (1973, 427), "language provides means of giving a unit purely emotive emphasis. We have noted in various chapters a number of features of this type. They include exclamations, the persuasive 'do' in commands, interjections, expletives, and intensifiers, including the general clause emphasisers such as actually, really, and indeed". We may infer that these various types of emphasis are used for the purpose of heightening and arousing the feelings of the recipient. It should be admitted that intensifiers and emphasisers are, in particular, the most dominant patterns in this regard. These types of emphasis will be explained in detail in Chapter III.

In addition to the above-mentioned, I would like to discuss a basic type of indicating emphasis, i.e., emphasis by position. In general, grammarians believe that emphasis can be given by means of concentrating on positions. These positions are grouped into three: first, middle, and last. It may be suggested here that a proper criterion for measuring the importance of emphasis regarding positions is still a contentious question among grammarians and discourse analysts. However, it seems to me that first and last is a fairly sound rule for emphasis by position. The reason for this is that this rule basically corresponds to two general methods for treating a subject. The main idea can be presented and then discussed or proved, or discussion or proof can lead up to the main idea. Ordinarily the second method is better, and the end is the most emphatic position, because the last impression a reader or hearer receives is what counts most. In any case, I may presume that the middle is the least emphatic position.

In a similar way, emphasis in Arabic according to grammarians can be

classified into three types:

(a). Lexical emphasis at-tawkiḍ al-lafzi. This refers to the repetition of one of the constituents of the sentence or the whole sentence, because repetition of an idea can give it prominence, for example:

Text 2

إن ٢١ محطة قطار ليست بالقليل ولا بالقليل أن تصرف الدولة حوالي ٣٠٠ مليون جنيه إستيرليني لكي تربط حلوان في الجنوب بميدان رمسيس...

(b). Semantic emphasis at-tawkiḍ al-ma'nawi. This involves the use of pronominal appositives immediately following the noun phrase to be emphasised. These pronominal appositives include the emphatic reflexives such as نفس ، نفسه، أنفسهم. For example:

Text 6

لكن إرادة لبنان ستظل هي نفس الإرادة.  
(الشرق الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/١/٢)

As well as items such as

كلاهما، كلهم، جميعهم، بعينه

For example,

جاء الأمير بعينه.

(c). Intensification al-mubālagha. This refers to certain substantive patterns which are employed to mean that the actions they denote have been constantly repeated. Examples of such patterns are:

فعال، فعيل، فعل، فعول

إنه غفور رحيم.

The remaining types of emphasis can be seen by the emphatic particles as well as inversion, i.e., foregrounding or backgrounding. For example,

الأحرف المشبهة بالفعل subsume particles which are emphatic إن, negative

... etc. لكن adversative, ليس



The parameters which determine the various types of emphasis are given/new information and contrastiveness. Given and new information can be emphasised in a given situation. However, new information can also be non-emphatic. It should be stressed here that if new information is emphatic it can either be non-contrastive or contrastive. For example,

1. Newness-non-emphatic: an answer to a question.

2. Newness-emphatic:

إنما يدافع عن أحسابكم علي.

3. Newness-emphatic-contrastive:

إنما الأعمال بالنيات.

4. Newness-emphatic-non-contrastive:

إن زيدا قائم.

We note that givenness and newness are assigned to entities.

Contrastiveness, on the other hand, is expressed either explicitly as in:

صداقة الجاهل تعب لا راحة.

or implicitly as in:

إنما الحياة تعب.

Here, we should mention that explicit contrastiveness is realised either non-emphatically as in:

x did b, but y did w.

or implicitly as in:

It is the case that x is so.

Implicit contrastiveness is necessarily associated with emphasis.

As far as emphasis is concerned, in Arabic rhetoric, contrastiveness is dealt with under the term ikhtisāṣ 'specification'. Let us consider the following statement quoted from abū Mūsā (1979):

SLT:

"ومعنى الاختصاص والتقوية لا يتعارضان، فما يفيد الاختصاص يفيد التقوية. لأن الاختصاص كما قالوا تأكيد على تأكيد."

TLT:

"The senses of specification and emphasis are not mutually opposed. What gives rise to specification also gives rise to emphasis, because specification, as they say, is emphasis upon emphasis."

It is evident that specification is intrinsically integrated with reinforcement so as to produce emphasis. This common integration, in one way or another, functions in heightening and, consequently, arousing the emotions of the recipient. This is consonant with the fact that man, by nature, surrenders to emphatic language. He, then, unconsciously becomes the captive of the addresser in view of the intensity of expressions. We may maintain that emphasis is a psychological attitude on the part of the writer or speaker which ultimately aims at driving the receiver to the desired point of view.

Since our study is concerned with news reports and editorials both in English and Arabic, we should stress the fact that emphatic language is predominant in editorial texts in both languages due to the subjectivity of text producers.

## **2.4. Stylistics and Rhetoric As Features of Emotive Language:**

Linguistics is the science of describing language and showing how it works. Stylistics is that part of linguistics which deals with variations in the use of language, often but not exclusively, with special attention to the most conscious and complete uses of language. At the outset, I would like to hint that although stylistics and rhetoric fall into one domain, a slight distinction may be made. Stylistics is concerned with the study of characteristic choices in the use of language as regards form or vocabulary, whilst rhetoric is concerned with the art of employing language to influence and to persuade communicatees. Rhetoric is the art of persuasive communication. Nevertheless, we should admit that both branches, combined together, contribute to arouse feelings and to stir emotions of recipients .

### **2.4.1. The Concept of Style:**

Hough states that "language is the dress of thought, and style is the particular cut of the dress" (1969, 3). The cut or fashion can be grasped from different points of view. Dryden, for example, sees it as mainly dictated by the subject; the thought must be apt to the subject. This is, so to speak, in conformity with the general neo-classic theory of literary kinds. In other words, each genre has its own appropriate style. The style of a tragedy, for example, is not to be the same as that of a pastoral because they have different subject-matters. It follows, then, that style is seen as largely dictated by the nature of the writer himself. It is the



expression of his personality.

Furthermore, Bally, one of the founding fathers of modern stylistics, defines style as "the study of the affective elements in language" (Hough: 1969, 6). Thus, style is the production of the expressive resources in discourse.

#### 2.4.2. Components of Style:

In general, stylisticians commonly consider that the constituents of style fall into two main fields:

##### 1. Choice of Diction:

The prime quality of style is clarity, since the object of rhetorical language is persuasion. It follows that style must be clear. Aristotle holds that "language which does not convey a clear meaning fails to perform the very function of language" (Corbett: 1965, 393). In addition to clarity, it should be stressed here that appropriateness is another essential quality of diction which can least be judged in isolation. Conceivably, we may look at isolated words and make some judgement about whether they are current or reputable, but, as agreed upon, it is impossible to judge the appropriateness of isolated words. In a word, we may suggest that diction or precision is appropriate when it suits the subject-matter, the purpose, and the situation.

## 2. Composition of the Sentence:

Stylistic competence plays its role in the writing process when there are choices to be made from among two or more grammatical possibilities. Stylistic variations in the syntax of the sentence cannot ignore the grammar of the language. We should emphasise that any changes we make for rhetorical effect must respect the grammatical possibilities of the language.

There is another point to be made here regarding the rhetoric of the sentence. Style, like grammar, is part of the expressive system of a language. Just as grammatical devices, like word order and inflections, are carriers of meaning, so the forms of sentence are expressive of meaning as well, for example, parallelism as a rhetorical device, i.e., to reinforce the co-ordinate value of the compounded elements.

In the light of the foregoing points, we may say that style provides a vehicle for thought. But style is understood to be something more than that. It functions as a conducive element to emotional language and, consequently, to persuasion. Supporting this view, Corbett observes that "style is one of the available means of persuasion, another means of arousing the appropriate emotional response in the audience, and another means of establishing the proper ethical image" (1965,385).

I turn now to discuss briefly the subject of rhetoric in relation to persuasion and emotional language. If we try to define rhetoric as the manipulation of language to create particular effects, then it is clear that human beings have used rhetoric from a very early time.

From its beginnings rhetoric is thought of as the art of persuasive speech. As stated earlier, its ultimate end is to convince or persuade hearers or readers to think in a certain way or to act in a certain way. In this connection, Aristotle believes that rhetoric hinges on three factors: "rational appeal, emotional appeal, and ethical appeal" (Corbett: 1965, 23). What attracts our attention here is the emotional appeal, because it is the most impressive means of persuading the recipient. By appealing to emotions, writers or speakers can easily make readers or hearers surrender to their desires.

Revealing the close interrelationship between style and rhetoric, Brandt (1970: 19) stresses the fact that "although the term 'rhetoric' is used to denominate a number of different oratorical considerations, it chiefly refers to two: structure and style". Hence, style may be understood as a crucial element in the process of persuasion since it entails the study of the manipulation of language in its smaller units. This part of rhetoric, as observed by semanticists is termed 'textual', is mainly concerned with discovering the variations possible in word choice and word order, and the effect of such variations on readers or hearers. Thus, style is largely concerned with words, sentences, and paragraphs. In a word, style and rhetoric, combined together, are, once again, employed in discourse for the purpose of evoking reactions in the recipients.

## **2.5. The Structure of News Reports:**

At the beginning, I would like to mention that my objective here is to propose an analytical framework for the structure of news reports. I



shall restrict my focus to what might be called the 'global' organisation of news. This means that we are dealing only with structures beyond the sentence level, such as 'thematic and schematic structure' as termed by Van Dijk (1985). In other words, we shall be concentrating on 'macro' phenomena, rather than on the 'micro' organisation of news discourse.

Clearly, our approach to news structures from a discourse analytic point of view is not independent of insights obtained in other works on news or news discourse. However, we should emphasise that the text type of news reports is generally expository, despite the fact that there is evaluativeness displayed beneath the text. Before starting the analysis, two important terms must be illustrated: on the one hand, by the 'thematic structure' of a discourse, is understood the overall organisation of global 'topics' a news item is about. It is the formal representation of the global 'content' of a text, and thus characterises part of the meaning of a text; and 'schemata', on the other hand, are used to describe the overall 'form' of a discourse.

Discourse analysts suggest that in negotiating the structure of a news report, a number of formal categories, which determine the possible orderings and the hierarchical organisation of sentential and textual units, should be dealt with. According to Van Dijk (1985, 70), certain categories can be distinguished in this respect: the first category we encounter is the category of Headline which has a fixed form and position in news items. At the same time, this headline has a very specific thematic function: it usually expresses the most important topic of the news item. In other words, text producers may summarise complex units of information with one or, a few sentences, and these sentences are assumed to express the

gist, the theme, or the topic of the information. Such themes or topics organise what is most important in a text. They, indeed, define the 'upshot' of what is said or written (Jones: 1977). The second category is the Leading paragraph which constitutes the theme or the gist of the news item. It follows the headline and is always written in bold type.

We may infer here that headlines and leading paragraphs in news discourse may be used as expedient signals to make effective predictions about the most important information of the text. The third category is the Main Event followed by Verbal Action. It should be said at this stage that in terms of exposition, the category of leading paragraph may be treated as a scene setter constructed by the news reporter. Then, the other categories are regarded as aspects arranged additively, i.e., aspects 1, 2, 3,... etc. This also applies to the structure of Arabic news reports.

The notions 'theme' and 'topic' may be reformulated, according to Van Dijk (1980), in terms of 'semantic macrostructures'. These macrostructures are called 'semantic' because when we are speaking about topic, theme, or gist of a text, we are dealing with meaning and reference, and not, for example, with syntactic form. We are not even talking about the local meaning of isolated words or sentences, but about the meaning of larger fragments or chunks of text or about whole texts. We do not assign a theme or topic to one sentence, but to larger stretches of text. Hence, themes, topics, and the semantic macro structures employed to make these notions explicit pertain to global structures of discourse. However, it is perceived that a theme in this case is not simply a word or a single concept, but a 'macro proposition', as designated by Van Dijk (1985). For example, 'Weinberger' or 'resign' is not, in our



terms, a topic or a theme of our next sample text , but the sentence "Weinberger expected to resign" does express a proposition and can therefore be a topic or a theme of that text.

### **2.5.1. Thematic Structures in News Reports:**

As stated earlier, the principal role of headlines and leads in news discourse is to express or to indicate the theme or topic. This can be seen, for example, in the news article, taken from the Financial Times, about the resignation of Mr. Weinberger, the US Defence Secretary:

#### **Weinberger Expected to Resign.(Headline)**

Mr. Caspar Weinberger, the 70-year-old US Defence Secretary, who has been one of President Ronald Reagan's closest advisers since he took office in 1981, is expected to announce his resignation this week.  
(Leading paragraph)

Although Administration officials refused comment, indirect confirmation came yesterday from Senate minority leader and Republican Presidential candidate Robert Dole, who said he understood Mr. Weinberger, whose wife is seriously ill, was leaving for personal reasons. (Main Event)

He is expected to be replaced at the Defence Department by Mr. Frank Carlucci, the president's National Security Adviser and a man who worked as Mr. Weinberger's deputy at the Pentagon in the Reagan Administration



in 1981 and 1982 and at the Office of Management and Budget in the Nixon Administration. (Expectations)

The Secretary of Defence has been one of the most influential Cabinet officers during the Reagan Presidency, partly as a result of a working relationship going back 20 years to Mr. Reagan's days as Governor of California and because, at the Pentagon, he has been the man responsible for implementing the buildup in US defence spending which has been one of the President's top priorities. (History)

Mr. Weinberger shares the President's distrust of the Soviet Union. He has been a vigorous opponent of arms control and advocate of the 'Star Wars' Strategic Defence Initiative. (History)

As Mr. Reagan has embraced the view that Washington can and should seek verifiable arms control accords with Moscow to reduce nuclear weapons, and with the departure of Mr. Richard Perle, Under Secretary of Defence who resigned this year, Weinberger's influence had begun to wane. (Reaction)

His resignation would follow those of Mr. Bill Brock, Labour Secretary, and Mrs. E.Dole, Transport Secretary. (previous Action)

Assuming Mr. Frank Carlucci takes over as Defence Secretary and is replaced by his deputy, Lt. Gen. Colin Powell, Mr. Weinberger's departure will be seen on balance to be a further weakening of the Administration, particularly in the eyes of its conservative supporters. (Expectations)

As to the wider implications for US- Soviet relations, some voices in Washington maintained yesterday that Moscow would be pleased, and it may tend to improve the atmosphere surrounding the forthcoming summit meeting between Mr. Reagan and Mr. Mikhail Gorbachov, the Soviet leader. (Reaction 1)

Whether it will significantly change the way US-Soviet relations evolve in what is left of Mr. Reagan's term is much more difficult to judge. (Reaction 2)

President Reagan last night nominated Ms Ann Mclaughlin, a public relations expert, to become Labour Secretary to succeed Mr. Bill Broch. If approved by the Senate, Ms Mclaughlin would become the only woman in the Reagan cabinet. ( Consequent Action ) (Financial Times: 4.17.1987)

Considering the news report cited above, we first observe that the headline expresses the topic or the gist of the news item, namely, the resignation of Mr. Weinberger. Another important topic is mentioned in the leading article, viz., Weinberger as Reagan's closest adviser.

The first paragraph of the article specifies some of the details of the main topic: actors, participants, and finally the consequences of the resignation. The second paragraph, which represents the main event, similarly specifies some details of the main theme, namely the reasons of the resignation, i.e., personal reasons. So far, we may say that we have

obtained the following picture of the realisation of the thematic structure in a news text: the highest or most important topic is expressed in the headline, the top of the complete macro structure of the text is formulated in the lead, and the initial sentences or paragraphs of the text express a lower level of macro structure, featuring important details about time, location, participants, reasons or consequences of the main events. This means that the highest levels of the thematic structure are formulated first, and, then, the lower levels follow. The third paragraph of the text comes back to the resignation topic, and specifies speculation about the replacement of Mr. Frank Carlucci, the president's National Security Adviser. And most of the rest of the text also provides particulars about the resignation, its background, its consequences, and its implications. Here, we find that headlining, one topic from the text organising part of the information of the text, is promoted to the main topic. However, the thematic structure represents a formal collection of topics which each organises part of the meanings of the news text. In a word, these topics, as a whole, contribute to the overall comprehension of the news text by the reader.

### **2.5.2. News Layout in News Reports:**

Having discussed the 'macro semantics' of news discourse, I now turn to the 'macro syntax'. That is, discourse analysts assume that news items also have a fixed form, a 'schema', as coined by Van Dijk (1985), that organises the overall content.

The notion of 'schema' is originally found in psychology, where it was used by Barlett (1932) to denote organisation of knowledge in memory. Again, this notion was picked up to indicate knowledge clusters (Minsky:



1975). Such knowledge structures, so to speak, extend to what people know about the organisation of action of specific discourse type, such as stories (Rumelhart: 1975). In this connection, discourse theorists believe that schemata of stories can be explicitly described in terms of conventional categories and rules or strategies. Yet, we should stress the fact that such categories and rules do not operate on a local level, but on a global level. Therefore, the categories pertain to global meaning units, i.e., macro propositions or themes. At this point, I find it quite reasonable to suggest that each category should correspond to sections of the text. The order of categories also, as it is specified by the rules, determines the overall ordering of the respective sequences, which helps in the comprehension of the news item by the reader.

Schematically speaking, there are certain formal or global categories for a news report. According to Van Dijk (1986), these categories can be grouped as follows: Summary, that is headline and lead, and News story, which includes Episode and Comments. The category of Episode contains Main Event, Consequences, and Reaction, while the category of Comments includes Expectations, Speculations, and Conclusions. Here, we should indicate that practically all news discourses are headed by a headline which represents the first opening category of the schema. The headline is generally followed by the leading paragraph which is usually marked by bold type. Both headline and leading paragraph express the highest level of macro propositions of the news discourse. They function as a summary to give the topic or the gist of the news item.

The second category is the Main Event. It is the central event around which the entire news item revolves. This category, it should be stressed,

dominates the description of other subsequent news events. Again, this category entails results or consequences which may organise all other events that are described as being caused by the Main Event. Here, we should allude to the fact that sometimes there is not just one main event, but several. This means that the category of Main Event is 'recursive' throughout the news article.

At the end of a news article, we often find a Comment section, containing expectations, conclusions, and other information about the events. This category is thought of as an optional one, because it is possible to find a news article without comments.

Finally, I must point out that what holds true for the structure of news reports in English also holds true for Arabic. They are similar to each other in every respect.

## **2.6. The Structure of Editorials:**

Argument, in general, is a process which is carried out in a number of steps every one of which aims at attaining a specific goal that contributes to the final objective of the argumentative text. Looking at these steps, we notice that each one has a role to play in the argument development. In counter-arguments such as a letter to the editor, for example, the first step is thesis cited. It is either a thesis cited to be argued through if the argument is covert or a thesis cited to be opposed if the argument is overt. The second step is either substantiation or opposition, and this is subject to the kind of thesis cited. Here, substantiation contributes to the



persuasiveness of English editorials. In Arabic editorials, theses are cited but rarely substantiated, yet they remain persuasive in the sense that their emotive force is enhanced by semantic means such as repetition which is a persuasive device in Arabic discourse. The third step is the conclusion which has two functions: the first function is to summarise what has been introduced by the producer, and the second function is to reveal the objective of the producer.

As I have presented a very brief account of the structure of argumentative texts, an elaborated analysis will be introduced. My objective here is to present a generic structure of a particular text form within a particular text type. The text type involved here is argumentative, from which a specific text form has been chosen, and that is the editorial.

#### **2.6.1. Definition of Editorials:**

Little has been done on the analysis of editorials as text forms of the argumentative text types and this is due to the fact that linguists have put their efforts into analysing discourse in terms of text type categorisation. Therefore, I shall try to give my own definition of editorials.

In fact, the definition I am relying on is that an editorial may be regarded as an article which is written, superintended, and revised by an editor. This means that an editorial may not be written by an editor, but it may rather be revised by him. An editorial is an article that is related to an editor. It expresses the opinion of editors or publishers.



Having defined the term 'editorial', one needs to emphasise the fact that editorials are argumentative and evaluative. What is meant by argumentative here is the fact that argumentative texts tend to be contentious or controversial. Such texts may exhibit an often perverse and wearisome tendency to disputes. They are likely to cause contention. This kind of disputation and contention is intended to make an impact on the reader's or listener's way of thinking and by so doing influence his behaviour.

Generally speaking, political speeches and sermons are mixtures of argumentation, narration, and exposition, whereas editorials tend to be purely argumentative and evaluative.

#### 1. Situation:

Text linguists argue that spatial reference and temporal reference are typical features of the element 'situation'. Therefore, the element 'situation' here is understood in terms of spatial and temporal meanings. That is, 'situation' may be regarded as location in respect to something (de Beaugrande: 1981). For example, when we say 'a university in a pleasant situation', this refers to spatial meaning, to the position of the university. Moreover, situation may introduce a proposition, i.e., expresses facts and actions; it may introduce participants.

'Situation' may also be regarded as a position in respect to society or circumstance, condition and factuality. For example, when we say 'a situation of ease', this refers to the state of being at ease; it refers to the fact that someone is at ease.

As stated earlier, 'situation' may be understood in terms of temporal meaning. It may indicate time. For example, the items 'future', 'tomorrow' have temporal elements and are therefore to be considered as typical features of 'situation'.

Within the framework of editorials, the function of the element 'situation' is to provide the necessary background. It sets the scene for a full appreciation of what comes next. It presents the facts about the subject under discussion. Finally, it may prepare the reader to expect that what comes next is extremely problematic or concerns the public interest. This is, in addition to the time and space reference that the element 'situation' involves.

## 2. Thesis:

The second element in editorials is the element 'thesis'. It may be regarded as something like a 'problem', 'subject' or even 'theme'. It may also be regarded as the topic of discussion, and regarded then as what Halliday calls "a point of departure" (1967: p. 212). The element 'thesis' is what is being talked about; it is considered to be the point of discussion and argumentation. The element 'thesis' may be a problem that requires a solution. It may be a subject or theme that needs to be argued through. The most important characteristic of this element is that it is a universal theme within a particular community. It does not concern one particular individual. It rather concerns the community as a whole. However, the element 'thesis' is generally concerned with tackling a problem, particularly within the framework of editorials.

### 3. Evaluation:

As Hoey (1979: 1983) points out, the element 'evaluation' is one of the basic building units of discourse, along with 'situation'. Together, they answer the basic questions 'what are the facts' (situation), and "what do you think about them" (evaluation).

At the level of the overall structure, the element 'evaluation' answers the question 'how successful was x.' Was the solution, if there is one, a good or bad one?' These questions identify the basic characteristics of evaluation.

Furthermore, evaluation is concerned with measuring and assessing the problem or thesis so as to make the addressee convinced that what is being said is satisfactory. This can be brought about by producing evidence . Evaluation means systematic examination of events. This kind of systematic evaluation should, in one way or another, influence one's way of thinking, the thought of an individual within his community.

Moreover, evaluation may be categorised into two subcategories. The first category is called negative evaluation , where the writer disagrees with the thesis. He is opposing the thesis. The second category is called positive evaluation ,where the writer attempts to elaborate the thesis and argue for it. Both of these subcategories are, followed by the element 'substantiation'. Such an element is essential for the element 'evaluation'.

It is important to point out at this stage that 'substantiation' is regarded



here as an independent element of structure. Its presence within the element 'evaluation' is extremely important. This element cannot be regarded as a dependent element because it cannot stand on its own. For example, wherever there is evaluation, there is substantiation. This element frequently follows evaluation and sometimes, in focus cases, follows or precedes the element 'thesis' and 'solution'. This element, however, is regarded as a fundamental unit in the structure of editorials. It is the element by which all events and circumstances can be verified. Substantiation is to provide evidence or proof for our claim. This may be brought about by using clarification methods, i.e., giving examples, and syllogistic arguments.

#### 4. Solution:

This pattern is an optional element. That is, not all editorials have solutions for problems. Therefore, the element 'solution' is not obligatory. Solution here may be regarded as the writer's suggested method for solving the problem. If the thesis is negatively evaluated, the writer has the choice of providing the reader with an alternative or not. But if the thesis is positively evaluated, the writer would be discouraged from providing the reader with an alternative.

#### 5. Conclusion:

This is the last obligatory element of editorials. This element actually explains the implication of the argument. Sometimes, the element 'conclusion' can be a concluding remark or a summary of arguments. However, the use of the element 'conclusion' in English may be similar to that Arabic. As in English, the element 'conclusion' may summarise the

argument. It explains the nature of the thesis or problem. As stated before, the conclusion has two main functions; firstly, to summarise what has been introduced; and secondly, to reveal the objective of the text producer. However, one important feature of the element 'conclusion' in Arabic is that it comes in a form of a plea. This kind of usage is rather frequent in the structure of Arabic editorials.

In order to substantiate the postulation discussed above, I need to look at an editorial to see whether the claim I have proposed is justified or not. For example, let us consider the following argumentative text:

Oral health care does not have the makings of a dramatic issue (thesis cited to be opposed). Very few people die of oral disease, and its effect on the economies of nations is insignificant (Evaluation and Substantiation). Yet very few people manage to avoid oral disease, and the two major variants-dental caries and periodontal disease-can and do cause irreversible damage (opposition). In the process, dental caries can cause some of most severe pain that the average person is likely to experience in his life-time. In 1978 a national survey in the United Kingdom, where 4% of the national health budget is spent on dental care (1), showed that 30% of the adult population was edentulous (2) (Substantiation).

Yet the United Kingdom, like other countries with a long-established dental care system and the high levels of dental caries and periodontal disease generally associated with Western Culture, now seems to be experiencing a minor revolution. Not only has average dentition life expectancy increased by five years in the past decade but reports are



now coming in of dramatic reductions in the prevalence of dental caries in school children in different parts of the country, some from fluoridated areas, some not. The United Kingdom is by no means unique in this respect. Similar observations have been reported in Australia, New Zealand, Scandinavia, and the USA (Conclusion).

( Bulman, Dept. of Community Dental Health, Dental School, London Hospital Medical College, London, England)

Examining the above-cited text, we find that it is argumentative. The field of the text is medical, the mood is written to be read, and the tenor is semi-formal. As regards the structure of this text, we understand that the beginning of the text is a thesis cited to be opposed. The function of this step is to define what is to be opposed. In the second step in the argumentative procedure, we encounter evaluation, i.e., substantiation and here the text producer tries to prove his thesis. The third step is opposition, by which the text producer refutes what he has said at the beginning. The last step is the conclusion. This step has two functions: to summarise what has been said and to present the objective of the editorial writer. At this point, the addressee is invited to reject the refuted view and to accept what is presented. We realise that the text producer is following the give-and hide technique. At the beginning, he tries to convince us that Britain was not doing enough in the field of dental care because "30% of the adult population was edentulous". But later he opposes what he has said when he says "yet the U.K. like other countries ... now seems to be experiencing a minor revolution". Here, it is realized as a case of situation management. He keeps himself within a 'trade-off escalation', i.e., a balance between efficiency (minimum effort)



and effectiveness (maximum effort) which will have to be appropriate to the situation and to the participant's role (de Beaugrande: 1981, 165).

## **Section Two:**

### **Language and Ideology:**

In what follows, my intention is to sketch some of the more significant features of the theory of ideology and its relationship to language that has been developed in the Marxist tradition, broadly conceived. This discussion is an attempt to lay out the major conceptions involved in forging the subsistent links between language and ideology as social praxis.

In this section, my ultimate objective is to investigate the articulation of ideology in and through the actual use of language as it occurs in significant domains of social life, such as the mass communication media, particularly news reporting.

#### **2.7. Marx's Conception of Ideology:**

The issues discussed in this section centre upon the nature of ideology, its scope and how the classical Marxist understood it. Ideology, in the Marxian sense, can mean:

1. a system of beliefs characteristic of a particular class.
2. a system of 'false' beliefs which is counterposed to true scientific knowledge.
3. the general process of the production of meaning and ideas.

It is this last point which I will make reference to here. In general, ideology may be defined as a specific set of beliefs and views we all

produce, hold, and change according to certain principles which are created by themselves or imposed upon us from the outside. This production is taking place at all times, whether perpetuating existing ideological structures or creating new ones. However, we are not aware that this process of ideological production is going on. It should be made clear at the outset that logic and mathematical propositions do not fit the category of ideology, since ideology refers to belief systems. Ideology, furthermore, is collectively produced and not individually created although individuals may generate new ideological conceptions which are later incorporated into the wider ideological framework. Ideology, then, is a 'social product': it is connected with the very life-activity human beings undertake. Marx makes this point clear in the following passage:

"The production of ideas, of conception, of consciousness is at first directly interwoven with the material activity and the material intercourse of men, the language of real life. Conceiving, their being, the mental intercourse of men, appear at this stage as the direct efflux of their material behaviour. The same applies to the mental production as expressed in the language of politics, laws, morality, religion, metaphysics ... etc, of a people. Men are the producers of their conceptions, ideas ... etc, as they are conditioned by a definite development of their productive forces and of the intercourse corresponding to these, up to its farthest forms. Consciousness can never be anything else than conscious existence, and the existence of men is their actual life process. If in all ideology men and their circumstances appear upside down as in a camera-obscura, this phenomenon arises just as much from their historical life process as the inversion of objects on the retina does from their physical life process "(1974: 22). The statement of this passage is



basically correct. That is, ideology is, indeed, grounded in the material world and it does arise out of practical needs. But, as we shall see later, there are some additional significant considerations to be investigated and incorporated in a more concerted theory of ideology. For the time being, we shall expand on Marx's position. Marx creates the link between ideology and consciousness, and their structural relation in capitalist society he calls 'alienation'. He shows that ideology in these alienated conditions, i.e., that human beings are separated from their means of production and from themselves, can be nothing other than the expression of that alienated existence. He speaks of 'false' and 'revolutionary consciousness'. Revolutionary consciousness, if one possesses it, will bring one to realise the exploitative nature of capitalist relations and will provide motivation to alter the oppressive conditions. The proletariat is supposed to be capable of possessing such consciousness. On the other hand, the bourgeoisie is claimed by Marx to possess a 'false consciousness', because it will not be capable of seeing and projecting the exploitative nature of capitalism from which it benefits and which it sees to be just and equitable. The discussion of social consciousness becomes the most important focal point in the theory of ideology. Then, it is true that consciousness is included in the concept of ideology.

Furthermore, the construction is teleological: it creates a 'means-ends' structure. In order to create a new society based on egalitarian principles and equitable productive relations, it may be said that such a new society must have a revolution. What seems to be the message of Marx's proposition is that we strive to attain revolutionary consciousness so that we can implement revolutionary praxis. That is idealist thinking.

We know that ultimately Marx is not trying to argue against his own materialist conception of history, nor is he ignoring the dialectical nature of that historical process. We know that Marx's theory of praxis has to be his real stand on the issue of revolutionary activity. However, in dealing with the production of consciousness, Marx posits that there exists outside of human experience and, consequently, outside of the class struggle a consciousness that has its own genesis and expression: revolutionary or true consciousness.

It would, however, be significant to show that the categories of false and revolutionary class consciousness are inadequate for exploring what ideology and ideological structures are and how they are produced, perpetuated, challenged, and reconstructed within the social reality of daily life in capitalist relations. Therefore, what might be more fruitful in explaining what ideology entails is a theory of ideology constructed in socio-linguistic categories.

It may be argued that all people, regardless of class, engage in the production of ideology out of their material condition of existence. It follows, then, that the same people have access to this ideology, and that this access is made possible through the medium of language. Marx alludes to this fact in the following passage:

"Language is as old as consciousness, language is practical consciousness that exists also for other men, and for that reason alone it really exists for me personally as well; language, like consciousness, only arises from the need, the necessity of intercourse with other men" (Capital I, p. 29).

It is unfortunate that Marx did not develop the concept of ideology in the



context of concern with language. We will investigate how ideology can be freed from a discussion of ideas one holds in one's head and will develop a concrete theory of ideology through the medium of language, as the 'practical consciousness' of human beings. But before proceeding with our investigation, I would like to discuss another classical Marxist formulation of ideology introduced by Antonio Gramsci. His contribution to a Marxist theory of ideology, as we shall see, advances the concept of ideology by developing the notion of 'hegemony'.

### **2.7.2. Ideological Hegemony:**

It may be said that Gramsci's notion of hegemony is crucial in understanding the course the classical Marxist tradition takes in approximating to a theory of ideology. One issue which Gramsci raises repeatedly is the vast complexity of the relationship between state and civil society. Positivist Marxists have understood politics, ideology, and culture as 'reflections' of the material base, i.e., economics, and, consequently, have little sensitivity to these ideologies and the production of consciousness. Gramsci, on the contrary, observes the complexities of social and historical efflux. He states that "the claim, presented as an essential postulate of historical materialism, that every fluctuation of politics and ideology can be presented and expounded as an immediate expression of the structure, must be contested in theory as primitive infantilism, and combated in practice with the authentic testimony of Marx" ( Hoare and Nowell: 1972, p. 407).

It is this insight into the structure of society which allows Gramsci to transcend the more traditional view of hegemony in Marx and Lenin



which is according to Gramsci, "limited in the exclusive attention it paid to the role of force as the basis of ruling class domination; there was no understanding of the subtle but pervasive forms of ideological control, manipulation, and domination" (Boggs: 1972, p. 97).

With these factors in mind, Gramsci makes the distinction between the roles of 'domination', or direct political concern and 'hegemony', or ideological control. Boggs gives us an idea of the scope of Gramsci's notion: "By hegemony Gramsci meant the permeation throughout civil society which includes the whole range of structures and activities like trade unions, schools, the churches, and the family of an entire system of values, attitudes, beliefs, morality, that in one way or another supports the established order and ruling class" (1972, p. 97).

Hegemony, then, includes the concept of culture as a whole social process in which human beings create themselves and the concept of ideology in which a whole system of beliefs is the expression of a certain practical system. The ideology of the dominant class has hegemony over all other ideologies. In as much as ruling classes strive to perpetuate their power, status, and wealth, they seek to introject their whole legitimating belief system into the minds of the masses. Hegemony serves, then, to manipulate the entire range of human relations and justify deprivation.

Gramsci observes that revolutionary struggle has to possess the same kind of ideological hegemony if it is to be successful; that is, the success of a revolutionary movement will conclusively depend upon the character and range of the political consciousness that informs it. Generally speaking, however, revolutionary change can only occur in practice as a

process of consciousness transformation:

"It may be ruled out that immediate economic crises of themselves produce fundamental historical events; they can simply create a terrain more favourable to the dissemination of certain modes of thought, and certain ways of posing and resolving questions involving the entire subsequent development of national life"(Boggs: 1972, p. 184). This revolutionary transformation of society will not be, according to Gramsci, a result of mass spontaneity, but a result of revolutionary mass consciousness. This consciousness is above all intellectual and political daily struggle. According to Gramsci, "ideas and opinions are not spontaneously 'born' in each individual brain: they have had a centre of formation, of irradiation, of dissemination, of persuasion ... a group of men, or a single individual even, which has developed them and presented them in the current form of political reality" (Boggs: 1972, pp. 192-193).

Although Gramsci does not conceive of the socialist revolution as being spontaneous, he does, nonetheless, recognise the presence of spontaneous 'impulses' which he refers to as being transformed into action. He says "indeed, because by its nature it tends toward being a mass philosophy, the philosophy of praxis can only be conceived in a polemical form and in the form of a perpetual struggle. Nonetheless, the starting point must always be that common sense which is the spontaneous philosophy of the multitude and which has to be made ideologically coherent" (Boggs: 1972,p. 420).

It is clear that Gramsci advances the Marxist theory of ideology by expanding the concept, and , in doing so, he does free the conception of



consciousness to some extent. Gramsci speaks about ideology as existing outside of people's heads and operating within different structures. Despite these advances, it may be said that his discussion is still oriented to class identification.

It should be stressed that ideologies should be specified as sociolinguistic and cognitive systems. These systems might then be shown as being structurally analogous with the interests and imperatives of the strata of the capitalist system. Instead of attempting to illustrate these sociolinguistic systems on actual empirical 'classes', it would be preferable to analyse them more abstractly as systems of socio-ideological resources for use by anyone.

Some attempts have been made to examine belief systems through the investigation of language itself. Within the domain of language and ideology, the major contribution seems to have been most concerned with the works of Kress and Hodge, Van Dijk, Vološinov, Barthes, Sumner, Saussure and some others. For the purpose of this investigation, these works will be reviewed very concisely in the following pages.

## **2.8. Current Concepts of Language and Ideology:**

As has already been explained, I have discussed the classical views of ideology and hegemony in the Marxist tradition. I shall turn to review



the work of some modern linguists who have recently dealt with the concept of ideology entirely from a purely linguistic perspective. Discourse analysts and socio-linguists observe that language, as one of the major means of expression, may be seen as a loaded weapon in discourse and, in particular, in mass media, namely, news reporting. In support of this view, Vološinov states that "word is a two-sided act. It is determined equally by whose word it is and for whom it is meant. Each and every word expresses the 'one in relation to the 'other'. A word is a bridge thrown between myself and another" (1973, p. 19).

Hence, ideology appears to be a crucial phenomenon which must be discussed in connection with language, because ideology, so to speak, finds a resort in language. It is understood that ideology represents a level of meaning which can be present in all kinds of discourses, that is political, economic, religious, and social discourse.

From a linguistic point of view, bearing in mind the emotive sense of language, ideology is conceived of as an underlying stratum. Ideology is presented indirectly to addressees. It is, in this sense, inextricably interwoven with the texture of discourse. Therefore, ideology is seen as a sort of 'second-order system,' according to Barthes (1968: p. 90) who characterizes this hidden second level as the level of 'connotation' (secondary language) in opposition to the level of 'denotation' (primary or ordinary language) (1968: p. 90). At this point, we should mention that a similar approach of reasoning is maintained by Greimas under the terminology of 'practical level' (denotation) and 'mythical level' (connotation) (Larrain: 1979). To quote Larrain's statement, "the denotative level expresses the primary meaning of a discourse and

conceals second meanings that should be deciphered. The ideological analysis of a message, therefore, seeks to grasp the system of second meanings. It tries to decodify the denotative reading, to reveal a connotative world, a mythical level" ( 1979: p. 133 ).

Moreover, revealing the intrinsic relationship between language and ideology, Kress claims that "ideological systems exist in and are articulated through language" (1983 a: p. 124). He, furthermore, stresses on the imperceptibility of this relationship, saying "linguistic and ideological processes do not exist as distinct phenomena; they are indistinguishable. They are one and the same in substantial terms" (1983 b: p. 45). At this point, we may suggest that ideology constitutes a sort of hidden structure in every discourse which is conveyed and received wrapped up in an external and opaque form. Hence, this ideological structure cannot be consciously realised by the recipients.

Furthermore, in his famous article on 'language and ideology', Kress seems to draw the demarcation line which links ideology with language. This connection or 'articulation' can best be understood through the examination of language. According to Kress , "the connection between language and ideology exists at many levels: at the lexical, and at the grammatical-syntactic level" (Van Dijk: 1985, p. 30). Here, we should emphasise that ideology, at the lexical level, is presented implicitly beneath the structure of the text. It is , therefore, a basic means of employing the vocabulary as a way of disguising writers' ideological significance within discourse.



## **2.9. The Structuralist's Conception of Ideology:**

To structuralists the essential character of ideology is intelligible only through its structure. Because, as they believe, isolated images or representations do not make ideology; it is their system, their mode of combination and disposition which give them sense and function. For this reason ideology is determined, first and last, by its structure. It may be argued that structuralists want to free Marx from a conception of ideology as 'pure speculation' or 'false consciousness'. The exponents of this school claim that ideology has a material existence which determines the subject. According to Althusser, "ideology thus appears as a certain representation of the world, which links men with their conditions of existence and with other men. The function of ideology is, therefore, to secure cohesion among men and between men and their tasks" (Larrain: 1979, p. 155). Althusser, moreover, describes ideology as a cement which introduces itself into all parts of the social building, making possible the consolidation and cohesion necessary for its maintenance. Therefore, ideology is an essential element of all societies as it secures the fulfilment of certain essential social tasks (Larrain: 1979).

Armed with such information, we may deduce that ideology is a structural feature of any society. Its basic function is the cementing of the unity of that society. It functions as a means of maintaining domination of one class over the others.

## **2.10. Socio-ideological Sign Functions:**



It will be argued here that a Marxist theory of ideology would also constitute a Marxist theory of language. This theory would initially have to address itself to forms of expression. Speech patterns and ways of talking would have to be shown as embodying belief system and attitudes about the world. Rather than attempting to correlate social classes with linguistic styles, the theory should be able to explain and show how ideology is manifest in society through language use, particularly in the media.

It may be said that a very extensive contribution, among others, to specifying the linguistic character of ideology is that provided by Vološinov. He sets out to develop a theory of language viewed as activity and practical consciousness rather than as 'individual consciousness' and 'inner psyche'. He argues that meaning is embedded in social action and founded on social relationships. He claims that " the only possible objective definition of consciousness is a sociological one. Consciousness cannot be derived directly from nature, as has been and still is being attempted by naive mechanistic materialism and contemporary objective psychology (of the biological, behavioristic, and reflexo-logical varieties). Ideology cannot be derived from consciousness, as is the practice of idealism and psychologistic positivism. Consciousness takes shape and being in the material of signs created by an organised group in the process of its social intercourse. The individual consciousness is nurtured on signs; it derives its growth from them; it reflects their logic and laws. The logic of consciousness is the logic of ideological communication, of the semiotic interaction of a social group" (1973: p. 13).

Vološinov is primarily concerned with the concept of the sign and the

notion of the social basis of semiotics in general. He states that "everything ideological possesses meaning: it represents, depicts, or stands for something outside itself. In other words, it is a sign. Without signs, there is no ideology" (1973: p. 9). Consequently, the study of signs is for Vološinov a study of ideology, and the philosophy of language is a philosophy of sign. This can clearly be shown in his words: "The domain of ideology coincides with the domain of signs. They equate with one another. Whenever a sign is present, ideology possesses semiotic value" (1973: p. 10). Vološinov also adds : "Every ideological sign is not only a reflection, a shadow, of reality, but is also itself a material segment of that very reality. Every phenomenon functioning as an ideological sign has some kind of material embodiment, whether in sound, physical mass, colour, movements of the body ... or the like " (1973: p. 11).

Barthes, as an outstanding figure in semiology, believes that ideological signs exist at two strata in discourse. He holds that " the distinction between language and speech provides two spheres which can be transposed to express two levels of any discourse or system of signs, the 'manifest content' and the 'latent content'. The manifest content is analogous to speech, while the latent content represents the underlying structure of the discourse" (Larrain: 1979, p. 133). To Larrain, the latent structure is equivalent to ideology. That is, ideology constitutes an implicit and hidden structure in every discourse.

Furthermore, Saussure views the sign as the very pivot of verbal communication and of any communication of meaning in general. For Saussure, "language is a system of signs in which the only essential thing is the union of meaning and sound images, and in which both parts of the



sign are psychological" (1959: p. 15). For Vološinov, a sign is a phenomenon of the external world. He also considers the sign to have ideological content and that "the word is the ideological phenomenon par excellence" (1973: p. 13). In this observation, Vološinov is alluding to the following: in the employment of words, in the performance of speech-acts in practical social contexts (in describing, in referring, in transmitting information ... etc), a speaker is necessarily actualising one of a multiplicity of possible worlds. The use of a sign, i.e., word involves at least an implicit selection from a variety of alternative possible articulators, whether the speech-act be describing, blaming, accusing, or any other activity.

Perhaps the issue on which Saussure and Vološinov are most diametrically opposed is Saussure's analytical divorce of language system 'la langue' from the speech-act 'la parole'. Saussure maintains that "in separating language from speaking, we are at the same time separating (1) what is social from what is individual, and (2) what is essential from what is accessory and more or less accidental" (1959: p. 14). Vološinov, on the other hand, makes it clear that the concrete utterance cannot be adequately apprehended without taking the system of language into account at the same time. For Vološinov, language is an active social instrumentality. Therefore, the fundamental message in Vološinov's work boils down to the following: language is social and connected to ideological structures through the sign, or word. Thus, ideology is perceptible in language use, and, consequently, may be grasped as a real function operating everywhere and at all times in social reality.

Having emphasised the necessity of addressing ourselves to language in its practical reality, as a means of specifying more clearly a theory of



ideology, we will investigate one attempt at connecting language use to social class. We will, then, analyse actual items of news reports in order to present some considerations about the manner in which language use operates and what kinds of connections may be made with the discussions in the above sections. We will hope to get an inkling about how ideological structures operate in actual language use, in particular, in news reporting.

### **2.11. Ideology and News Reporting:**

It is true that news reporters must present the news as being new and not routine. This, however, requires that they should have experience and skill in the field of journalism. Even though a news item is considered newsworthy, it does not mean that it will be interesting or different. Certain of these skills must then be called upon in order to reproduce news print that is not only informative, but also interesting, even stimulating or entertaining.

Before proceeding with the investigation, we should stress the fact that there have been some accusations against the media, whether in newspapers, radio or television, for bias in reporting the news. Hall suggests that "news values appear as a set of neutral, routine practices: but we need also to see formal news values as an ideological structure to examine these rules as the formalisation and operationalisation of an ideology of news" (The Glasgow Media Group: 1976, p. 346). Geis also maintains that "the fact that the way we perceive events will determine the way we describe them is of fundamental importance in

understanding journalism. It lies at the heart of the issue of bias in news reporting, for the lexical choices we make in describing a given event will, inevitably reflect a theory of that event" (1987: p. 66). Moreover, Kress claims that "the journalists' processing of events is ideological in effect and can be, most often is, political in intent and effect" (1983 b: p. 44). Furthermore, in a similar way of reasoning, Jalbert takes the line that news organisations engage in 'ideological production', claiming that "ideology is seen to be a routine feature of the social production of news stories which is congruent with political and economic interests, organised and unorganised" (Davis and Walton: 1983, p. 282). Hence, the media, according to these sources, present news in such a way as to maintain the prevailing hierarchical pattern of society. Miliband suggests that "the mass media cannot assure complete conservative attunement ... nothing can. But they can and do contribute to the fostering of a climate of conformity not by the total suppression of dissent, but by the presentation of news which falls outside the consensus as curious heresies, or even more effectively by treating them as irrelevant eccentricities which serious people may dismiss as of no consequence" (1969: p. 238).

These comments are highly pertinent to what we have been trying to deal with in the present discussion. Our task, then, is to examine the vast system of social communications. But this is impossible at the present time. Therefore, I shall confine my investigation to one aspect of mass media, that is news reporting. However, it must be approached in the form of a positive critique which will document and map out the codes exercised in the actual practice of news production. The Glasgow Media Group suggests that "by decoding, it is possible to show that the social and



professional assumptions which lead to particular frames of reference are not neutral images of reality. It is our assessment that most television (radio or press as well) journalists will readily admit that news stories, whether good or bad, are the result of much judgmental work. The very notion of news values itself leads many researchers and commentators to question the inferential frames of news ideology"(1976: pp.349-350).

### **2.11.1. Analysing News Reports: Some Examples:**

Before starting the analysis, which will give us an opportunity to illustrate some of the theoretical points we have been talking about, we must clarify one final point. It is not the purpose of this analysis to claim the truth about anything, because pure truth does not exist. All we have are reports which are considered to be worthy of publication, and we should make some observations and critical statement independent of truth-values. That is, it is not our task to determine the validity or falsehood of the reportage.

We may now proceed with the discussion of analysing some news reports about the tumult in Zaire, starting with an excerpt extracted from a Newsweek article:

#### **Massacre in Zaire.**

Zaire's president Mobutu Sese Seko stared through the window of a minning-company guesthouse in the shattered city of Kolwezi. The battle hardened president, a former army sergeant, put his hands to his face and moaned: 'Mon Dieu, they have smashed their heads in'. Inside the guest- house, 35 European men, women and children lay dead. They had



been herded into a room and executed by Katangan invaders before the attackers themselves were driven out of town by the French Foreign Legion.

The ghastly massacre in Kolwezi came hours before a gallant rescue effort. By late last week, it appeared that more than 100 white hostages had been butchered by Katangan rebels but that nearly 3,000 more had been saved by the French Legionnaires and Belgian paratroops who flew in, with American help, to prevent a slaughter that might have been even worse. Armed with Soviet weapons and apparently trained by Cuban advisers, the Katangans drove Zaire's troops out of Kolwezi and kept them out.

(Newsweek: 29.5.1978. p.

34)

Our first observation is that the text reads as if it were an eye-witness account of the events depicted. This adds to the believability of the report. It seems that the reporter is in the presence of president Mobutu (although this is not made explicit; here we may say that presupposition is at work) because he reports that Mobutu puts 'his hands to his face' and because he can quote him directly. This impression blends right into the report of the actual incidents: 'They had been herded into a room and executed ...' Why not 'It seemed as though...?' Why is the word 'herded' used, which implies that the people were treated as sub-human, as cattle; and that they were 'butchered', which maintains the metaphor, when we have no proof that this was indeed the method of operating. It implies further that the Katangan people should be seen as sub-human since they treated these '35 European men, women, and children' in this manner.

Another contrast may be drawn between the people occupying the 'guest-house', which creates for us a sense of peacefulness; provided by the tie we make with the conventional character of places such as 'guest-houses', the occupants thereof being unarmed, or even tourists, and the 'Katangan invaders' where the impression is one of oppression.

It is interesting to note that the Katangan people are also referred to as 'rebels'. The term 'rebels' seems to indicate that the people have an affiliation to the territory on which they are fighting. The term 'invaders' seems to indicate persons from the outside imposing force on the territory. Who are the Katangan people and where do they come from? Their version of these events is nowhere to be found.

A very important juxtaposition is drawn between Mobutu, described as a sympathetic observer-'he moaned'- and as being identified with the Zaire masses - 'a former army sergeant'- and the 'ghastly massacre' caused by these 'attackers'. We still have no hard evidence that the events constituted a 'slaughter'.

Furthermore, there is an obvious attempt by the reporter to concretize the Katangan people when he refers to them as the 'Katangans', which serves to imply that they are not worthy of nomenclature other than pejorative references as discussed above, while there are references to the 'French foreign Legion', 'French legionnaires', 'Belgian paratroopers' and 'Zaire's troops'.



In addition, we may observe that the reporter refers to 'Soviet Weapons'. We get the impression that there is a political and military tie with the Soviet Union, whereas we are told that there was some 'American help', which leaves us wondering what kind of help the Americans provided in the face of such a 'slaughter that might have been worse'. The contrast is made between the specific character of the word 'weapons' which carries with it aggressive connotations, and the open-endedness of the word 'help' which implies a kind of humanitarian commitment. However, the 'help' the Americans rendered could have itself consisted of weapons.

Our last observation about this article is that the Katangese account is excluded from the article, namely, that the Katangan people are indicted on the basis of the reporter's account of the situation.

It is clear that the reader of everyday material like this short excerpt is left with the task of performing cognitive operations on the material and making presuppositions that often create erroneous impressions about the world. These interpretations are affected considerably by the manner in which the news is presented.

We must stress the fact that the linguistic factors play a crucial role in how that information is distributed. The mode of category selection and the ordering of these selections may be seen as paramount, for they carry with them content and meaning, whether explicit or implicit, which create a message congruent with the belief system of the author or the ideology of the institution being evoked.

'Time' magazine published an article on the same topic as did



'Newsweek'. Here is an excerpt"

### **The Shaba Tigers Return.**

...An estimated 5,000 Katangese guerrillas of the Congolese National Liberation Front, which has been seeking autonomy for Shaba since Zaire gained its independence from Belgium in 1960, launched a deadly strike on the region from their bases in Marxist-run Angola. The rebels carried out cold-blooded executions, slaughtering at least 100 whites and 300 blacks, before they were driven from the city...

(Time: 29.5.1978, p.

28)

This report has a little more continuity, since the Katangese people are referred to as 'guerrillas' and 'rebels'. These categories, however, are juxtaposed to 'their bases in Marxist-run Angola'. The impression is given that Marxists condone 'cold-blooded executions' and the 'slaughtering' of people. There is also a subtle implication that a country espousing Marxism could not have a government, but could only be 'Marxist-run'.

We learn, however, that these Katangese people are members of the Congolese National Liberation Front, which gives them some political legitimacy, and seems to give them some purpose, unlike in the 'Newsweek' article which gave us the impression that these people were 'invaders' who performed acts of violence for no justifiable reason. Even though the 'Time' article attributes to them some purpose, let us consider another excerpt a little later in the same article:

They insisted that no 'Cubans' had come with them. Nonetheless,

guerrillas declared that their goal was not simply the liberation of Shaba from Kinshasa's rule but the ouster of Mobutu and the creation of a more radical government in Zaire.

(Time: 29.5.1978, p.

29)

The word 'nonetheless' implies that the Katangese people do not really have their own goals which they can justify but that the goals they express are really Cuban goals, which implies that Katangese people could not be capable of articulating such goals by themselves.

Let us turn now to another article in the 'New York Times' which addresses quite a different issue connected with the Zaire unrest:

**Bodies of 73 Found in Kolwezi to Date. American Worker is Among Dead. Toll of Foreigners is Lower Than Earlier Estimates.**

Kinshasa, Zaire. May 27 (AP)...

A Belgian team searching for Europeans killed in the Southern copper-mining centre of Kolwezi has found 73 bodies so far, officials reported today. A missing American was among the dead.

The number of Zairians killed in Kolwezi is still unknown though the French have estimated that at least 150 Zairians, both civilians and soldiers, died along with 200 rebels.

Officials have stressed that more European bodies may be found,

especially on the outskirts of town.

(The New York Times: 27.5.1978, p.

4)

This excerpt abounds in ideological inferences. The headlines state that '73 bodies were found'. Before we even get to the text, we are told that an 'American worker' is dead and the 'toll of foreigners' is not as bad as was anticipated. The first paragraph is concerned with the 'Europeans killed', and the 'missing American'. It is not until the second to last paragraph of the article that the Associated Press release becomes interested in reporting the 'Zairians' and 'rebels' casualties. The last sentence of the article returns us to the subject of 'European bodies'.

It may be said that the priorities of the reporter are clear. We are made to think, however unconsciously, that the death of one American worker has the priority over the others', i.e., '150 Zairians' and '200 rebels'. Another reporter became concerned with the events in Zaire and the casualties being reported. Here is the passage:

**Despite Black Toll, Zaire Killings Are Viewed As A White Bloodbath.**

Why is the massacre at Kolwezi, in which more than twice as many blacks were killed as whites, being perceived around the world as a white bloodbath?

Several reporters apparently broke into tears when they first went to the room and saw the bodies of 32 whites who had been shot to death.



(The New York Times: 27,5,1978, p.

4)

The question which comprises the first paragraph of the article is pertinent indeed. However, if the reporter were genuinely concerned with the effect such a reportage has, why would he/she leave the reader with the image of the '32 whites who had been shot to death?'

We presume that these kinds of reporting problems can be observed in every article, every newscast on radio or television.

This is ideology. It is the actual intercourse of which news reporting is only a part. Ideology is somewhat concretized if we view it as language use and production of communication in general:

"Ideology is not something 'out there' independent of its producers. In part, ideology is the common sense awareness of social processes. Common sense serves both to reveal and obscure what is going on. Most of what we or anybody else does is so rooted in our everyday practical activity that it is difficult, if not almost impossible, to bring common sense assumptions into view"(The Glasgow Media Group:1976,PP. 347-348).

Having decoded ideological structures , I may suggest that emotive senses of language manifest ideological significances. They converge upon one stratum, since both of them are rooted in the cognitive order. This confirms the fact that emotive language is inextricably interwoven with ideology for the purpose of affecting the recipient.

As a conclusion, we may assume that we have demonstrated how language use as it appears in print can contain ideological significances we are not aware of. The method of examining language use, indeed, provides for the perceptibility of ideology in the mass communication media, namely in news reports.

## CHAPTER III

### Section One:

#### Analysis and Strategies:

The aim of this section is to give a comprehensive analysis of the emotive use of language in English and Arabic news reports and editorials, demonstrating thoroughly strategies which express this phenomenon in both languages. For the sake of simplicity and clarity, I shall differentiate between four separate patterns of strategies: the first pattern will be described as semantic; the second as rhetorical; the third pattern as stylistic; and the fourth one as syntactical, each pattern comprising a number of strategies.

#### A. Semantic Strategies:

Under this heading, I shall be concentrating on two stages: first, emotive versus non-emotive meaning in parallel English news reports and editorials; second, emotive versus non-emotive meaning in non-parallel English and Arabic editorials. Then, a full account of the strategies will be introduced.

#### 3.1. Stage One:

It is worth noting, in this part of the analysis, that there is a difference between a news report and an editorial, despite the fact that both aim at conveying information to the public. In a news report, on the one hand,



we notice that the ultimate objective of the text producer is to relate information objectively. The text producer resorts to exposition. He is either describing or narrating events. In the case of descriptive exposition, the focus is on objects and relations in space, whereas in the narrative, the focus is mainly on events and relations in time.

On the other hand, the aim of text producers in English editorials as well as in Arabic is primarily to persuade readers of a point of view. Therefore, we observe that editorial writers use certain devices in their language so as to achieve an effect on readers or listeners. In this connection, emotive language may be conceived of as a method of persuasion. This reveals to a large extent that there is a kind of intentionality on the part of the writer beneath the texture of the text. Hence, we are permitted to conclude from this point that a text has an implicature. The term 'implicature' is introduced by Grice "to account for what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says" (Brown and Yule: 1983, p.31). Therefore, intentionality, as a result, is reflected implicitly through the manipulation of vocabulary, that is to say, the use of emotive language. Another feature traced in editorials is subjectivity as opposed to that of objectivity in news reports. Here, I mean in editorials, the text producer must have an intention in what he is writing about, i.e., it has a pragmatic dimension. Every text involves pragmatics which can be defined, according to Morris, as "the relations of signs to interpreters" (Brown and Yule: 1983, p.26). These words indicate that every text producer has an implied meaning within his text. In order to see how emotive language is manipulated by text producers, let us compare a news report to an editorial:

Text ( 1 )

Text ( A )

( news report )

He ruled out a royal commission into prison problems ...

A tiny minority of violent people.

Text ( B )

( editorial )

He dismisses talk of a royal commission to look into the crisis by saying ...

A small minority of very vicious people.

( The Guardian : 6.10 1987)

Text ( 4 )

Text ( A )

The Chinese Government airlifted hundreds of armed police into Lhasa yesterday and moved in to occupy the sacred Jokkary temple ...

Text ( B )

The first instinct of the Chinese Government after the riots in Lhasa has been to saturate the city with troops and armed police...

(The Guardian: 6. 10. 1987)

### Text 3

#### Text A

The Government is to prohibit members of the public...

#### Text B

The net result is that private owners will no longer be allowed to possess...

(The Guardian: 23. 9. 1987)

Comparing the above-cited examples, we notice clearly that the vocabulary in text A is different from that of in text B. The use of vocabulary is strongly manipulated in text B. The text producer uses words which are highly charged with emotions. The reason for doing this is simply to arouse emotional reactions in the readers and, subsequently, to make them accept the writer's point of view. To support this statement, Walpole (1941: p.40) maintains that 'a word is used emotively, when the writer/speaker uses it to reveal his own attitude toward the object about which he is talking.' From the comparison drawn above, we find that words in text B are motivated. In text 4, for instance, the reporter uses the phrase 'moved in' in text A, whereas the editorial writer opts for 'saturate' in text B. Here, we, as readers, realise that 'saturate' is semantically stronger than 'moved in', simply because it brings a metaphorical image to the mind of the receiver. Thus, the vocabulary in texts B is highly motivated. This motivation is fundamentally related to intentionality and subjectivity. Again, in the long run, it is primarily motivated for the purpose of displaying emotive language.



Another method which may help us to account for the choice of vocabulary is to consider language in terms of ideology. Ideology, however, is still one of the controversial topics of philosophical and sociological discussions of the last century. Its meanings range from the relatively innocuous 'system of ideas' or 'world view' to more controversial ones such as 'false consciousness' or 'ideas of the dominant, ruling class.' Any theory of language that is serious about the social function and effect of language cannot dispense with a social category such as 'world views'. Rather, it has to focus quite deliberately on the relations of language to the material condition of its uses and of its users. Therefore, it is essential, as Sumner maintains, to accept the category 'ideology' as "the term that covers concerns with forms of knowledge and their relation to class structure, to class conflict, to modes of production, and with forms of knowledge in specific social practices" (Sumner : 1975. p.6).

Discourse analysts observe that ideology finds its clearest articulation in language, though it is important to mention that ideologies find articulation in a vast range of differing social practices. Hence, according to Kress and Hodge (1978 : 30 ), "a powerful way of examining ideological structure is through the examination of language. The connection between language and ideology exists at many levels: at the lexical level and at the grammatical-syntactic level". At the lexical level, ideology is presented implicitly beneath the structure of the text. It is integrated, so to speak, with discourse. We may say, therefore, that text producers use their vocabulary as a way of covering their ideological significance within discourse.

### 3.2. Stage Two:

In this stage, I shall discuss the emotive versus non-emotive meaning in non-parallel English and Arabic editorials. As has already been pointed out, the main aim of text producers in English and Arabic editorials is ultimately to persuade readers to a point of view. For the purpose of persuasion, these text producers attempt to make their language emotive by using certain devices or strategies as mentioned previously. First, I shall demonstrate the use of emotive language as displayed in Arabic editorials:

Text 1 ... وقد كانت ومازالت شاغلة الدنيا والناس معاً

Text 8 ... كل بلاد العرب أوطاني ... القمة الموعودة

Second, I turn to trace the use of emotive language in English editorials:

Text 1

Horrific incident ... violent episodes ... awaken extreme concern ... seriously wrong ... tired explanations ... vicious people ... violently ... serious crimes ... senior figures ... violent prisoners ... blood flowing ... terrifying.

(The Guardian : 6.10.1987)

Text 2

So reports of Mr. Gorbachov's demise were greatly exaggerated ... public gaze ... reemerged ... the whole truth ... stirred up ... momentous ...

sharpened ... blunt ... itching ... appetite ...

( The Times: 1.10.1978)

Text 3

Saturate ... ancestral claims ... invasion ... normality ... mitigate ... racialism  
... imperial ... factionalism ... nationalism ... longevity ...

( The Guardian : 6.10.1987)

Text 11

Uncelebratory mood ... serious ... sombre ... enormous ... deep ...  
constructive ... ideal ... flagrantly ... overzealous ... growing ... like birds in  
a cage ...

( The Guardian : 3.11.1987)

Comparing the above-cited English editorials to the Arabic ones, we find that Arabic and English use emotive language as a feature of argumentation, ultimately leading to persuasion. This aspect of emotiveness is expressed, as shown in the comparison drawn above, by certain strategies such as intertextuality, repetition, figures of speech, and the use of emotively charged adverbials and adjectives. At this point, it may be claimed that one of the most important strategies is the use of rhetorical expressions in English and Arabic. In Arabic, for instance, we notice that text producers depend mostly on adjectives and adverbials to make their language more affective. To illustrate this idea, let us consider the following text: Text 6

تجار الحرب ... المقاومة اللبنانية الباسلة ... بشكل تراجيدي ... جسد لبنان  
الجريح ... نرف المزيد من الدماء وحصد المزيد من الضحايا ... السلام  
والهبة ... وطناً واحداً ... (الوطن: 1487/1/2)



As for English editorial, the same thing applies. For instance, let us consider the following texts:

Text 1

violent ... seriously ... terrifying ... vicious ...

( The Guardian : 6.10.1987 )

Text 3

massacre ... catastrophically ... lethal ... admirable ... significant ...

( The Guardian : 23.9.1987 )

In the light of the above-cited examples, it may be said that the use of rhetorical expressions is to a large extent common to both English and Arabic. This reveals that emotive language is employed in both languages for the purpose of evoking feelings in the receivers.

To continue the discussion, I will try now to illustrate with examples the strategies which express emotive language in English and Arabic editorials.

### **3. 3. Intertextuality in terms of Semiotics:**

Intertextuality, like repetition, is conceived of as an important means of evoking emotive language in the readers. It is not easy to bring about an emotional effect on the reader, unless some affective expressions are

used for that purpose. Intertextuality, as defined by de Beaugrande (1981: p. 182), "concerns the factors in which the production and reception of a given text depends upon the participant's knowledge of other texts. This knowledge can be applied by a process known as Mediation, that is the extent to which one feeds one's current beliefs and goals into the model of the communicative situation. The greater the expanse of time between the use of the present text and the use of the previous texts, the greater the mediation. But it is smaller when we refer to specific texts, for example, works of literature. Mediation is also slight in activities such as replying and reporting". Text producers resort to the strategy of intertextuality, particularly in argumentative texts, because it fulfils a semiotic function to be exercised over the mind of the receivers.

Intertextuality, however, parallels semiotics since both reflect the knowledge of other occurrences. These occurrences, in turn, may be perceived as texts. Viewed from this perspective, it might be said that semiotics complements intertextuality in the sense that it helps convey a stronger effect to the recipient. Before going any further into the subject of intertextuality, it would be quite appropriate to give a brief account of the value of semiotics and the sign as adopted by Saussure.

### **3.3.1. Basic Saussurean Notions in Linguistics:**

In this part of the analysis, I shall attempt to give an interpretation of some of Saussure's ideas, concentrating on two areas (a) the dichotomy between form and substance, and (b) the Saussurean notion of the sign.

### **3.3.2. Form, Substance and Levels of Abstraction:**

Traditionally European grammar has employed notions such as noun, verb, adjective, subject, object ... etc, and more recently terminologies have been developed which attempt to describe the phonological and semantic structures of natural languages. However, what is the nature of the entities which these various linguistic terms describe? first, let us consider phonology and the English sound 'b' as in 'bed'. If we pronounce this word 'bed' a thousand times and analyse the actual sounds we produce, we will almost certainly discover, provided we use sensitive equipment, that each one of the utterances of 'b' sounds different from all the others. Moreover, even if our equipment fails to pick up any differences in the sounds uttered we can still say that these different utterances are minimally different by virtue of having been uttered at different times and places. Yet probably all phonologists would say that each of these utterances of 'b' can be represented by - or, to use a technical term, is a realization of the same abstract entity, the phoneme /b/. Indeed, they would go further and say that this phoneme /b/ is the same 'b' which occurs in 'bad', 'dab', 'bright' ... etc, each of which also allows for a potentially limitless number of real pronunciations, i.e., can be realised in a potentially infinite number of ways.

Objects in the physical world are distinct from one another by virtue of the fact that they exist at different times and places. Abstract objects, however, exist in neither time nor space ( What is meant by abstract is precisely this: abstracted from considerations of time and space. Thus, there may be physical objects in the world existing at specific times and places which we can describe as beautiful. The notion beauty, however, is an abstraction, and as such is not limited to particular times and



places). How can we then define notions such as the English phonemes /b/, /p/, /t/ and /d/ with respect to one another? Saussure's answer was that such entities can only be defined negatively. That is to say the phoneme /b/ in English is defined simply and solely by its not being the phonemes /p/ and /d/ ... etc. The same holds true for all phonemes which stand opposed to one another in the language system. Such purely oppositional entities Saussure terms forms. These formal entities then stand in contrast to the real sounds uttered in speaking which are substances.

What holds true for phonology also holds true in other areas of linguistics. Let us consider in semantics, for example, the word 'table', or rather the particular meaning of the word table 'a flat horizontal slab or board supported by one or more legs, on which objects may be placed' ( Collins English Dictionary ). Clearly, just as the phoneme /b/ can be realised by an infinite number of different sounds, so this particular meaning 'table' can be realized by a potentially infinite number of different objects. Moreover, even if we were to confine ourselves to types of tables, instead of actual tables themselves, we could, no doubt, come up with a more or less open-ended classification of types.

Finally, the notion of a 'word' might be regarded as a Saussurean sign. Clearly words, just like phonemes, are not physical objects; any word can be pronounced in a potentially infinite number of different ways. The word 'either', for instance, can be said to have, two different 'basic pronunciations', that is to say realisations which are phonologically different, /i: ʒə/ and /ai ʒə/, each of which can be realised in a potentially infinite number of different ways. Thus, it is possible for a single word to have not only more than one 'basic pronunciation', but also

more than one 'basic meaning'. Therefore, just as the notion word cannot simply be equated with a single phonological form, neither can it be simply equated with a single 'semantic form'.

Viewed from this perspective, it will be seen that the notion word, like phoneme, or 'semantic entity', is an abstraction, and, as we would argue, must like these other entities be defined in purely negative or oppositional terms. However, it is in fact at a higher level of abstraction than the notions 'phoneme' or what we have termed 'semantic entity'. We might perhaps say that all semiotic entities are abstract but some are more abstract than others. This, I believe, is certainly the implication of a Saussurean approach to linguistics.

### **3.3.3. Semiotics and the sign:**

We have so far looked at a possible interpretation of Saussure without really discussing the central Saussurean notion of the sign. We have managed to do this by simply assuming the traditional tripartite division of linguistics into phonology, grammar, and semiotics. We must now, however, examine what in Saussurean terms is meant by the sign and by semiotic systems in general.

Let us define a semiotic system as a "system of conventions for communication". This definition, as will be seen later, is rather narrower than would be offered by many modern semioticians, particularly those influenced by the philosopher C.S. Peirce. First of all, it excludes natural phenomena or, to be more precise, it excludes natural relations,



conventional can here be taken to mean non-natural. Thus, semiotics in the Saussurean tradition does not attempt to deal with the fact that we can infer from the presence of dark clouds that it will rain soon. Secondly, it excludes conventional phenomena whose purpose is not communication. Thus, it does not deal with the fact that we can infer from a particular style of shirt which we know to be popular in the Middle East that the wearer is possibly at least from that part of the world. The reason for this is that shirt styles are conventional but the purpose of the conventions of fashion is not to give information about the wearer. We may compare here the natural example of sandstone. We associate a particular type of stone with a particular area in which it is typically found, just as we associate a particular style of clothes with the inhabitants of a particular area who typically wear them.

Saussure characterises the sign, which I believe should be regarded as the dominating entity in semiotic systems, as a conjunction of signifier and signified. Later, Hjelmslev defines it as a biunity of expression and content (Hawkes 1977, p.123 ). Since this latter terminology has greater currency we shall adopt it in what follows.

The notion that the sign is a biunity of expression and content means that it is to be associated primarily neither with the entities of semantics nor with those of phonology, but with both simultaneously. It should now be clear why we describe the 'word' as a linguistic sign. We should perhaps add here, however, that we do not think that the word should be considered the only linguistic sign. Rather, it is possible to define sign in such a way that signs can consist of signs. The sign, then, is both a biunity of expression and content, and purely abstract or formal in



nature. This implies that expression and content are not two different things, but rather two aspects of the same thing.

The reason why the sign is to be associated neither with physical realisation nor with meaning independently but has to be established in such a way that it makes equal reference to both, has to do with the basic Saussurean notion of semiotics. Semiotics, for Saussureans, as we have noted, has to do with the establishing of links between physical forms and meanings which would not, in the natural order of things, be associated with one another. The sign can be viewed as the embodiment of this principle of the link, and, as such, necessarily stands in one sense, in the middle between physical realisation and meaning.

#### **3.3.4. Different Approaches to Semiotics:**

Semiotics may be defined as "the science of signs" or "the branch of science concerned with signs" or the like ( cf. semiotics in Crystal: 1985), just as physics can be defined as "the branch of science concerned with the properties of matter and energy and the relationships between them" (Collins English Dictionary ). Unlike physics, however, semiotics is not a single unified science. Rather, there would seem to be almost as many approaches to semiotics as there are semioticians.

The notion of semiotics, that is the study of signs, goes back to the ancient Greeks. Semiotics as currently practised, however, may be said to have two originators, Ferdinand de Saussure and the American philosopher C.S. Peirce. This dual origin of modern semiotics is a major historical reason for the diversity of current approaches.

( a ) The Saussurean Approach:

As we have argued, it is not possible to discuss Saussure without interpreting his ideas in some way, because he himself did not produce any coherent theory of semiotics. We have proposed a basic Saussurean definition of semiotic system as a "system of conventions for communications".

For the sake of completeness, we shall now look briefly at the notion of system. Malder in his postulates defines a system as a "self-contained set of features with a common purport". We must reiterate that this definition represents no more than one possible interpretation of Saussure. However, in terms of it, we should note the following:

1. system does not imply more than one feature. Thus the simplest possible semiotic system is one in which a particular feature is simply opposed to its absence. This would be exemplified by a system of traffic lights involving only a single green light which could either be on or off - on signifying 'go' and off 'stop'. We could perfectly adequately describe this system as having only the single feature 'green', the signification of which was 'go'. No light and the signification 'stop' could simply be regarded as the 'zero state' with which 'green' contrasted.

2. system does not refer to 'tokens' which typically occur together in the real world. Thus, certain hand gestures may typically co-occur with speech, and the two often contribute to the overall communication simultaneously. They do not, however, form part of the same semiotic

system, since, apart from anything else, either of the two is possible without the other.

#### ( b ). The Peircean Approach:

Saussure is difficult to understand partly because any attempt at understanding is simultaneously an interpretation. Peirce is also difficult to understand because he was first and foremost a philosopher, for whom semiotics was defined in terms of an overall philosophy.

I shall confine myself here to attempting to give some idea of Peirce's notion of the sign, and his distinctions between various types of signs.

#### 3.1.5. Peirce's Notion of the Sign:

Peirce's notion of the sign, like that of Saussure, is triadic. Recall that for Saussure the sign has two aspects, the signifier and the signified, or following Hjelmslev, expression and content. The entire model, moreover, is a pure abstraction in the sense that it does not represent real phenomena, but rather classes, or sets, of real phenomena. Thus, the word 'stop', considered as a word, is not to be identified with any particular utterance of 'stop', but represents all such utterances equally.

For Peirce, the sign is not a "biunity of expression and content", but "Something which stands to somebody for something in some respect or capacity. It stands for something ( its object ); it stands for something to



somebody ( its interpretant ); and finally it stands for something to somebody in some respect ( this respect is called its ground )" ( Hawkes : 1977, p.127 ). The first of these 'something's Peirce calls the 'interpretant', and the second the 'object' which is the sign itself. We note that the object for Peirce would seem to be what is commonly now called the 'referent', that is to say the thing referred to. The interpretant, however, is not really parallel to the Saussurean or Hjelmslevian notion of physical substance as the realisation of expression. Rather, it would seem to be the mental event or state of taking cognizance that something is labelled in a certain way ( cf. Harvey: 1982, p. 28).

As has already been mentioned, all signs consist of a signifier and a signified, but the relations between these two elements vary: in the icon, there may be actual resemblance between sign and object or signifier and signified. For example, a painting has an iconic relationship to its subject in so far as it resembles it; in the index, the relationship is causal. A knock on the door, for instance, is an index of someone's presence and smoke is an index of fire; and in the symbol, the relationship between signifier and signified is arbitrary and conventional. For example, the utterance of the word 'tree' is a symbol of the tree and red signals 'danger' or 'stop'.

From Peirce's and Saussure's theories, as discussed earlier, we may infer that all texts are regarded as signs related to other signs. At this point, Scholes ( 1982:p.15 ) maintains that " a text always echoes other texts". This also substantiates Kristeva's statement ( cited in Hawkes : 1977, p.144 ) that "no text can ever be completely free from other texts. It will be involved in the intertextuality of all writing". To illustrate the above-

cited points, let us examine the following examples extracted from Arabic and English editorials:

### Text 1

وقد كانت وما زالت شاغلة الدنيا والناس معاً ... (الشرق الأوسط:  
( ١٩٨٧/٩/٢٢

It should be understood from the above excerpts that Arabic text producers use intertextuality in their argumentative texts in order to bring about this feeling of emotiveness. For instance, text 1 :

وقد كانت وما زالت شاغلة الدنيا والناس معاً ...

contains intertextuality, in alluding to al-Mutanabbi. Again, text 3 :

لأمة أسعدتهم بعد شقاء وأمنتهم بعد خوف وأطعمتهم بعد جوع ... (الشرق  
الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/١٠/٧)

does contain intertextuality, because it reminds the reader of the Holy Qur'an.

Similarly, English text producers use the element of intertextuality in argumentative texts so as to arouse emotions in their readers. This can clearly be seen in the following examples:

### Text 2

So reports of Mr. Gorbachov's demise were greatly exaggerated.

Whether he was telling the whole truth remains unclear.

( The Times : 1.10.1987 )

Each one of the above-cited examples is a text, constituting a sign related to other signs, i.e., intertextuality. For instance, the text: so reports of Mr. Gorbachov's demise were greatly exaggerated, reminds the receiver of the well-known remark: "reports of my death are greatly exaggerated" by Mark Twain. In the second text, again, the words: the whole truth have intertextuality. They remind the recipient of the oath sworn in a court of law ... "to tell the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth".

It appears from the foregoing discussion that intertextuality is used in both English and Arabic editorials for the purpose of evoking emotions. This may presumably be attributed to the subjective element of text producers which entails persuasion through stirring emotions. As regards news reports, both English and Arabic, it is clear that the strategy of intertextuality is not employed in these samples. This exclusion of intertextuality, as we remark, is mostly due to the objectivity of the reporters whose ultimate aim is to convey information to the public.

#### 3.4. Intensifiers:

Structure as defined by Halliday and Hasan is a unifying relation. They maintain that "the parts of a sentence or a clause cohere with each other, by virtue of the structure. Hence they also display texture" ( 1976:6 ). Again, Hatim ( 1984 ) states that a basic hypothesis in negotiating text



structure is that "context determines the text's hierarchic organisation". Texts are realised by smaller entities called 'supra-sentential entities' which are, in turn, realised by 'elements' - that is to say clauses or phrases each of which realizes a set of communicative intentions. For example, some supra-sentential entities set the scene and others substantiate the scene set. By doing this, they fulfil a rhetorical function and reflect the pragma-semio-communicative conflation aided by texture. Texture is a deeper level of structure negotiation. It is the way the various elements of discourse hang together and establish connectivity, i.e., cohesion. When we examine the various texture devices, we find that these devices make elements of discourse hang together in a different manner. These texture devices include reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunctions. Among these devices, the usage of negation, particularly emphatic negative, may be considered as an aspect of texture in both English and Arabic structure. "Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence's meaning" (Crystal:1985:p.205). Negation in English is principally expressed by placing 'not' after the auxiliary verb, but there are other devices of expressing negation such as no, none, never, neither ... nor, or even verbs like deny, refuse, and reject. There are, however, some devices in English to express the emphatic negative and the most common forms are : just, only, nearly, merely and exclusively.

Likewise, negation in Arabic is mainly expressed by placing a particle of negation before the verb. The commonest of these are

لا، لن، لم، ما، ليس، لا ... إلا.

But, as in English, there are other means of expressing negation functioning as emphatic negative forms, such as Restriction **التقصر** and Exception **الإستثناء**. Restriction, on the one hand, can be done by three methods : first, negation and exception. For example,

SLT: **لا يعلم الغيب إلا الله .**

TLT: Only God knows the unknown.

Second, the particle **إنما** as a particle of Limitation or Restriction **الخصر**. It stands sometimes at the beginning of a proposition. It is always placed for focus and emphasis' sake ( Wright ; 1974, p.335), e.g.

SLT: **إنما نحن مستهزئون.**

TLT: We are only mocking.

Third, the coordination with the use of **بل، لكن، لا**

For example,

SLT: **ما قام زيد بل عمرو.**

TLT: Zeid did not stand up but Amr.

Exception, on the other hand, is an important aspect of emphatic negative in Arabic. The most common of these exceptive particles is **إلا**. For example:

SLT: **ما رأيت إلا حسنا!**

TLT: I saw only Hasan.

In addition to the particle إلا, there are other exceptive particles such as:

غير، سوى، خلا، حاشا، عدا، بيد.  
(انطاكي و فاخوري: ١٩٧٨، ص.٤٩-٥١)

In the light of the foregoing, forms of emphatic negative, as a means of expressing emotive language, may be generally treated as intensifiers. According to Quirk ( 1973: pp.211-219 ), "intensifiers can be divided into three semantic classes: emphasisers, amplifiers, and downtoners". Intensifiers are not limited to indicating an increase; they indicate a point on the intensity scale which may be high or low. Emphasisers have a general heightening effect. They include: clearly, definitely, actually, indeed, surely, obviously, really, plainly, for certain, for sure, of course, frankly, honestly, literally, simply, fairly, just, only, exclusively ... etc. Amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm. They include : maximisers such as absolutely, altogether, completely, fully, entirely, quite, thoroughly, utterly, in all respects, and most; and boosters like badly, deeply, greatly, much, so, well, heartily, violently, a great deal, a good deal, a lot. Finally, downtoners have a lowering effect. They include: minimisers such as hardly, little, and scarcely; and approximators such as almost, nearly, as good as, and all but.

Intensifiers as an aspect of texture occupy an important place in the structure of the sentence. The use of this aspect provides a means for manipulating word order. It also gives rise to syntactic and semantic



constraints in the structure. These are mainly related to the variable position of such devices. In this respect, in order to trace the various positions of emphatic negative devices, we have to make a distinction between these particles when they are used as adjectives, adverbs, or conjunctions. For instance, the device 'only' as one of the most common emphatic negative particles in English, rendered in Arabic as

فقط ... فقط

can be used in different positions, giving rise to various meanings. It can be used as an adjective and here its position precedes the noun, for example:

He is the only man for the position. It can also be used as an adverb, i.e., a form of emphatic negative, as in : They want the bus only for an hour.

Furthermore, 'only' can be used as a conjunction meaning 'but'. For example: He is always ready to promise help, only he never keeps his promises.

In general, there are, according to Eckersley (1977; pp. 261-268 ), three positions for adverbs in a sentence:

1. Front-position, that is to say as the first word in a sentence. In this position, we find adverbs like only, just, and merely. For example:

( a ) Only one solution remains and that is to dispense with freedom.

( b ) One solution remains and that is to dispense with freedom only.

various positions, 'only' creates grammatical changes in the structure of the sentence. At this point, it should be stressed that semantic and syntactic changes, created by an intensifier like 'only' for the sake of emphasis and focus, must be reflected in the process of translation. The translator must take into consideration that emphasis and focus laid on a specific part of the sentence must be reflected in the target language text.

2. Mid-position adverbs, coming before the verb. An important group of mid-position adverbs includes the adverbs of frequency, such as just, almost, nearly, hardly, and seldom. The usual position of these adverbs is immediately in front of the principle verb, for example:

I almost forgot to tell you this. But these adverbs can also be used between the auxiliary and the main verb. For example:

I had almost made the same mistake again. 'Such adverbs can be used in front-position in spoken English, but they cannot be used in end-positions.

3. End-position adverbs, that is those constituting the last word in a sentence. This kind of position is the most natural for adverbs; the only adverbs that cannot be used in the end-position are negative adverbs like hardly and scarcely and degree adverbs like just and almost.

Some adverbs like 'only' can occur, as stated earlier, in various positions in the sentence, expressing a difference of meaning. 'Only' goes immediately next to or usually before the word it qualifies, for example:

(a) She would see her father only on a Friday.

(a) She would see her father only on a Friday.

(b) She would only see her father on a Friday.

(c) She would see only her father on a Friday.

On examining the various forms of intensifier, certain points may be traced: firstly, the emphatic negative, as a form of intensifier, is used in English as well as in Arabic to indicate focus and emphasis. It restricts the meaning in question in such circumstances. For example:

I phoned only Mary.

Here, 'only' restricts the action of phoning to one person. Mary and nobody else. We do not add the meaning lexically but we imply it. Therefore, 'only' implies focus and emphasis since it is a limiter. Secondly, a new form of emphatic negative can be used, that is 'not only ... but' in English, rendered in Arabic as **لا فحسب...بل**.

SLT:

This not only bears witness to the events and victories of that war, but also to the role of the word in it.

TLT:

**لا شاهدأ على هذه الحرب وقائعها وبطولاتها فحسب، بل شاهدأ على دور الكلمة فيها.**

We notice in this example that the two forms of emphatic negative are



equivalent in both languages.

Thirdly, one important point to be noted is that the device 'only', as an intensifier, is the commonest particle in English in addition to other devices such as just, merely, exclusively, almost, few, and little. Similarly, in Arabic we find that the construction لا...إلا

the counterpart of 'only' is the commonest restrictive expression as well. But here I would like to distinguish between two cases when negation is not explicit. On the one hand, when an emphatic negative is used implicitly in Arabic it is used explicitly in English. For example:

SLT:

وما دامت شركات التأمين عاجزة عن إدارة هذه الابنية...

TLT:

As long as insurance companies were no longer able to administrate these buildings ...The word عاجزة (no longer able) contains a negative sense. It is , therefore, translated explicitly by using 'no'. On the other hand, when the emphatic negative is explicit in Arabic, it is used implicitly in English. For example:

SLT:

لا يمكن للخطة ان تؤتي ثمارها إلا على المدى البعيد.

TLT:

The plan can bear fruit only in the long run.

The expression لا...إلا which is a means of explicit negative in Arabic is rendered implicitly in English by the use of 'only'. Fourthly,

intensifiers are used as highlighters of evaluativeness. Evaluativeness, particularly in argumentative texts, is used by text producers to generate emotive language. Here, evaluativeness is aided by forms of intensifier which give the text a textual value. For instance, the emphatic negative is an aspect of managing. In this respect, according to de Beaugrande (1981:p.165) two kinds of managing can be distinguished : situation monitoring where the dominant function of a text is to provide a reasonably unmediated account of the situation model and situation management , where the dominant function is to guide the situation in a manner favourable to the text producer's goals. Hence, monitoring is done when the situation fails to match expectations, so that the text producer has to resolve discrepancies, whereas managing is described as a 'trade-off.' There should be a balance between efficiency, i.e., minimum effort and effectiveness, i.e., maximum effort that will be appropriate to the situation and to the participant's roles.

From the examination of certain samples, it appears to me that intensifiers are employed by text producers in both English and Arabic editorials. For example, in English editorials, we may consider the following texts:

#### Text 1

They respond violently to a regime which they find harsh. This is manifested not only by prison reformers but by governors and prison officers.

(The Guardian : 6.10.1987)

Text 6

The elected government which was overthrown last May, was not entirely elected by ethnic Indians.

a great deal of uncertainty still clouds the future of Fiji.

(The Times : 30.9.1987)

In Arabic, we can offer the following editorial samples:

Text 2

طبعاً كانت كلفة "المثرو" باهظة لكن الفائدة منه لا تقاس. لكن المسيرة  
طويلة بالتأكيد.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١/١/١٩٨٧)

Text 6

وتجار الحرب والطائفية لا يريدون للحرب الاهلية اللبنانية أن تتوقف فهم  
لا يعيشون إلا على الحرب و الطائفية.  
(الوطن: ١/٢/١٩٨٧)

As regards news reports, the strategy of intensifiers is not used in Arabic news reports, while in English it is amply used. This can clearly be shown in the following examples:

Text 2



At a heated meeting with the Soviet media representatives on September 16, Mr Ligachev is reported to have clashed openly with the most progressive Soviet editor, Mr Yegor Yakovlev of Moscow News.

(TheTimes:1.10.1987)

### 3.5. Adjectives:

The traditional definition of an adjective is a "word used to describe or give more information about a noun", or rather a fuller definition as "a word that qualifies a noun, adds to its meaning but limits its application" (Eckersley 1960 : 64 ). Adjectives, since they form an essential constituent in the sentence, are used by text producers for the purpose of giving 'colour' (Wallace: 1981) and freshness to a text. They draw the attention of the receiver because they aid in understanding and grasping the topic in question. Adjectives as seen by modern rhetoricians can be employed in discourse to give focus and prominence which help give rise to emotional language. At this point, it should be stressed that not all adjectives have the same degree of emotional value, and consequently the use of the adjective is not necessarily always emotional.

In the first place, a distinction must be made between two types of adjectives: the 'restrictive' or 'defining' adjective, which designates an individual characteristic, and which may therefore be used only to distinguish one object from another similar one, e.g.: the yellow apple, and the 'descriptive' or 'impressive' adjective (Charleston: 1960), which

designates one only of a number of qualities of one and the same object, in order to give this one quality special prominence, either because it has some special significance for the speaker, or because the speaker wishes to impress the hearer or draw his attention. This latter use of the adjective is undoubtedly to be classified as affective or emotional.

On the whole, stylists are agreed that the use of adjectives springs largely from an emotional attitude on the part of the writer or speaker. However, if the writer feels strongly concerning the quality expressed by the adjective, or if he wishes to make it especially prominent with the aim of impressing the reader, he may give it greater weight or prominence by:

(a) placing the adjective out of its normal position, in isolation from its noun, in front position, e.g.

(editorial) Text 3

True, there were some squawks yesterday from the wryly ...

(The Guardian: 23.9.1987)

(b) the use of intensifying or strengthening words. Charleston (1960:191) points out that "a certain number of adjectives have their own strengthening words, which have been termed the 'emphatic-complements' or 'emphatic-modifiers', e.g. snow white, blood red and brand new ... etc". It may be mentioned that a new type of descriptive and expressive adjectives is that formed with - like, looking and seeming, such as businesslike. We may say here that varying degrees of emotional

colouring may be attached to such formations.

(c) the use of conventional similes, i.e., an image known to all which brings out and illustrates the quality in such a way that the reader or hearer can visualise it more clearly. For instance, in English editorials, such adjectives are used, e.g.

(editorial) Text 5

In the Weald of Kent, the going rate for even quite a small tree can be as high as £100.

(The Guardian: 20.10.1987)

Furthermore, a simple adjective may be intensified by being used in the superlative form, e.g.

(news report) Text 7

Government figures, published yesterday show that Britain has the safest roads in Europe but that pedestrian casualties are among the highest.

(The Times : 30.10.1987)

(editorial) Text 3

but a Michael Ryan is probably beyond even the most stringent form of licensing.

(The Guardian: 23.9.1987)

(news report) Text 9

The Secretary of Defence has been one of the most influential cabinet officers during the Reagan presidency.

(Financial Times : 4.11.1987)



This kind of adjective is again found in Arabic news reports and editorials, e.g.

(news report) Text 1

و سيكون مقر الأمم المتحدة و هو أعلى منبر دولي...

(الشرق الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/٩/٢٢)

(editorial) Text 5

وهناك لوبي آخر أكثر أهمية و نفوذاً... وفي هذا الصراع الأكثر كلفة و  
مأساوية وألماً... (الشرق الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/٩/٢٤)

The so-called 'ornamental adjective', as observed by Charleston (1960: 192), "since the quality is inherent in the essence of the object itself, may be strongly emotional if used spontaneously". For example, the green grass, the red blood and so on. Presumably, this use of the adjective has a freshness, a vivid and lively quality which might be classed as emotional.

Finally, it may be suggested that the use of certain affixes is felt to convey to the reader some emotional attitude on the part of the writer. In this context, modern stylists remark that in certain contexts the prefixes sub,be,out,over,under,in,un,de,dis,il,ir,pro,super ... etc, may indicate some subjective emotive element, such as disapproval and depreciation. for example,

## Text 7

There have been trials in a few places with proper statutory limits, displayed in the familiar way by legal speed limit signs; but the official mechanism for establishing them is designed for more permanent speed limits and is too inflexible to cope with the changing needs of motorway repair crews.

(The Times : 30.10.1987)

Here, it should be admitted that these attitudes are not necessarily to be assumed from the use of the prefix as such, but added to certain words and in certain contexts, the emotional colouring is clear in the long run.

### 3.6. Speech Acts:

Speech acts, among the previous strategies, are conceived of as a major means of evoking emotions in the recipient. They constitute a communicative activity since one of the main functions of language is communication. Speech acts also show how utterances in discourse are manipulative on the part of the writer or speaker. This reveals that the receiver in such a situation is the victim of this manipulation. According to David Crystal ( 1985:285 ), "a speech act is a term used to refer to a theory which analyses the role of utterances in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication". Perceived this way, speech acts, furthermore, demonstrate how utterances not only communicate propositional meanings, but also achieve actions through speech such as promising, requesting, commanding, warning and more. It should be asserted that speech acts work in line with the communicative

contexts in which they are uttered.

Speech act theory originates in Austin's (1962) observation that while sentences can often be used to report states of affairs, the utterance of some sentences must, in specified circumstances, be treated as the performance of an act. He maintains that utterances can perform three kinds of act: the 'locutionary act' is the act of saying something. This is the aspect of language which has been the traditional concern of linguistics; the 'illocutionary act' is performed in saying something such as ordering, denying, and others; and the 'perlocutionary act' which produces effects on listeners. This has been the concern of rhetoric, the effect of language on the audience. Therefore, it is understandable that speech acts are centrally implicated in establishing and maintaining power relationships between addresser and addressee.

In the light of the foregoing points, it would seem that two factors are, to a large extent, involved in speech acts; implicature and intentionality. The term 'implicature', on the one hand, is introduced by Grice (1975) to account for what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says. In other words, the writer or speaker has unstated propositions between the lines of discourse. On the basis of this, two essential points can be made about implicature in this context. First, an implicature is not accidental, but the product of an intentional act on the part of the speaker. Second, the propositions that are implicated in any context may be consistent with one another and add up to a semantic system which establishes a set of ideological commitments invoked to underpin the discourse. This, however, may be interpreted as a way in which one speaker imposes an ideology on another. We would



like to emphasise the fact that implicatures, whether conventional or conversational, are pragmatic aspects of meaning.

Intentionality, on the other hand, is another metatheoretical notion that goes along with subjectivity and rationality. As Parret ( 1983:115 ) maintains, "intentionality can be defined as directedness toward the world". In this sense, it is externalised as a property of attitudes, be they epistemic ,i.e., knowledge, belief, desire, or behavioural, i.e., actions. It may be deduced here that intentionality is seen as involving will and consciousness on the part of the addresser.

It has been claimed by grammarians that simple sentences may be divided into four major syntactic classes: statements, exclamations, questions, commands or requests. According to Lyons ( 1981:190 ), " to make a statement is to express a proposition and simultaneously to express a particular attitude towards it". This can be seen in editorials and news reports in both English and Arabic. In the case of asking a question, " one expresses a proposition and simultaneously expresses one's attitude of non-commitment with respect to its truth-value" (Lyons 1981:191). Questions are used by editorial writers in both English and Arabic, e.g.

#### Text 5

What were we supposed to do with the foreknowledge?

(The Guardian: 20.10.1987)

#### Text 10

أين المنطقة من هذا التحول؟ وهل هو تقدم بالنسبة إلينا؟  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١٩/٩/١٩٨٧)

As regards news reports, reporters rarely resort to questions in English or Arabic.

In issuing a command, the speaker commits himself not to the truth, but to the necessity of some course of action. It is a commitment on the part of the addresser. "He expresses, not his belief that something is so, but his will that something be so" ( Lyons 1981:191 ). In making a request, "the speaker also expresses his will that something should be so, but he explicitly concedes to the addressee the right of non-compliance" ( Lyons 1981:191 ), e.g.

#### Text 5

But leave the weathermen out of this for a change. After all, suppose we had known when we went ...

(The Guardian: 20.10.1987)

Before going any further, it seems to me that a distinction between commands and requests must be made, since they create a sort of overlap in discourse. The imperative is used, as Jespersen ( 1933:294) points out "in requests, which according to circumstances may range from brusque commands to humble entreaties, the tone generally serving as a key to the exact meaning". When the imperative form is used, only the tone of the voice, the intonation, the stress, and in some measure the situation, can tell the hearer just what shade of command, prohibition, request, entreaty, or invitation is meant. The speaker is therefore likely to find some other means of indicating his personal mood or attitude more

explicitly. At this point, I shall introduce some possibilities in this connection. First of all, it should be said that various words or phrases may be added to an imperative to tone down the command such as 'just' and 'please'. 'Please' may be used to tone down a command. It may become merely a polite request in this way, e.g. shut the door, please.

'Will you' added after the command softens it to a request, e.g.

Get me a pen, will you?

A command may be formulated as a question introduced by 'will you', with the word 'please' appended. This makes the request unambiguous, e.g. Will you be back early this evening ? may be either a question or a request, and more polite as in:

Will you pass the bread, please?

It will be seen that the courteous 'please' need not necessarily be appended; it may introduce the sentence in such a way that the interlocutor is predisposed in the speaker's favour from the beginning; or it may be introduced after 'will you'. The command may be toned down to a yet milder, or more humble request by a similar use of 'would you,' e.g. Would you open the door, please?

Similarly, 'would you mind' may be used to introduce a request, e.g. Would you mind holding my bicycle?

Again, various formulas containing the word 'kind' or 'kindly' may be used to introduce anything from a formal or authoritative command, to a polite request, e.g. kindly open the window.



Furthermore, commands may be conveyed in the following forms, disguised as emotional statements:

1. of a 'wish', e.g. I wish you would be quiet! ,i.e., please, be quiet.

2. with 'can', often apparently permission, but in fact virtually a command, e.g.

You have deceived me. Isn't that enough?

You can shut up about it.

3. 'to be + to - infinitive', e.g.

You are to knock before you enter my room.

4. 'You will + infinitive,' a very cold and categorical command, e.g.

You will leave tomorrow evening.

5. 'Might', but not may, is also used to disguise a command as a request or suggestion in statement form, e.g.

You might leave us alone for a minute.

6. 'Must' may also be used to disguise a command, e.g.

You must go to the hospital at once.

7. 'Could' more often the politer, is also used in the interrogative form to make informal requests, e.g. Could you help me lift this box?

From the above-cited discussion, we may conclude that a speech act is a conscious attitude on the part of the addresser. We would like also to emphasise, depending on our data, that commands are used in English

editorials, but they are not used in news reports. Again, requests and commands are not used in Arabic editorials or news reports.

### 3.6. **Modals:**

The definition and description of modality has been one of the most pervasive and persistent problems in linguistics, occupying a position as well in related disciplines such as philosophy. It is claimed that the class of modals is, in many languages, semantically highly irregular and unpredictable; this has provided a polemical issue for linguists. Modals frequently have idiosyncratic conjugational types as in English for instance. Grammatically speaking, they may be considered as a separate class of their own.

Modality, the way I see it, reflects a psychological attitude on the part of the addresser towards the addressee. This is because modality establishes the degree of authority of an utterance. The term 'modality' subsumes a range of devices that indicate speakers' attitudes to the propositions they utter, and to some degree to their addressees. Fowler (1986:131) defines modality as "the grammar of explicit comment, the means by which people express their degree of commitment to the truth of the propositions they utter, and their views on the desirability or otherwise of the states of affairs referred to".

According to modern grammarians, the units of modal expression include such words as shall, will, should, would, can, could, may, might, must, ought to. Fowler (1986:131) maintains that "these modals signal

caution or confidence to various degrees. Here we notice that some modals are positive, such as 'must' and 'ought to' which have the additional meaning of necessity or obligation, so that a speaker using such a word to indicate his judgment of certainty or truth may express approval or a demand for the things that are being spoken of". This shows us that the use of modals, indeed, reflects to a large extent the intentions of speakers or writers. These modals also enable us to distinguish whether these intentions are subjective or objective.

On the basis of their function, modals can be categorised into specific groups. Quirk ( 1973 : 53 ) observes that "modals have various functions: some indicate ability, permission, and possibility like 'can' and 'could'; some indicate willingness, intention on the part of the speaker or obligation and necessity like 'should'; some indicate prediction and intention like 'will' and 'would'; and finally 'must' expresses obligation or compulsion and logical necessity".

What interests us in the discussion of modality is the investigation of the affective or emotional use of this phenomenon. At this point, I shall explore the emotive use of the following modal auxiliaries:

### 3.6.1. Shall and Will:

The use of 'shall' for the first person singular and plural, and of 'will' for the second and third persons, singular and plural has become a grammatical form to express pure futurity. Besides the use of 'shall and will' for pure futurity, there are other uses which are more subjective and affective, since they are expressions of the speaker's will, desire,



volition, and emotions ... etc. First of all, the original meaning of 'shall', that of obligation, compulsion, necessity, is still felt, and hence, it is affective, in the expression of the idea of fatal obligation or necessity, independent of human will, e.g. All shall die. 'shall' is used when an obligation results from human will, referring to future time, e.g. you shall have the book back tomorrow. 'Shall' in the first person of an interrogative sentence is often used to introduce a question about a person's wishes, e.g.

Shall I open the window?

Furthermore, the 'shall' may be stressed to denote strong emotion, e.g.

What shall I do for you?

'Will' is used as a command in statement form, e.g. You will pack at once and leave this house.

'Will you' may be added after an imperative e.g. Shut the door, will you?

'Will' is used in conditional clauses to express volition in the future, as the simple present indicative is sufficient to express the idea of pure futurity, e.g. I shall be very glad if you will do it for me.

Again, if the 'will' is stressed, some emotion is implied, e.g.

When will you be here?

In the first person, 'will' indicates determination as in, e.g.

I will be listened to. Again it indicates willingness as in ,e.g. You will come with me, won't you?

'Will', furthermore, may be used to denote probability and likelihood, e.g. This will be the book you are looking for.

### 3.6.2. Should and Would:

Most of the functions given above for shall and will apply to should and would, with reference to a past time sphere. The following emotional functions for should may be observed: first, to express surprise at some past occurrence or fact, e.g.

I opened the door and whom should I see but my long-lost brother.

Should may also express present obligation or duty, e.g.

#### Text 7

Particular attention should be given to the status of 'matrix' speed signs, described officially only as 'warnings' whereby a temporary limit is indicated by changeable electric light display, either overhead or at the road-side.

(The Times: 30.10.1987)

It should be stressed that some phrases such as I should say, I should think, I should imagine ... etc, are expressive of some emotion or special attitude on the part of the speaker. Moreover, 'would' may be used to express what was habitual or often repeated or to be expected in the past, often with an emotional undertone, sometimes almost synonymous with 'used to'.

### 3.6.3. Can and Could:

'Can' and 'could' may be treated as affective since they express permission. 'Can' may be used to make an informal request, e.g.

Can you give me your pen?

'Could' is used to imply a more modest, formal, or reserved attitude, e.g.

Could you tell me the time?

It should be stated that there are still many writers who refuse to employ this use of 'can' for permission, and who employ 'can' only to express ability or capacity.

### 3.6.4. May and Might:

It is almost impossible to distinguish the referential and emotional spheres in the case of 'may' and 'might', as a subjective undertone is nearly always possible. In most cases, it must be recognised, it is the context of situation that reveals just how emotive or affective the use of this verb is in the given context, and, furthermore, it is the linguistic intuition of the hearer or reader that makes him perceive it. The most common function of this verb is to express that the writer or speaker thinks something to be possible or conceivable, or that something is left to a person's discretion, i.e., permission and possibility, e.g.



## Text

The Soviet Union might overtake the West in strategic terms.

(Financial Times: 4.11.1987)

'Might' followed by a present infinitive may make a suggestion that amounts practically to a command, e.g.

You might help me clean the car.

### 3.6.5. Must:

'Must' may be used to express an immediate future, or ethical obligation, e.g.

## Text 4

Rioters must give themselves up by October 15 ....

(The Guardian: 6.10.1987)

'Must' is also used to indicate an assumption on the part of the speaker, e.g.

## Text 6

Col Robuka must have taken account of all this.

(The Times: 30.9.1987)

### 3.6.6. Ought to:

It may be used to denote the idea of duty, obligation, desirability, and moral obligation. 'Ought to' may also be employed as a mild or suggestive form of command or advice, e.g. You ought to go now.

In Arabic also the use of modals is resorted to for affective or emotional purposes. It is a common feature in news reports and editorials. This can clearly be seen in the following samples:

Text 2

وسوف ينقل "المترو" الجديد ٢٥ ألف مسافر في الساعة وحين يكتمل بعد حوالي تسعة أشهر سيرتفع العدد إلى ٦٠ ألفاً في الساعة.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١٠/١/١٩٨٧)

As a conclusion, we should say that by a skilful use of the various modal auxiliaries, by the use of the present, the past, as also by the use of the present or past infinitive after them, the writer or speaker is able to imply, with the finest differentiations and shades of meaning, his own mood, his attitude, and his feelings concerning his statement and the person spoken to or of. Again, it should be stressed that the choice of modals, first and last, is based partly on what might be called pragmatic grounds: that real world situations and social and other contextual assumptions must be brought into consideration, if we are to determine the correct and appropriate use of modals.

## **B. Rhetorical Strategies:**

### 3.7. Repetition:

In terms of rhetoric, it has been claimed that persuading a receiver of an idea, in some situations, requires an irresistible direct influence to be exercised over the mind of this receiver. Repetition, with its various types, provides a means of achieving this, as it urges the receiver to be influenced by what is repeated. It is perceived of as one of the characteristics of highly emotional language because it not only sets up a pronounced rhythm, but it also secures a special emphasis which largely contributes to the reinforcement of the proposition's certainty. Arabic is known for its repetitive style, but this feature of repetition has a rhetorical function according to Abu Musa ( 1977:261):

SLT:

"و لهذه القيمة البلاغية عمد القرآن الكريم في مواطن كثيرة إلى أسلوب التكرار ليوثق المعاني في النفوس فجاء المسند مكرراً في مواطن كثيرة جداً."

TLT:

"Because of this rhetorical function, the Holy Qur'an, in many passages, employs the repetitive style in order to establish firmly its concepts in men's minds. Thus the predicate is repeated in very many passages". Therefore, it may be said that repeating a word, phrase, or longer syntactic unit, exactly or with variations, results, as mentioned earlier, in a rhythmic pattern which sweeps the hearer or reader along. The rhythmic pattern also heightens the cohesion and uniqueness of the text,



and contributes to its emotive intensity, particularly if the text has conceptually a high emotive charge. Simultaneously, each time a word or phrase is repeated, its meaning is altered, the theme is developed and consequently reinforced in the mind of the receiver. The recipient reinterprets the meaning of the word or phrase in the light of accretion, juxtaposition, or expansion; thus repetition participates in making the utterances meaningful. Part of the effect of participating in sense-making and of being swept up by the sound and rhythm of language is emotional. The similarity between conventional and literary discourse exists because both seek not merely to convince recipients ( a logical process), but also to move them (an emotional process ). Emotion and cognition, following Tylor ( 1979), can be seen as inseparable. The cognitive effect of comprehension is facilitated by an emotional experience of interpersonal involvement.

### **3.7.1. Functions of Repetition in Discourse:**

Why is there repetition in discourse? Why do we waste our breath saying the same thing over and over? Why, for example, did I write the preceding sentence, which paraphrases the one before? The varied purposes simultaneously served by repetition can be subsumed, as modern rhetoricians remark, under the categories of production, comprehension, connection, interaction, coherence, information focus, and emotional involvement. All of these levels of discourse contribute to a large extent to a sort of congruity which in turn creates coherence of message and metamessage, of form and meaning.

#### **3.7.1.1. Production:**

Repetition enables a writer or speaker to produce language in a more efficient, less energy-draining way. It facilitates the production of more language, more fluently. It is seen as a resource for producing ample and overlapping information. Repetition, moreover, allows a writer or speaker to set up a paradigm and slot in new information where the frame for the new information stands ready rather than being newly formulated. Repetition, finally, enables a speaker to produce fluent speech while formulating what to say next.

#### **3.7.1.2. Comprehension:**

The comprehension benefit of repetition reflects that of production. The automatic nature of repetition and variation facilitates comprehension by providing semantically less dense discourse. If some of the words are repetitious, comparatively less new information is communicated than if all words uttered carried new information. This redundancy in spoken discourse allows a hearer to receive information at roughly the rate the speaker is producing it. That is, just as the speaker benefits from some relatively dead space while thinking of the next thing to say, the receiver benefits from the same dead space and from the redundancy while absorbing what has been said.

#### **3.7.1.3. Connection:**

Halliday and Hasan (1976) include repetition in their taxonomy of cohesive devices: it fulfils a referential and tying function. Repetition of

sentences, phrases and words shows how new utterances are linked to earlier discourse and how ideas presented in the discourse are related to each other. But this is only the most apparent and straightforward way in which repetition mediates between the writer and the material. This also exemplifies Halliday's and Hasan's identification of repetition or reiteration by "synonym, superordinate or general word" as a cohesive tie (1976: p.282).

In a more pervasive and subtle way, repetition evidences a speaker's or writers' attitude, showing how it contributes to the meaning of the discourse. In terms of theme and rheme ( Halliday: 1976 ) or of topic and comment, repetition is a way of expressing the theme or topic. In the term which Labov ( 1972 ) applies to narrative, which can be applied to all discourse, repetition is 'evaluative'. Here falls the function of repetition which is commonly referred to as emphasis, intensification, and information focus, which constitute cohesion.

Almost paradoxically, repeating the frame first foregrounds and intensifies the part repeated, then foregrounds and intensifies the part that is different. To quote Jakobson ( Jakobson and Pomersha : 1983, p. 103 ), "By focusing on parallelisms and similarities in pairs of lines, one is led to pay more attention to every similarity and every difference ...."

#### **3.7.1.4. Interaction:**

The functions of repetition discussed under the headings of production,



comprehension and connection all refer to the creation of meaning in discourse. Repetition functions on an interactional level, accomplishing social goals. It facilitates the linking of one speaker's ideas to another's, ratifying another's contribution. In other words, repetition not only ties parts of discourse to other parts, but ties participants to the discourse and to each other.

#### **3.7.1.5. Coherence as interpersonal involvement:**

By serving these and other functions in production, comprehension, cohesion, and interaction, repetition fulfils a need for interpersonal involvement. Repeating the words, phrases, or sentences of other speakers (a) accomplishes a conversation, (b) shows one's response to another's utterance, (c) shows acceptance of others' utterances and their participation, and (d) gives evidence of one's own participation. It provides a resource to keep discourse going. This may be the highest level function of repetition at which messages about relationships are communicated. The pattern of repeated and varied sounds, words, phrases, sentences, and discourse structures gives the impression of a shared universe of discourse.

In terms of language, interpersonal involvement is also accomplished. An explanation may be found in Becker's ( 1982 ) notion of an aesthetic response which he defines as an emergent sense of coherence: seeing how things fit together. He suggests that this experience also makes possible an emotional response. Perceiving meaning through the coherence of discourse, as well as perceiving oneself as coherent in the interaction constituted by the discourse, creates an emotional experience

of connectedness. This permits not only participation in the interaction, but also understanding of meaning.

Becker (1979: p.241) observes that "For an aesthetic response to be possible, a text must appear to be more or less coherent". The inability to perceive coherence results in misleading the recipients. An aesthetic response, then, is not an extra aspect of language, but its core. Similarly, Friedrich ( 1986: p.160 ) calls the aesthetic response the 'keystone' of his analysis of linguistic relativity.

Coherence is the goal when discourse succeeds in creating meaning through familiar strategies. The familiarity of the strategies makes the discourse and its meaning seem coherent, and allows for the elaboration of meaning through play on familiar patterns: the eternal tension between fixity and novelty that constitutes creativity.

On examining the rhetorical effect of word strings, it becomes clear that they have a specific discursal role and are not mere ornamental devices. When certain word strings are reiterated through an argument they tend to create an immediate emotional impact. This is largely achieved through an intense and forceful concentration of ideas and is aimed directly at exercising an influence over the minds of the recipients.

Repetition, in addition to other various types, is manifested through two major processes, parallelism and paraphrase ( Koch: 1981, p.166 ). The former refers to repetition of form, the latter to repetition of substance. Parallelism is a rhetorical as well as a text-building device. It keeps the recipient of the discourse to a definite viewpoint while at the same time



attracting new material to this discourse. Koch ( 1981: p.166) compares parallelism to a "ballad, where the refrain is received differently each time, because its context has changed. It is received differently depending on how much the recipient has learned in the meantime". Parallelism is the repetition of linguistic structure. It is the converse of paraphrase.

Parallelism, furthermore, is a device that we use when we are specifying or enumerating pairs or series of like things. This is clearly manifested in Corbett's statement by saying "parallelism is one of the basic principles of grammar and rhetoric. The principle demands that equivalent things be set forth in co-ordinate grammatical structures. So nouns must be yoked with nouns, prepositional phrases with prepositional phrases, adverb clauses with adverb clauses. When this principle is ignored, not only is the grammar of coordination violated, but the rhetoric of coherence is wrenched" (1965 : p.429 ). This pattern of structure, i.e., parallelism, contributes to the persuasiveness of the text in two ways: "firstly, repetition of an utterance implies emphasis of that utterance and secondly, repetition reinforces the coherence of the text which contributes to its acceptability" ( de Beaugrande:1981, p.54 ). To illustrate these points, let us consider the following excerpts:

## Text 2

وتمكنك السلبيات من العالم العربي بحيث أصبح أي حدث ايجابي يمر دون  
أي اهتمام أو أي تعليق أو أي توقف وكل بناء أو اجاز لم يعد حدثاً  
يستحق الذكر بل الحدث فقط هو ما كان أمراً سياسياً مثيراً ولو كان ضد  
النفس و ضد الأمة...  
إذ من ناحية هناك مشاريع التنمية التي يحلم بها و من ناحية أخرى  
هناك الديون التي ورثها و هناك أيضاً واقع الدعم الاقتصادي ...  
(الشرق الأوسط: ١٠/١/١٩٨٧)



Text (3)

ومصر الأمم المنون التي لاتقتل معارضا ، و لم تفصل رأساً من جسده و لم تطارد صاحب رأي...  
(الشرق الأوسط: ٧/١٠/١٩٨٧)

Text 4

لكن أي وحدة هذه التي تقوم على المراسلة و أي سيادة هذه التي تنتهكها  
الميليشيات و صبيان الأزقة والزواريب و أي أرض هذه التي ينتهك حرمتها  
الاحتلال الاسرائيلي...  
(الشرق الاوسط: ٢١/٩/١٩٨٧)

From the above-cited texts, it may be said that similar thoughts, not identical actions, are expressed in parallel clauses. There is some relatedness among these actions which is largely emphasised by the parallel form. This confirms, in one way or another, that parallelism may be attributed to stylistics. Because, from a stylistic point of view, parallelism is traditionally seen as a 'figure of speech' that is, a way in which syntactic structure can be made to deviate from the norm so as to create a marked structure with a special rhetorical effect, or simply for ornamentation.

Parallelism, in short, contributes to the intelligibility of a text by emphasising items of information. Parallel ideas may be presented in parallel structures, paragraphs and larger segments of texts. The principle of parallelism can be applied at all levels of structure; that is to ideas, to paragraphs, to sentences, to individual words, ... etc. Anywhere

coordinate, or equal, ideas are associated in writing, their statement is best made in parallel grammatical form. This principle is very powerful in obtaining clarity. The emotional stimulus initiated by parallelism may result in a memory effect, in particular, for emotive objectives.

Paraphrase, the other form of repetition, refers to a repetition of substance as opposed to that of parallelism, i.e., repetition of form. It involves a restatement of a certain point or argument a number of times. This type of repetition, though available in the discourse of other languages, is a reflection of a tendency, for which Arab writers are known, towards forceful assertions. Combined with other types of repetition, paraphrase creates the desired impact on the recipient. The tendency towards forceful assertion also explains what, in the eye of a Western recipient, appears to be a florid and verbose style of argumentative discourse. The reason for this verbosity is because brevity, in some situations, will simply fail to convey the required effect.

For the purpose of our discussion, I shall cite another type of repetition, that is prolixity, rendered in Arabic as al-itnāb . According to Ibn al-Athir (Atiq: 1984 : 204 ):

SLT:

"الاطناب هو زيادة اللفظ على المعنى لفائده، و عنده إن هذا الحد هو الذي يميزه عن التطويل، إذا التطويل: هو زيادة اللفظ عن المعنى لغير فائده."

TLT:

"Prolixity itnāb is the use of more words than ( strictly ) required by

the sense, but with some gain occurring ( to the utterance ). It is precisely this that distinguishes it from tautology tatwīl : This is the use of more words than (strictly) required by the sense, but with no gain occurring ( to the utterance )".

From this definition, it may be maintained that the motivation of repetition in Arabic is to serve a purpose, that is to say, the reinforcement of the proposition. Substantiating this point, de Beaugrande remarks that "heavy recurrence is intended to reinforce one's version of statement" ( 1981:168). Having examined this point theoretically, let us see how prolixity is practically applied:

#### Text 5

وتحقيق الاحلام القديمة التي عجز عنها الشاه، كما عجزت عنها الفرق التي حاولت على مدى التاريخ، إن تنال من الجيران العرب، و تحاول هدم قيمهم و تراثهم، وقوتهم و منعتهم...  
(الشرق الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/٩/٢٤)

#### Text 8

وانعقاد القمة لا يعني انه ليست هناك خلافات و تناقضات و تباين في الرأي...  
(الشرق الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/٩/٢٨)

We turn now to a discussion of repetition in English editorials. As stated before, repetition, as a strategy expressing emotive meaning, is resorted to by editorial writers to create a rhetorical effect on receivers. In this part of the analysis, I thoroughly examined a number of editorials, but



what I concluded is that repetition does not exist in English editorials. It is used as a device of cohesion in some texts. I may say that repetition in English editorials is very rare, as compared to their Arabic editorials. Hence, repetition is amply used in Arabic editorials to bring about emotive language while in English it is very rarely used.

Examining the strategy of repetition in English news reports, we may say that it does exist. For example, let us consider the following news reports:

#### Text 2

There are problems in the political process, in the development of our democracy. There are problems in the social sphere, and in the economy. Problems also exist in the spiritual sphere, in the sphere of moral philosophy and morality.

(The Guardian:6.10.1987)

#### Text 1

Three prisoners with stab wounds were brought out yesterday morning from Perth prison. The three prisoners with stab wounds left the gaol's besieged hall after negotiations ...

(The Guardian:6.10.1987)

As far as English and Arabic editorials are concerned, it may be claimed that repetition in Arabic is the most dominant feature in the production of emotive language, as shown previously, in texts 2, 3, and 4. By contrast, in English repetition exists very partially.

As for Arabic editorials and news reports, I may say that both contain repetition. In the case of editorials, we find that the kind of repetition used is redundancy, whereas in news reports it is repetition of form, that is parallelism. To illustrate this point, let us examine the following examples:

Text 1

و في الوقت نفسه عث الرئيس الامريكى ايران على تحديد موقفها من قرار مجلس الامن ودعا الاتحاد السوفياتي الى التعاون من اجل تنفيذه، وتؤكد اهتمام بلاده من اجل السلام في الشرق الاوسط...  
و دعا الرئيس رييجان في خطاب القاه في وقت متأخر مساء أمس أمام الجمعية العمومية للأمم المتحدة الرئيس الايراني إلى تحديد موقف بلاده بشكل واضح من القرار ٥٦٨ الداعي إلى وقف فوري لاطلاق النار...  
وقال إن السوفيات قد ساهموا في صياغة قرار مجلس الامن ووافقوا عليه، وعليهم المساعدة في تنفيذه بالتعاون مع الدول الاعضاء...  
وأشار في كلمته إلى اهتمام الولايات المتحدة باستقرار وسلام منطقة الشرق الاوسط...  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١٩٨٧/٩/٢٢)

أكدت المملكة العربية السعودية انها ملتزمة بأسعار منظمة الدول المصدرة للبتروك"أوبك" ولم تمنح أية حسومات من أي نوع من تلك الاسعار على أي من مبيعاتها وقال مصدر مسؤول بوزارة البترول و الثروة المعدنية السعودية انه لم يحدث أن أنتقد خادم الحرمين الشريفين أعضاء"أوبك" الذين قالت وكالة"يوناتيد انترناشيونال" أنهم فشلوا في الالتزام باتفاق توصلت إليه المنظمة...

فقد صرح مصدر مسؤول بالوزارة لوكالة الانباء السعودية رداً على ما تناقلته وكالات الانباء أمس الاول بأن السعودية ملتزمة بأسعار"أوبك"... وأضاف إنهم يحدث أن أنتقد خادم الحرمين الشريفين أعضاء"أوبك" الذين قالت الوكالة المذكورة أنهم فشلوا في الالتزام باتفاق توصلت إليه المنظمة قبل أربعة أشهر بهدف استقرار الاسعار...

(الشرق الاوسط: ٨/١٠/١٩٨٧)



Having examined English and Arabic news reports, we conclude that both share in the feature of repetition as seen in texts 1 and 11 in Arabic news reports and in texts 2, 1, and 7 in English ones. One more feature shared in both English and Arabic news reports is framing devices such as he said, he added, and in Arabic as wa-dhakara, wa-adāfa, wa-qāla.

Text producers in English and Arabic use these framing devices to preserve the coherence of their texts which, in turn, give rise to emotive language.

In short, emotive elements, including repetition with its various types, have a communicative function. They are justified whenever they help in conveying information and in facilitating the communicative effect on the part of the recipient of the message, in other words, the listener or reader of such a text. Repetition, once more, may be spread throughout a discourse as a reminder of prominence. It is essentially employed to affirm, clarify and assert what has been mentioned, and is mainly utilized to establish understanding between interactants.

### **3.8. Figures of speech:**

The emotive use of language aims mainly at gaining a complete response from the recipient. Here it may be claimed that the attainment of the text producer's objectives in such a situation calls for the use of language in its emotive function. Viewed from the perspective of semantics, appealing to reason and ethics is dominated by the use of words in their literal sense, while the use of language in its emotive sense is the domain of figures of speech. Text producers use figures of speech for a special effect, i.e., emotional effect. Tylor ( 1979 : 167 ) supports this view

saying "the voice of reason is literal, the voice of passion is poetic or metaphoric".

The use of figures of speech is commonly considered as a deviation from the ordinary way of speaking or writing, for the sake of greater effect. This deviation, I mean the use of metaphor and simile, gives rise to a change in the mind of the recipient, as in passing from rest to motion, from cold to heat, from light to dark. It follows, then, that the greater and the more sudden the change, the stronger is the effect.

The emotive sense of figures of speech is reflected in the way they expose their user's ideas. They evoke in the mind of the receiver vivid and striking images which stir his emotions and make him surrender to their vitality and, consequently, to the text producer's wishes. This can best be seen by looking upon the figures of speech as another means of exciting the emotions: "because figures of speech can render our thoughts vividly concrete, they in Quintilian's words help us to communicate with our audience clearly and effectively; because they stir emotional responses, they can carry truth alive into the heart by passion; and because they elicit admiration for the eloquence of the writer, they can exert a powerful ethical appeal" ( Corbett:1965, p.425).

Moreover, figures of speech are treated as stylistic devices. They are employed to ornament discourse. Murphey ( 1974 : p.185 ) describes them as "means of ornatation". They may be rhetorically effective in attracting the reader's attention to the real argument which is located in the ideas and their logical organisation. Figures of speech , then, are ornaments and deviations from the norm or , as Murphey maintains,

"permitted faults" (1974 : p.182 ).

Figures of speech, furthermore, are recommended by rhetoricians as a means of achieving clarity of vision. Therefore, it may be said that although figures of speech are effective in most texts in which they are used, they are more effective when they are used in argumentative texts. Referring to the rhetorical function of figures of speech, Longinus points out that " They are able in many ways to infuse vehemence and passion into spoken words, while more particularly when they are combined with the argumentative passage, they not only persuade the hearer, but actually make him their slave" ( Corbett : 1965, p.425 ).

As far as figures of speech are concerned, I shall be, for the purpose of this analysis, concentrating on two only : metaphor and simile.

### 3.8.1. Metaphor:

#### 3.8.1.1. Philosophy OF Metaphor:

Metaphor has always been regarded as an enhancement of language, one in which either a substitution or an implicit comparison takes place. To its detractors, it is a sheer embellishment, swaying the passions and seducing the reason. To its champions, its lack of utility, its mere capacity to delight, is the reason for its privileged place in language.

Cicero relates that metaphor was first invented out of necessity, but in the affluence of a mature language it became decorative and noble. He maintains that " as clothes were invented to protect us against cold, and afterwards began to be used for the sake of adornment and dignity, so



the metaphorical employment of words began because of poverty, but was brought into common use for the sake of entertainment" ( Kittay: 1987, p.1).

It should be admitted that a new focus has been devoted to the study of metaphor, because metaphor is experiencing a revitalised interest within the domain of philosophy. From a philosophical point of view, metaphor is plumbed not only for its affective and rhetorical efficacy, but also for its cognitive contribution. Aristotle, showing the cognitive importance of metaphor, particularly metaphor based on analogy, states that " a good metaphor implies an intuitive perception of similarity of dissimilars. Through resemblance, metaphor makes things clearer" (Aristotle, Poetics, trans.W.D.Ross,1459,5-7).The cognitive force of metaphor comes, not from providing new information about the world, rather from a re-conceptualization of information that is already available to us.

### **3.8.1.2. The Importance of Metaphor:**

Metaphors can be used to give colour and life to a piece of writing. They are concrete and particular; they reflect the world of the senses. Metaphors can also excite the imagination. Evidently metaphor is felt to add forcefulness, and obviously the forcefulness has some relation to sharpness of detail and concreteness of expression. In the process of metaphor, then force and sharpness of detail, especially of sensory detail, tend to go together.

Indeed, we, as readers, are usually attracted to metaphor in the first place because ordinary language seems worn and stale. Another point to be mentioned, in this connection, is that metaphor tends to accompany

the expression of emotions and attitudes.

### **3.8.1.3. Theory of Metaphor:**

According to Corbett ( 1965 : p.438 ), "metaphor is an implied comparison between two things of unlike nature that yet have something in common". It is used where the exposition of a thought needs to be reinforced by an image which is not depictable by the ordinary use of words. Newmark (1982: p.84 ) maintains that " the main purpose of metaphor is to describe an entity, event, or a quality more comprehensively and concisely and in a more complex way than is possible by using literal language". Again, Herbert Read defines metaphor as "the synthesis of several units of observation into one commanding image. It is the expression of a complex idea , but by a sudden perception of an objective relation" ( cited in Soskice: 1985, p.16).

Despite the fact that metaphor has so many definitions, it is impossible to devise a substantial definition of metaphor satisfactory to all. Therefore, we shall adopt a working definition according to which we view metaphor as "an expression which refers to an event or entity in terms of another, and which does not lend itself to literal translation".

### **3.8.1.4. A Linguistic Approach to Metaphor:**

Ever since writers began to concern themselves with the topic, it has been recognised that a metaphor is a displaced sign. Aristotle, for example,



identified the displacement as a transference and the sign as a name. Few writers today take metaphors to be names and most identify the metaphorical unit as a sentence. However, some writers have objected to the notion of metaphor as a displacement on the ground that it makes metaphor appear to be anomalous when instead we need to recognise it as an integral feature of natural language. But even these writers find it hard to avoid speaking of metaphor as some sort of transference of meaning. Thus, the question remains: why engage in such nominal or conceptual detours? Most pertinent to a philosophical inquiry is whether such transference of meaning serves a cognitive end.

From Richards to Lakoff and Johnson ( 1980 ), theorists have insisted that metaphor is conceptual and that many of our actions are based on metaphorical conceptions. Lakoff and Johnson, and a number of linguists and psychologists, have studied some conceptual structures which are metaphorical in character and from which flows metaphorical utterance. But the linguistic utterance of metaphor exists in relation to a language whose organisation reflects and helps shape a conceptual system. And here it should be stressed that the conceptual requires an expressive medium. Without an expressive medium we most likely should not be able to form metaphors or even think metaphorically.

The key notion in seeing metaphor as cognitive is the recognition that in metaphor two concepts are operative simultaneously. Dr. Johnson supports this statement saying , "as for metaphorical expression , that is a great excellence in style ... for it gives you two ideas in one" ( quoted in Richards 1936, p.93 ). Richards was the first to baptise the two ideas active together in metaphor. He called them 'tenor' and 'vehicle'. The



vehicle is the idea conveyed by the literal meanings of the words used metaphorically. The tenor is the idea conveyed by the vehicle.

#### **3.8.1.5. Components of Metaphor:**

Metaphor as seen by modern rhetoricians comprises three elements:

1. Object: That is the item which is described by the metaphor. It is referred to in some writings as 'topic'.
2. Image: That is the item in terms of which the object is described. It is referred to as 'vehicle'.
3. Sense: That is the point of similarity which shows in what particular aspect the object and the image are similar. It is referred to as 'tenor'.

#### **3.8.1.6. The Purpose of Metaphor:**

The main purpose of metaphor is to provide an illustration or to give an emotional heightening. Certainly, one practical use of metaphor is to provide a concrete illustration of a point that has been stated more abstractly. Metaphor is, indeed, an indispensable instrument for interpreting experience and, furthermore, it is a primary device of expression.

By virtue of these peculiarities, metaphor has occupied a prominent position in classical and modern rhetorics. It is conceived of as a persuasive stylistic device. Supporting this view, Aristotle maintains that "metaphor provides the best way to strike a happy balance between the obvious and the obscure, so that our audience could grasp our ideas

promptly and thereby be disposed to accept our argument" (Corbett: 1965, p.425 ).

### **3.8.1.7. The Relation between Metaphor and Context and the Relevance of this to the Translation Process:**

Metaphor relates to context, whether of situation or of culture, through a number of relations which act as determinant factors in the translation process. Throughout this section, we hope to shed some light on these relations, and on how significant their consideration may be in the translation process.

In isolation from its context of situation or culture, an utterance becomes assignable to a multitude of interpretations. By the same token, a metaphorical expression is metaphorical only in its context of situation or culture. It is a curious fact that it may take more than one sentence to establish a metaphor. For example, let us consider the following expression: 'That is a cold coal to blow at'. As an isolated sentence, it does not express its full metaphoric potential, but if the wider context is a dialogue in which the participant says 'I hope the king will forgive the rebels' and another responds 'That is a cold coal to blow at', metaphoring can become entirely operational, since, clearly, our speaker is not speaking of a cold coal, but about the slim chance of a royal pardon. Here, the metaphorical usage becomes apparent in a context wider than that of a sentence. This example highlights the significance of context for the identification of metaphor as a metaphor. This metaphor-context relation plays a major role in translation. It stands as one of the determinants of

the appropriate equivalence of metaphor in the target language.

A change in the situation can dictate a drastic change in the translation of the same metaphor. To make sense of this statement, it is of the utmost significance to consider the fact that a change in the situation implies a change in the environment in which the linguistic exchange is taking place, which includes the channel of this linguistic exchange ( mode), the type of relations existing among the participants in that linguistic exchange (tenor ), the objectives being pursued in that environment (pragmatics ) and the elements which regulate the interaction of the participant objectives in that environment ( semiotics).

All of these variables make up the three dimensions of text type: that is the pragmatic, communicative, and semiotic dimension. Thus, it may be said that as every situation yields a particular text-type, a change in the situation, for the most part, brings about a change in the respective text type. It follows, then, that the translation of the same metaphor should change as the situation changes . To illustrate this point, let us consider the translation of 'That is a cold coal to blow at' into Arabic.

1. Out of its context of situation, this expression loses its effect as a metaphor. It will be translated literally as :

إنه فحم جامد لا يجدي نفخه.

2. In its context of situation, that is of the royal pardon, this expression will realise its full potential as metaphor, and will, thus, be translated as:

إن ما تأمله لهُو المستحيل بعينه.

This translation is determined by the pragmatic dimension of the text-type which unfolds in the royal pardon situation. The pragmatics of this



metaphor in this situation is to highlight the utmost degree of impossibility of fulfilment of a hope in order to dissuade another participant from hoping. As it is difficult to arrive at an Arabic metaphor that suits this particular situation, paraphrase becomes the easy way out. Thus, the metaphor under consideration can be paraphrased as:

ما تأمله مستحيل.

However, such a translation weakens the metaphor. It causes it to lose its persuasive force, in which case its pragmatics may be said to be betrayed. In order to preserve the persuasive force of the metaphor in its target language's version, the translator must compensate for the lost force by using evaluative devices: they may be semantic such as **إن**, the emphatic reflexive pronoun **بهيئته**, or they may be syntactic such as the cleft-sentence structure which is displayed by the adopted version.

3. From this analysis, we note that although the metaphor "That is a cold coal to blow at" signifies one concept, which is the unattainability of a hope, the way in which it is expressed tends to change with the change of text-type which is brought about by the change of context.

This observation reaffirms our introductory statement that the relation between metaphor and situation acts as a determinant factor in the translation process. As situation is the determinant of the linguistic pattern to be used, it may be said that metaphors are expected to be less recurrent in situations where the objective of the participants is to describe the world around them. They are expected to be highly recurrent in situations where the objective of the participants is not only to describe the world around them, but also to express how they feel

about it. Such situations give rise to the use of metaphor as a means for evaluation, the objective of which is to make the produced utterance more persuasive and appealing to its receivers.

From the above-cited investigation, two important points may be adduced regarding the emotiveness of metaphor: first, the metaphoric usage of language is a marked usage in the sense that the image depicted by a metaphorical utterance is, by far, more striking and appealing than that depicted by an ordinary utterance. Aristotle substantiates this view saying "metaphor did give charm and distinction to our expression, but even more than that, metaphor was another way to give clarity and liveliness to the expression of our thought" ( Corbett: 1965, p.425 ). This shows us that metaphor, by being marked, fulfils one of the important conditions of achieving emotive language. Second, an essential element which greatly contributes to the emotiveness of metaphor may be attributed to its semiotic nature. Metaphor does not only magnify the image received by the addressee, but it also evokes in his mind other associated signs which influence his processing of the utterance and, consequently, his response to it. In support of this view, Newmark (1982: p.84 ) suggests that "original metaphors are often dramatic and shocking in effect, and, since they establish points of similarity between one object and another without explicitly stating what these resemblances are, they appear to be imprecise if not inaccurate, since they have indeterminate and undeterminable frontiers. However, there is no question that good writers use metaphors to help readers to gain a more accurate insight, both physical and emotional, into a character or a situation". Newmark's words reveal that as metaphor involves referring to one object in terms of another, this 'another', according to the criterion of intertextuality, should be familiar to the receiver of the target



language text. To substantiate our points, let us take the following example from Arabic editorials:

Text 6

وليس إطلاق النار على كرامي سوى إطلاق نار على جسد لبنان الخريح  
ومحاولة لنزف المزيد من الدماء وحصد المزيد من الضحايا من فقراء لبنان  
وفلاحيه وكل الفئات التي تطحنها الحرب...  
(الوطن: ١٩٨٧/١/٢)

Text 2

و من هنا لا يجوز أن يمر نبأ افتتاح "المترو" في القاهرة دون أن نعطيه ما  
يستحق: إنه رثة جديدة لهذه المدينة العريقة...  
(الشرق الأوسط: ١٩٨٧/١٠/١)

Likewise, text producers in English editorials tend to use metaphors in order to make their arguments more effective and convincing. By introducing strong metaphors, they make their images in the minds of their receivers more tangible and concrete. By doing this, English editorial writers succeed in bringing about emotive language in their readers. This effective and subtle use of metaphors can clearly be shown in the following excerpt:

Text 4

The first instinct of the Chinese government after the riots in Lhasa has been to Saturate the city with troops and armed police.

( The Guardian: 6.10.1987 )



### 3.8.2. Simile:

Simile, like metaphor, is commonly looked at as a figure of speech which is employed by writers for intensifying or heightening an emotional effect on the part of the recipient. According to Corbett ( 1965: p.438 ), "Simile is an explicit comparison between two things of unlike nature that yet have something in common". It is also defined by other rhetoricians as an expression in which something is compared to something else by the use of a function word such as 'like' or 'as'. On the basis of these two definitions, it may be said that simile agrees with metaphor in the sense that both relate to a topic of similarity, and differs from it, in the manner of expression, where the comparison in simile hinges on a function word, which is not the case in metaphor.

The force of simile is dependent on a number of factors which give an impetus to emotive language. At the forefront of these factors is intertextuality. This term, as stated before, is introduced by de Beaugrande ( 1981: p.182 ), "to subsume the ways in which the production and reception of a given text depends upon the participant's knowledge of other texts". Figures of speech involve reference to one object in terms of another, as pointed out by Newmark ( 1982: p. 84 ) : "They establish points of similarity between one object and another"; according to the criterion of intertextuality, this 'other' object should be known to the receiver, as his reception and processing of the figure depends on it. Therefore, it may be said that the text producer requires the convention of intertextuality to ensure that the figures of speech that he uses are based on referents and images familiar to the potential receiver of the text. Let us, for instance, examine the following example

extracted from an English editorial:

### Text 8

Are they so accustomed to obedience and confinement, like birds in a cage, that they cannot think how to handle the democratic socialism Gorbachov offers them?

(The Guardian : 3.11.1987)

In terms of intertextuality, in the above-cited example, referents belong to the audience surrounding. The words 'birds' and 'cage' are all signs known to the receiver.

#### 3.8.2.1. The Function of Simile:

The simile process provides not just literary embellishment, but a tool for serious thinking. Like metaphor, simile may conceptualise. To breathe meaning into words we first charge them with concrete form, an objective correlative that invokes a more immediate tangible association in the recipient. The reason for this is that figurative language may establish concepts more firmly than other modes of expression, for the reader or listener, similes increase the understanding in certain ways. It may be said that similes act in the following ways:

1. The aesthetic mode affects the reader's emotions and senses directly.
2. Intensification makes images vivid and heightens the emotions of the reader.
3. Clarification enables us to focus on a particular aspect or feature. It reveals a major role for simile, i.e., the presentation of descriptive detail.

4. Compaction emphasises that simile can explain and embody concepts more economically than non-figurative discourse.

To summarise, I may say that the strategy of figures of speech is used by editorial writers in both languages. As regards news reports, I have found that figures of speech are not used either in English or in Arabic. This seems to imply the predominance of subjectivity in editorials as opposed to that of objectivity in news reports.

### C. Stylistic Strategies:

#### 3.9. Word-order :

It is a fact, as mentioned earlier, that the semantics of a sentence can be affected by its syntax. Although the same words can be used to produce two versions of a sentence, the semantics of each sentence will vary as the pattern of its word order varies. The way in which words are arranged reflects the semantic purpose of the text producer. This leads us to say that the syntax of a sentence may be manipulated to produce a specific effect on the receiver. It follows, then, that each change in word order has a significance of its own.

In his work entitled Language, Vendryes ( 1931: p.140 ) states that "there are cases in which the effective expression instead of being superimposed upon the grammatical expression, mingles with it to the extent of modifying it. An activity in language is generally expressed in two ways: by the choice of words and by the position they occupy in the sentence. That is to say, vocabulary and syntax are the two principal



sources of effective language".

Although English is one of the languages in which there is a fixed word-order, it admits a certain flexibility, and word-order may be modified for affective reasons as well as for grammatical ones. The so-called normal word order may then be set aside, "but the fact of its being so set aside reveals a purpose". ( Vendryes 1931 : 142 ). this purpose is to give prominence to a particular word or word-group in order to attract to it the attention of the listener or reader. The striking words are prominently placed. Therefore, emphasis and prominence may both be achieved by word-order. Similarly, the same can be applied to Arabic. This can best be seen in Attiq's words ( 1984: 149 ).

SLT:

"وعلى هذا فتقديم جزء من الكلام أو تأخيرها لا يرد اعتباراً في نظم الكلام وتأليفه، وإنما يكون عملاً يقتضيه غرض بلاغي أو داع من دواعيها."

TLT:

"Thus, the advancing or postponing of a segment of discourse does not occur at random in the arranging and composing of discourse; it is rather an intentional action required for a rhetorical objective or for some other reason".

According to Vallins ( 1975 : 113 ), two types of word-order can be distinguished: 'logical' or 'normal', or conventional word order, and 'affective' or 'emotional' word order. The former is dependent on reason and logic; the latter is conditioned by the emotions of the writer or speaker, or his desire to affect the reader or hearer in one way or another.

To return to the specific problem of word-order in English, it should be remembered that any departure from the fairly rigid word-order of standard English alters either the type of the sentence, for example, from affirmative to interrogative, or the emphasis, for instance, the order object- subject-verb as in:

That I can understand,

or the meaning of the sentence, for example,

The boy hit the ball.

The ball hit the boy.

Supporting this view, Deutshbein ( 1932: p.149 ) maintains that "every deviation from the normal word-order has an emphatic effect of either a logical or an emotional kind. Since the emotions and feelings of the speaker are effected in the sentence rhythm, the speaker's emotions and feelings find expression to a great extent in the variation of word-order".

What then is the normal word-order? and what deviations from that word-order may be ascribed to emotional or affective causes?

In modern English affirmative sentence structure has a fixed normal or natural order, namely, subject first and predicate second. This natural order may be changed to give emphasis or prominence to any part and for the sake of variety, which, since it is usually done to keep the attention of the hearer or reader, may also be termed affective. Again, the words composing subject and predicate have a relatively fixed order. The placing of a word or word-group out of its usual and expected order draws the hearer's or reader's attention to it. It is not possible to place words in an indiscriminate or arbitrary order. In other words, any



deviation from the normal word-order is at once perceived by the hearer or reader and such variations will, consciously or unconsciously, be interpreted affectively.

It is a fact generally accepted among writers and grammarians that the beginning and the end of the sentence are positions of greater importance, but there would seem to be some disagreement as to whether the beginning or the end is the more important, giving greater emphasis or prominence to the words placed there. Modern writers believe that it is, in fact, neither beginning nor end as such, but merely the fact of the unusual, that is to say 'abnormal', position that gives the affective value to the words placed there. Viewed from this perspective, Gettins ( 1929: p.81 ) observes that "the important words may sometimes be taken from their normal position and placed in one that brings them into greater prominence and contrast". He also adds: 'It is necessary and sometimes important to give a phrase or a sentence emphasis, to make it stand out from its context, as the central figure on a stage stands out from the rest when the limelight plays upon it'.

At this stage, I shall discuss some, not all, cases of prominence effected by the manipulation of word order:

#### 1. The substantival predicative in front position:

When both the grammatical subject and the predicative are substantival, it is usual to mention first the specific, as grammatical subject, and make the general the predicative. In such cases, the predicative may be given greater prominence by front position, while the grammatical subject is at the same time given greater prominence by the element of tension introduced by its end-position, for example:



### Text 3

The only surprise is that Mr. Hurd chose the Torquay police conference as his platform for such a high-profile announcement ...

(The Guardian: 23.9.1987)

### 2. The position of prominence for adverbs and adverbial groups:

In English and Arabic, any deviation from the normal position of adverbs and adverbial groups tends to give, in some cases, prominence to the words in the abnormal position. However, prominence may be given, but not necessarily, to adverbs and adverbial phrases in the following ways:

a) adverbs of definite time may be placed at the beginning of the sentence, e.g.

### Text 3

Yesterday at the police superintendents' Association he did so.

(The Guardian: 23.9.1987)

### Text 3

واليوم، تبدو مصر في عهد مبارك قاعدة عروبية راسخة...  
(الشرق الاوسط: ٧/١/١٩٨٧)

b) adverbs of place may be given front position, e.g.

### Text 5

In Kent, probably the worst-hit area, costs are estimated at about £ 90 million.

(The Guardian: 20.10.1987)

Text 7

وفي بيروت، قالت دوائر قضائية إن قاضي التحقيق العسكري طالب أمس بتوقيع عقوبة الاعدام على ستة لبنانيين متهمين بارتكاب حادث تفجير سفارة الولايات المتحدة في بيروت في ١٨/٤/١٩٨٣.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١١/٩/١٩٨٦)

c) adverbs of manner may be placed at the beginning of the sentence, e.g.

Text 3

Of course there are sensible ways of shaving the sharp edges off the problem, and Mr. Hurd has announced some of them.

(The Guardian: 23.9.1987)

Text 2

طبعاً كانت كلفة "المetro" باهظة لكن الفائدة منه لا تقاس...  
(الشرق الاوسط: ٩/٢٨/١٩٨٧)

Hence, it is deemed that adverbials may be given front position both in English and Arabic news reports and editorials in order to obtain stylistic variation and to form one of the elements of a thematic cluster.

4. Prominence by means of clefting-construction 'it is/' 'was' or 'this is'/'was'.

Almost any word or word-group in a sentence may be given extra prominence, have extra attention called to it, by being introduced by 'it is', 'it was', or 'this is' which give the recipient the impression of leading up to a climax, e.g.

Text 8

It is normally contrary to Gorbachov's nature to offer caution when his agenda is so wide-ranging...

( The Guardian: 3.11.1987 )

Text 10

إنه التحول - أو التقدم - الأول من نوعه منذ عام ١٩٧٢ يوم وقع نيكسون و بريجنيف مجموعة من الاتفاقات التي تحد من إنتاج الاسلحة المدمرة.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١٩/٩/١٩٨٧)

Text 8

'This is a lesson for all generations" Mr. Gorbachov said.

(The Guardian: 3.11.1987)

Text 8

فهذه هي القمة الافريقية تنعقد اعتيادياً كل عام بصرف النظر عن الخلافات التي تمزق بعض الدول الشقيقة في القارة السمراء.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ٢٨/٩/١٩٨٧)



In the light of the foregoing, it may be concluded that word order is employed in both English and Arabic for the purpose of prominence and emphasis of some constituents in the sentence. It seems to me that word order is, to a large extent, a subjective use which mirrors the intention of the writer or speaker in discourse. This is consonant with the fact that text producers resort to word order to express their emotions and, at the same time, to attract the attention of the listener or reader. In a word, it may be said that emphasis and prominence, which give rise to emotive language, may both be effected by the technique of word order both in news reporting and editorial writing.

### 3.10. Passive Voice

Historically speaking, the passive voice has been one of the most problematic and controversial constructions in discussions of English structure, and modern linguistic theory has added little to our understanding of its meaning and function. But recent linguistic investigations have indicated that emotional language may be brought about not only by syntactic requisites, but also by contextual considerations, such as focus and theme which are realized through the employment of the passive voice. Supporting this view, Chafe ( 1970: p.220 ) regards the passive as an inflectional unit, one of whose principal functions is to "change the order of priorities for the distinction of new information".

The passive, according to Crystal ( 1985: p. 222 ), is "a term used in the grammatical analysis of voice, referring to a sentence, clause or verb from

where the grammatical subject is typically the recipient or 'goals' of the action denoted by the verb. It is contrasted with the active. Passive constructions which take an agent are agentive passives, as opposed to 'agentless' passives." The passive may be used when we wish to make a statement sound impersonal or when we have some unpleasant statement to make. Moreover, the passive form is to be preferred to the active, because we are more interested in what happened to 'x' than in what 'y' did. At this point, it may be said that text producers in English and Arabic employ the passive form in some situations to give prominence to their ideas. Therefore, the passive may be regarded as a means of expressing emotive language in the mind of the recipient.

### **3.10.1. The Function of the Passive:**

Passive sentences often have different meanings and communicative intent from the corresponding active sentences. Functionally speaking, passives may be considered as information foregrounding constructions. In this context, passives are similar to what we call topicalizations or thematizations. For example,

John killed Smith.

Smith was killed by John. Here, 'Smith' is the topic or theme of the sentence.

Hence, the passive form functions as a means of giving communicative prominence, i.e., thematic fronting or marked theme as explained before. The passive construction is, then, a device for switching the focus of information both in English and Arabic.



### 3.10.2. The Pragmatics of the Passive:

As explained earlier, text producers resort to the passive construction because it fulfils some functions which, according to Givon ( Siewierska: 1984, p.217 ), can be grouped under one of the following functional domains "topic identification and impersonalization". The topicalization function of the passive is manifested by the assignment of subject/topic or just topic function to a non-agent and the impersonalization function by the removal of the underlying agent . For instance,  
The factory was blown up.

Pragmatically speaking, given and new information or theme and rheme are primarily associated with two distinct pragmatic functions, namely that of topic and focus respectively. The term topic, on the one hand, has been defined as the entity which sets the stage or is "the point of departure" for the clause ( Halliday: 1968 ). It is the constituent which states what the clause is primarily about. On the other hand, the terminology focus is used to refer to the constituent which conveys the most important information with respect to the pragmatic dimension between the speaker and the addressee. Thus, it represents the information which constitutes the *raison d'être* for the utterance. Since given information, by definition, is known to both interlocutors, the motivation for an utterance is typically the imparting of some new information. Consequently, the focus of the clause generally represents new information.

Considering the use of the passive form, it appears to me that passives are used in English and Arabic news reports and editorials as well. This



can be shown in the following samples:

(English editorial)

Text 2

So reports of Mr. Gorbachov's demise were greatly exaggerated.

( The Times: 1.10.1987 )

(Arabic editorial)

Text 6

لقد قُتِلَ كرامى، وقُتِلَ قبله عدد من المفكرين والمناضلين...  
(الوطن: ١٩٨٧/١/٢)

(English news report)

Text 4

Their spiritual leader was denounced in the Peking press as responsible for the violence.

( The Guardian: 6.10.1987 )

(Arabic news report)

Text 7

و تُبَوِّدِلتُ أعتباراً من صباح أمس عمليات القنص والترشق بالاسلحة  
الرشاشة.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١٩٨٦/١١/٩)

In a word, the agentive passive fulfils two basic functions: focus and topicalization , which give rise to emotive phenomena in language. Thus, it may be added that the use of the passive construction makes it possible for a writer or speaker to make his psychological subject also the grammatical subject of his sentence; hence his choice may be expressive as well as communicative.

#### **D. Syntactic Strategies:**

##### **3.11. Cleft-sentences:**

Clefts are traditionally considered to be structures consisting of a 'focus' which represents new information and is heavily stressed and contrastive, and a wh-/that- clause which represents 'presupposed' or 'old' information. the focus represents the value and the wh-/that-clause the variable to which it is assigned. They refer to a construction where a single clause has been divided into two separate sections, each with its own verb. The variants affect the distribution of emphasis within the sentence, and correlate closely with patterns of prominence. Quirk (1973: 414 ) maintains that " a special construction which gives both thematic and local prominence to a particular element of the clause is the cleft-sentence".

Although it-clefts and wh-clefts basically have the same meaning and function, there are many pragmatic factors that may induce the writer or speaker to prefer one type of cleft to another in a particular context. It is known in the linguistic literature that it-clefts belong to a type of sentence that has been variously called 'specificational' (Higgins: 1976), or 'equational' ( Huddleston: 1977: 246 ).

A sentence is specificational if the noun phrase that is the subject of 'be' in underlying structure represents a variable for which the predicate nominal specifies a value. Such sentences are 'identifying' in that the specification of a value makes it possible to identify the variable, i.e., to pick out the person, thing, etc. represented by the variable from a set.

For example:

1. The bank manager is John Smith.

In ( 1 ) the value 'John Smith' is assigned to the variable '(the one who is) the bank manager.'

2. The only man that can help you is your brother.

Similarly, in ( 2 ) the variable is 'the only man that can help you' and the value assigned to it is 'your brother.' Another characteristic of specificational popular sentences is that they are reversible. Thus, in answer to the question 'who is the bank manager?' We can say either 'the bank manager is John Smith' or ' John Smith is the bank manager.' In both cases the bank manager is the variable NP and John Smith is the value assigned to it. Undoubtedly, what cleft-sentences have in common is that they are all specificational and because of this entail emphasis on the value constituent which can therefore rightly be called the focus of the cleft.

### **3.11.1. The Use of Clefts in Discourse:**

Prince ( 1978 ) makes some specific claims about the use of clefts in discourse, i.e. what we might call the 'pragmatics' of it-clefts and wh-clefts. According to her, "it-clefts and wh-clefts are not interchangeable,



but rather do different kinds of work and mean different things, at least some of the time" ( 1978 : p.883 ). This claim is based on the assumption that wh-clefts always require that the material inside the wh-clause should be 'given', whereas it-clefts may also have an 'informative presupposition'.

Let us first of all tackle the question of why the writer/speaker may prefer to use a cleft rather than a non-cleft sentence. A first factor evidently is that it makes a difference whether information is or is not presented in the form of a specificational sentence. For example, let us consider:

1. The murderer of Fred is John.
2. It is John who murdered Fred.
3. John murdered Fred.

Sentences 1 and 2 can only be interpreted specificationally, i.e., as answering the question ' who has murdered Fred?'. Sentence three can be interpreted either specificationally or predicationally. Thus, since in a specificational sentence the value normally presents new information, and since the subject of a sentence is usually the primary topic ( Cf. Givon: 1983 ) and hence expresses old information, special emphasis on the subject will be needed to mark it as new information and , by doing so, make the specificational reading predominant. So, the use of a particular type of cleft can be induced by the writer's or speaker's wish to produce an unambiguously specificational sentence.

The above observations lead us to the question of why a writer or speaker may prefer to use a specificational sentence rather than a predicational one. The answer to this question apparently is that using

the former type of structure enables the writer to give additional information along with the message. On the predicational reading the sentence conveys a single piece of information, whereas on the specificational reading, the information conveyed is more complex: it may be represented as involving two pieces of information. Along with this, it may be suggested, we get:

a. an implication of contrast: the fact that a particular value is assigned to the variable automatically creates a contrast with all the other potential values that have not been selected. Therefore, in any specificational structure the value selected implies a contrast with the possible alternatives that have not been chosen.

b. emphasis: along with contrastiveness, the particular choice of value also entails a certain emphasis on that value. This is a natural consequence of the specificational meaning, and, like contrastiveness, is not typical of clefts only.

Another reason why the writer or speaker may choose to use a cleft rather than a simple sentence is that the former suggests a higher degree of involvement of the recipient with what is being said. For example, let us consider the following:

1. The one who murdered Smith is Jack.
2. It is Jack who murdered Smith.

These sentences suggest more interest and involvement on the part of receiver than the non cleft like:

Jack is Smith's murderer.

It will be convenient, then, to investigate why the use of a particular type of cleft (an it-cleft, non inverted wh-cleft or inverted wh-cleft) may often be preferred to the use of another. The principal factor playing a role in the choice of a particular type of cleft probably has to do with the thematic organisation of the sentence and of the discourse of which it forms a part. It is a well-known fact that when a number of sentences follow each other, "the same theme tends to be held constant" ( Bates : 1976, p.169 ). A stretch of discourse does not normally consist of unrelated sentences, but of sentences that form what Givon calls a 'thematic paragraph', i.e., "a string of clauses whose main/primary topic remains the same" ( Givon: 1983, p.9 ). Now an important observation is that the choice of a particular type of cleft often appears to be determined by the tendency to process a continuous topic as first element of the sentence, i.e., as focus of an it-cleft or as the subject clause of an inverted or non inverted wh-cleft. The principle of theme continuity also plays a role in the use of cleft sentences. For instance, let us consider the following:

1. But why are you so interested in Berlin?

a. Berlin is the place where I met my wife.

b. Berlin is where I met my wife.

c. It is in Berlin that I met my wife.

The clear difference in acceptability between the sentences above confirms that one of the factors determining the writer's or speaker's



choice of a particular cleft or non cleft construction consists in a tendency to continue the thematic line of a stretch of discourse by processing the most continuous topic at the beginning of the clause.

As pointed out, various factors may induce a writer or speaker to prefer a cleft to a non cleft sentence: the use of a specificational structure allows the writer or speaker to express connotations such as contrast, emphasis and focus; using a cleft may be a means of creating suspense or of suggesting a higher degree of involvement of the recipient with what is being said; or a cleft may be preferred simply because it offers the syntactic advantage of involving two clauses.

In the light of the foregoing discussion, it may be said that cleft-sentence usage is an effective means of expressing focus, specification, contrast and emphasis which, in turn, provoke a particular emotional response in the mind of the receiver. To illustrate this point, let us examine the following excerpts:

(English editorial)

Text 5

It has been firemen, police and ambulance drivers who have been in greatest danger.

(The Guardian: 20.10.1987)

(Arabic editorial)

Text 10

إنه التحول - أو التقدم - الأول من نوعه منذ عام ١٩٧٢ يوم وقع نيكسون و بريجنيف مجموعة من الاتفاقات التي تحدد من إنتاج الاسلحة المدمرة.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ١٩/٩/١٩٨٧)

The above-cited samples show us that cleft-sentences are used both in Arabic and English editorials. As regards news reports, text producers in neither language use cleft-sentence constructions. At this point, it may be indicated that the exclusion of using cleft-sentences may be related to the objectivity of reporters, as opposed to the subjectivity of editorial writers.

### 3.12. Thematic Fronting:

It is true that the writer or speaker orders single words or sentences, and those sentences into texts. In doing so, he must choose a beginning point, because this point will influence the hearer's or reader's interpretation of everything that follows in the discourse. However, it seems that this thematic organisation is done in terms of focus and emphasis. Leech, in support of this view, defines thematic meaning as "what is communicated by the way in which a writer or speaker organises the message in terms of ordering, focus, and emphasis" ( 1974 : p.22 ).

To start with the subject of thematic fronting, it will be convenient to define what is meant by theme. Crystal maintains that "theme is a term used in linguistics as part of an analysis of the structure of sentences. It refers, not to the subject-matter, but to the way a writer or speaker identifies the relative importance of his subject-matter, and is defined as the first major constituent of a sentence" ( 1985:p.308 ). Mathesius (1942 ) points out that "each simple sentence has a theme the starting point of the utterance and a rheme, everything else that follows, or states about the starting point of the utterance". It follows, then, that theme is



what writers or speakers use as what Halliday ( 1967: p.212 ) calls "a point of departure". It is that with which the clause is concerned. The remainder of the message, the part in which the term is developed, is called in Prague school terminology the rheme. Some linguists like Hornby, have used the terms 'topic' and 'comment' instead of theme and rheme to indicate focus and emphasis. They characterise the notion 'topic' as the part of the sentence which constitutes what the writer or speaker is talking about. The rest of the sentence, the 'comment', provides new information about the topic.

### 3.12.1. Theme-Rheme: Current Conceptions:

In modern text linguistic theory, the organisation of the clause in terms of theme and rheme has come to be collectively referred to as 'functional sentence perspective' (FSP). The term is used to indicate that sentence elements function within a certain perspective of communicative importance. Particularly to the Prague School, this has meant: 1. that, mapped in the sentence, an order predominates in which x precedes and is commented on by y ( x and y being theme and rheme respectively ); 2. that thematic elements may be identified as those which present 'known' information while rhematic elements carry 'new' information (known/new being a function of recoverability or irrecoverability from the extratextual environment ); 3. that 'context-dependent' theme elements are of lesser communicative importance than 'context-independent' rheme elements. Thus, in the English sentence:

He moved slowly.

'He' would be identified as 'theme', as 'recoverable' or 'context-dependent' and as of lesser communicative importance than 'slowly'.



Sentence segmentation into theme-rheme and the relative importance of these elements have been elaborated by Firbas within the concept of 'communicative dynamism' ( CD ). This refers to the quality which pushes communication forward as it unfolds. That is to say, certain known, context-dependent elements contribute less to the advancement of communication than other context-independent elements occurring subsequently. In other words, theme within the perspective of FSP, may be defined as "the elements carrying the lowest degree of communicative dynamism within sentence"; rheme, on the other hand, represents the core of the utterance, or the message proper which "pushes the communication forward" ( Firbas: 1964, p.272).

Within Firbas's conception, three principles are involved in the determination of communicative dynamism:

- a. gradation of position and an ensuring rise in CD, e.g. He moved slowly vs he slowly moved.
- b. semantic content and a concomitant rise or fall in CD, e.g. a boy came vs a boy stood at the corner.
- c. context-dependence which, irrespective of position, de-dynamizes elements, e.g. the boy vs a boy.

From the above outline of basic FSP theory, it is clear that, particularly in Firbas's formulation, context is posited as a vitally important determinant in the distribution of CD among the elements of the clause. FSP theorists, however, emphasise categories such as 'communicative purpose' as fundamental determinants of context. Firbas ( 1975: p.318 ) points out that "in deciding context dependence or independence the last court of

appeal is the communicative purpose imposed on the utterance by the immediate communicative concern of the speaker".

It should be mentioned that many attempts have been made at developing FSP formulations and enhancing the original theory by a more comprehensive coverage of what actually takes place beyond the sentence. Most notable in this respect is the set of procedures proposed by Daneš (1974) which came to be referred to as 'thematic progression' (TP). According to Daneš (1974: p.113), "by this term we mean the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to hyper-themes of the superior text units (such as the paragraph, chapter, ...), to the whole text, and to the situation". To substantiate this point with examples, let us examine the following sample:

#### Text 8

Theme 1 ( The Soviet people ) ... Rheme 1 ( were given back the bulk of their history )

Theme 2 ( they ) ... Rheme 2 ( were told that ... )

( The Guardian: 3.11.1987 )

Following Daneš (1974), it may be assumed that thematic progression fulfils two main functions in discourse: first, connecting back and linking in to the previous discourse, and maintaining a coherent point of view; and second, serving as a point of departure for the further developments of the discourse. This is consonant with the fact that these two functions, combined together, pave the way for the production of an emotional effect in the recipient.

As far as thematization is concerned, Quirk maintains that "elements placed initially, for thematic prominence, vary in style and effect" ( 1973: 412 ). This is true of Arabic as well. Attiq ( 1984: 149 ), for instance, observes that:

SLT:

"وعلى هذا فتقديم جزء من الكلام أو تأخيره لا يرد أعتباطاً في نظم الكلام وتأليفه، وإنما يكون عملاً يقتضيه غرض بلاغي أو داع من دواعيها."

TLT:

"Thus the advancing or postponing of a segment of discourse does not occur at random in the arranging and composing of discourse; it is rather an intentional action required for a rhetorical objective or for some other reason".

Hence, it may be said that Attiq's statement can be regarded as a true account of the choice between the nominal and verbal clause types in Arabic, in particular, on the ground that the nominal is highly evaluative while the verbal is non-evaluative. This can be seen in the following examples:

(Arabic editorial)

Text 7

المعارك الطاحنة الدائرة منذ أسبوعين حول المخيمات الفلسطينية في لبنان  
تصاعدت حدتها بشكل يهدد بانفجار كبير في مخيم الرشيدية.  
(الشرق الاوسط: 11/4/1987)



(English editorial)

Text

the news that Mr. Casper Weinberger is about to resign as US Defence Secretary will probably not cause any great sorrow in European capitals.

( Financial Times : 4.11.1987 )

Having examined the above-cited excerpts, we may say that text producers in English and Arabic editorials resort to the nominal structure, because it displays evaluativeness which gives rise to emotional language. In news reports, on the other hand, we note that the verbal structure is the most predominant type in both languages. This can be shown in the following samples:

(Arabic news report)

Text 2

أفتتح الرئيس المصري حسني مبارك والسيد حاك شراك رئيس الوزراء  
الفرنسي أمس أول خط لمترو الانفاق في مصر.  
(الشرق الاوسط: ٢٨/٩/١٩٨٧)

(English news report)

Text 5

The Government will give emergency aid to the local authorities worst hit by last week's hurricane.

(The Guardian: 20.10.1987)

In the light of the foregoing, being armed with such information in mind, we may conclude that the emotive sense of thematic fronting is brought about by two essential syntactic features: first, theme constitutes "the point of departure" (Halliday : 1967 ). The rest of an utterance is processed and understood on this basis: by placing an element at the forefront of a sentence, the recipient's attention is implicitly drawn to the significance of that element. Quirk ( 1973: p.412 ) mentions that "it is as if the thematic element is the first thing that strikes the speaker, and the rest is added as an after thought". Second, thematic fronting confines a proposition to an element, i.e., it keeps the receiver from thinking about any element other than that to which the proposition is confined.

In this section, as a conclusion , it is hoped that we have been able to shed some light on the phenomenon of emotional language both in English and Arabic news reports and editorials. In the foregoing pages, it may be said that a certain number of phenomena in English and Arabic have been claimed to be due to some emotional attitude on the part of the writer or speaker, or to his desire to impress or affect his hearer or reader in some special way. Such phenomena may, therefore, be thought to reveal an emotional tendency or to spring from emotional causes. However, we may derive from this analysis one important conclusion , namely, that the emotive elements employed for evoking reactions in the reader may be assumed to be instinctive in the writer or speaker.

## Section Two:

### The Analysis Proper:

In this section, I shall deal with the emotive phenomenon in the expository text-type, namely, the newsreport. For this purpose, three texts in Arabic A, B, and C will be separately analysed entirely from a text-typological perspective. The second step in this section will be the comparative analysis of the three texts, and, finally, a translation of text A will be introduced to trace the emotive features reflected in the target text.

### 3.13. Emotiveness in the Expository Text-type: the Newsreport:

Given the fact that contextual analysis is still far from comprehensive, we would like to consider one subtle variable that is primarily located in the communicative domain but links up, though in a secondary way, with pragmatics. This variable is called the -/+ emotiveness .

The newsreport, a sub-type of exposition, yields a number of text-forms. We shall focus on one of these, i.e., the emotive newsreport. It is characterized by the use of an emotive rather than neutral style which inevitably involves the reader and which is reflected in both the structure and the texture of the text.



### **3.13.1. Emotiveness Versus Evaluativeness:**

It should be mentioned here that this emotive element in newsreports is not to be confused with the argumentative evaluativeness of the editorial form. For, while both are pragmatically intended to influence the receiver's behaviour, the + emotive does it by relating facts and events while the + evaluative evaluates these and judges them.

### **3.14. Analytic Procedure:**

We shall look at the variable 'emotiveness' by first embarking on an intra-lingual analysis of two news reports in Arabic: text A + emotive and text B neutral. The aim is to make the deviation, + emotiveness in this case, even more apparent through a comparison with the norm, the neutral news report. Secondly, we will analyze text C + evaluative to assess evaluativeness. The three articles, texts A,B, and C, are taken from the Kuwaiti newspaper 'Al-Watan'.

On analysing the texts, we will consider:

- a. typographical conventions, headlines and punctuation.
- b. context.
- c. structure
- d. text.

When considering typographical conventions, we will talk about 'pragmatics' and 'sentences' as elements of the surface structure of text. However, when presenting the analysis proper, we will adopt the labels suggested in the 'hierarchic organisation' of text proposed in Hatim

(1984) which divides text into

Text [supra\_sentential Entities [Elements, which we consider more appropriate for our Arabic texts. Arabic examples will be accompanied by an English translation.

### 3.15. Text A

Arabic + emotive news report

## الكويت تستنكر الجريمة

اغتيال الديمقراطية في الهند  
١٦ رصاصة سيخية أنهت حياة انديرا غاندي  
راجيف رئيساً للحكومة وإجراءات عسكرية لمواجهة الموقف

فجعت الهند والعالم باغتيال السيدة انديرا غاندي "٦٧ سنة" رئيسة وزراء الهند، ورئيسة حركة عدم الانحياز وهي الجريمة التي رأى فيها المراقبون اغتيالاً للديمقراطية التي جاهدت السيدة غاندي على إرساء دعائمها. فبعد ٣٦ سنة على اغتيال غاندي "أبو الأستقلال الهندي" رصاص مهووس من الهندوس، أنهت صباح أمس الأربعاء ١٦ رصاصة أطلقها ثلاثة من المهووسين السيخ، يعملون في الحرس الخاص لرئيسة وزراء حياة "أم الهند الحديثة" انديرا غاندي لدى سيرها مترجلة من منزلها إلى مكتبها الذي لا يبعد سوى ٢٠٠ متراً.

وأكدت التقارير أن غاندي توفيت على الفور من الناحية الاكلينيكية حيث أصيبت في القلب والصدر والبطن ونزفت كميات كبيرة جداً من الدم ولم تفد معها جهود الاطباء في المستشفى حيث أجريت لها عملية جراحية عاجلة لاستخراج الرصاصات.

وفور الاعلان عن اطلاق الرصاص على غاندي أعلنت حالة الطوارئ القصوى في صفوف القوات الهندية وأغلقت الحدود مع باكستان وبنغلادش واتخذت إجراءات عسكرية وأمنية مشددة تحسباً من وقوع أحداث انتقامية ضد طائفة السيخ خاصة وأن متحدثاً باسم الطائفة أبلغ إحدى وكالات الانباء في نيودلهي هاتفاً إن الطائفة بأسرها مسؤولة عن اغتيال انديرا و"لقد انتقمنا... والبقاء لديانة السيخ".

الرئيس الهندي زايل سينغ ، وهو من الشيخ، قطع زيارته الرسمية لصنعاء وعاد إلى نيودلهي على الفور، وعين فور وصوله راجيف غاندي "٤ سنة" الابن الأكبر لانديرا رئيساً جديداً للوزارة وأقسم اليمين الدستورية في وقت لاحق.

وإن سرعة تعيين رئيس جديد للوزارة فاجأت المراقبين الذين كانوا يتوقعون نشوب صراع طويل على السلطة داخل حزب المؤتمر الذي يسيطر على الحياة السياسية الهندية منذ الاستقلال سنة ١٩٤٧.

وقال المراقبون إن التعيين السريع لراجيف غاندي أنقذ الحزب الحاكم وأنقذ الهند كلها من الفتنة والصراع رغم المصاعب الكبيرة التي تنتظره من المعارضة ومن عائلته نفسها حيث أن زوجة شقيقه المتوفي سانجاي تفود حزباً للمعارضة وتأمل في الوصول إلى السلطة.

الكويت إستنكرت الاعتداء الآثم على حياة انديرا غاندي، وقال صاحب السمو أمير البلاد في برقية تعزية للرئيس الهندي وشعب الهند إن الكويت ستذكر بالتقدير حرص انديرا على تعزيز علاقات الصداقة التقليدية بين الكويت والهند.

وقال سمو ولي العهد رئيس مجلس الوزراء الشيخ سعد العبدالله في برقية مماثلة إن العالم أجمع يستشعر غياب هذه الزعيمة العظيمة. وأعرب نائب رئيس الوزراء وزير الخارجية ووزير الاعلام الشيخ صباح الاحمد الجابر عن أمله ألا يؤثر اغتيال رئيسة الوزراء الهندية على استقرار الهند وأن يستمر البلد الصديق في سياسته كرائد من رواد عدم الانحياز.

أما وزير الدولة عبد العزيز حسين فقد قال إن العالم يفتقد إحدى الزعامات البارزة لدول عدم الانحياز كما تفتقد الكويت والعالم العربي صديقاً متفهماً للقضايا العربية وقضايا العالم الثالث.

وعلى صعيد ردود الفعل الاخرى، أجمعت دول العالم على اختلاف سياساتها وتوجهاتها، على إدانة جريمة اغتيال غاندي واعتبارها خسارة فادحة للعالم والديمقراطية.



### 3.15.1. Typographical Conventions:

#### A. Headlines:

The text is composed of 4 headlines with a scale of 4 gradual sizes. There is the 'news signal' ( Van Dijk: 1985) which is a summary of the whole issue seen from a certain point of view: the assassination of democracy. This news signal occurs in conjunction with other headlines which are called 'details' ( Van Dijk: 1985 ). The news signal sets the scene and the orientation for the whole news report. Its force lies in the fact that behind the physical act of murdering Mrs. Ghandi there is an enormous crime, that of assassinating a whole concept: democracy. Details 1,2 and 3 revolve around the signal, each adding information from a different point of view. Detail 1, which is about the reaction of Kuwait, the country where the newspaper is issued, is interestingly placed at the top.

We should emphasize that the headlines in this text contribute to the effect of this text with the information they bring in. The main title, however, does not only relay information, but it evaluates it.

#### B. Paragraphing:

There are 10 paragraphs. The initial paragraph, the largest (2 sentences), starts with a verbal structure as a scene setter. There are 9 shorter ones ( 1 to 2 sentences ), 5 of which have a verbal or a verbal with initial adverbial as scene setters; and 4 are nominal.

#### C. Punctuation:

Although there is nothing to differentiate the present text from any other news report to be found in any newspaper, it must, however, be pointed out that this text does not systematically stick to English sentence pattern and punctuation conventions. There is no excessive use of full-stops and commas; ideas are smoothly linked to each other with connectors such as wa 'and'. Paragraphs are linked with adverbials of time, contrast ... etc., such as wa fawra 'soon after' .

و فور

wa ala sa'id 'at the level of'

وعلى صعيد

In addition to their nominal use in quotations, quotation marks are used to isolate numerals " ٦٧ سنة " '67 years'. This may have a rhetorical purpose: why kill an old defenceless woman who had only few years to go in active politics? They are also used for what seems to be translated expressions, for example:

"the Mother of Modern India "

"أم الهند الحديثة"

"the Father of India's Independence"

"أبو الأستقلال الهندي"

### 3.15.2. Context Analytic Categories Applied to text A.:

#### A. Situationality and Intentionality:

In the given situation, the addresser tries to describe and comment on the issue, the assassination, in such a way as to transmit to the addressee

his shock at, and condemnation of, the event. This aim is achieved by using certain vocabulary and images carrying + or - emotiveness .

#### B. Intertextuality:

Many terms and expressions are used which involve intertextuality, i.e., require previous knowledge of certain concepts outside the text. They are necessary not only to capture the communicativeness of the whole text, but also to grasp its pragmatic content. They will be presented in order of importance below. To take one example, being acquainted with the history of India and the interethnic fights that have been tearing it apart since its independence is necessary and will give words such as Sikh 'Sikh' or, Hindus 'Hindus'. They add emotive values within the text, as in the following examples:

"the Father of India's Independence"

"أبو الاستقلال الهندي"

"the Mother of Modern India"

"أم الهند الحديثة"

"The Non-aligned Movement"

"حركة عدم الانحياز"

"took the constitutional Oath"

"أقسم اليمين الدستورية"

#### 3.15.3. The Structural Analytic Categories:



#### A. Other than wa Connectivity:

The commonly used connective 'and' wa occurs 39 times out of 46. Another connective is amma 'as for'.

#### B. Adverbials:

A normal position of adverbials in exposition is after the verb in both verbal and nominal sentences. In text A, however, out of 7 occurrences 4 occur initially before the verb. Such adverbial fronting is intended to highlight: time sequence, e.g. wa fawra 'as soon as' and fabada 'after'; shift of focus, e.g. wa ala sa'id 'at the level of'; and urgency, e.g. wa fawra 'as soon as'.

#### C. The Use of Tense:

The tense which predominates in the text is the past. Out of 36 verbal occurrences, 8 are in the present. Regarding voice, out of the 36 verbal occurrences 6 are in the passive and the rest are active. The normal significance of the passive is maintained, particularly in fujiat 'afflicted with grief', where one may detect an element of shock, and consternation, that would have been weakened by the use of the active. The use of other than the past tense relays current relevance essential for background information.

#### D. The use of Nominal Clause Structures As Scene Setters:

Out of 11 scene setters, 4 are nominal. The remaining ones 7 are verbal, two being initiated by adverbials. In paragraph 4, for example, the use of the nominal immediately after stating the name and rank of the Indian president is to highlight the fact that he is a Sikh himself, which has a communicative and pragmatic function, the agents of the crime being Sikh.(the Indian president, himself a Sikh).

الرئيس الهندي و هو من السيخ

The scene setter of paragraph 5 is (the rapid appointment)

سرعة تعيين

It is the topic of the paragraph, hence the use of the nominal as a highlighter. In paragraph 7, the scene setter marks the shift from the point of view of the commentator to that of Kuwait, a reaction which is the subject of detail 3, and is motivated by the fact that the newspaper is semi-official. In paragraph 9, the nominal which starts with the use of amma 'as for' here is not to express contrast but to highlight the function of the personality, as in the following examples:

( Minister of State)

وزير الدولة

( His Highness )

سمو ولي العهد

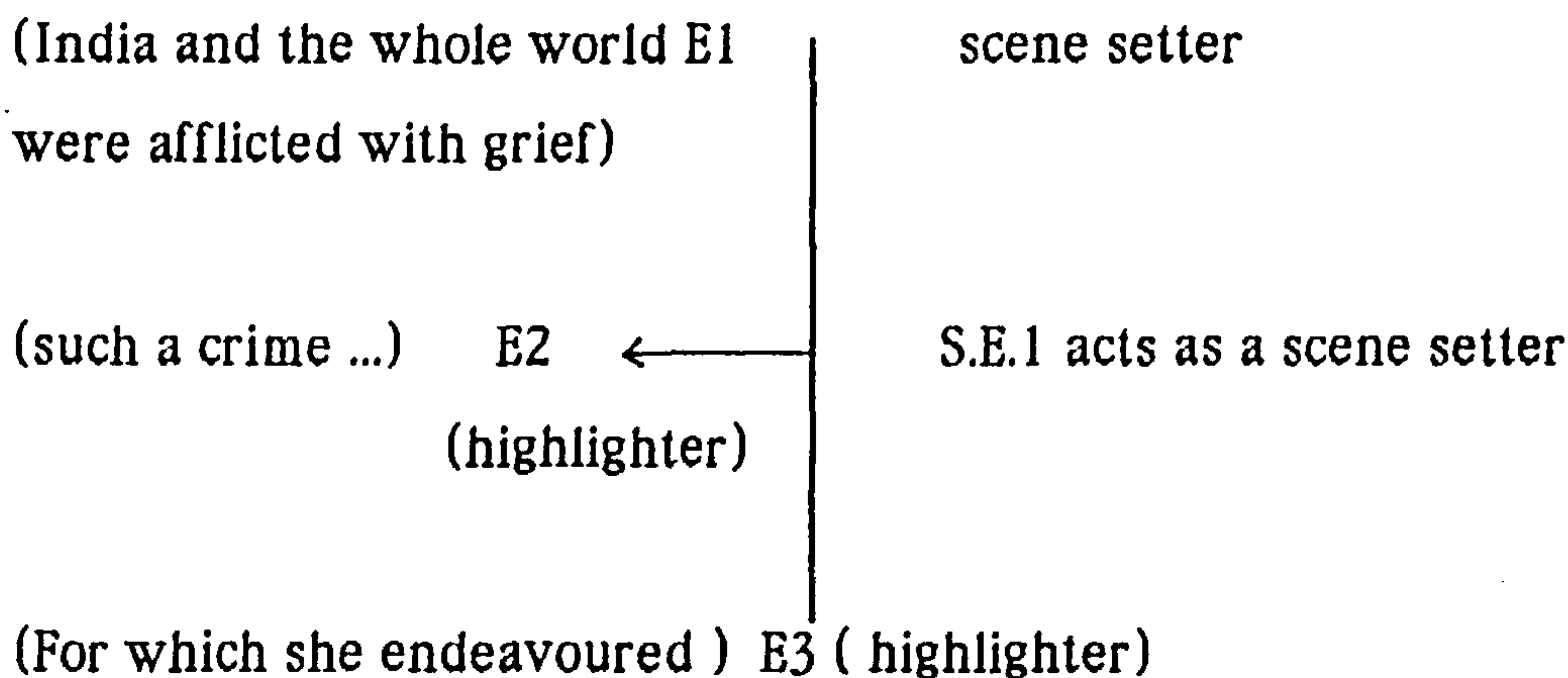
(His Majesty)

صاحب السمو

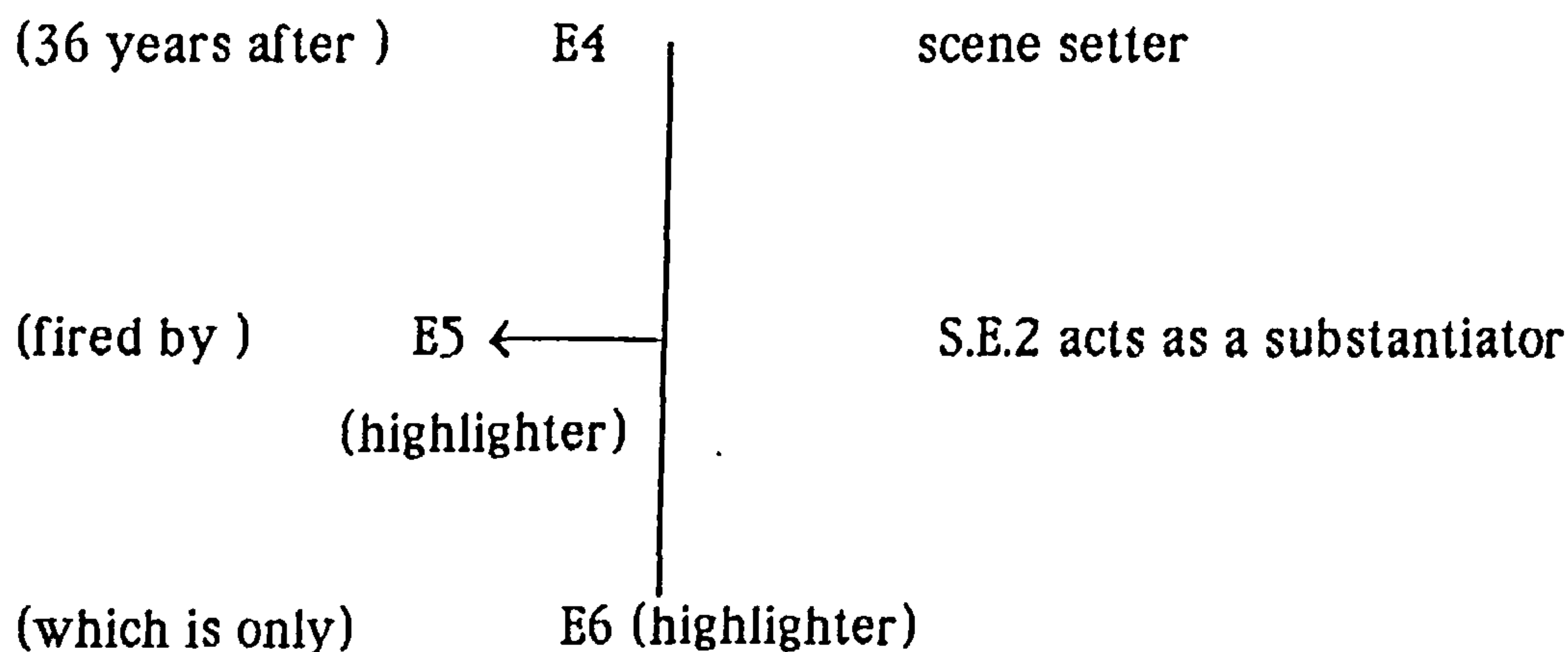
E. Speech Acts:

Two 'supra-sentential elements' can be identified in the chunk that forms paragraph 1:

(a) S.E.1 is composed of three elements and sets the scene of the whole chunk, as in:



(b) S.E.2 is also composed of three elements. It acts as a substantiator of S.E.1, as in:



We should mention here that there are several substantiators in the



article:

(such a crime) وهي الجريمة in paragraph 1, by substituting the word (assassination) expresses a viewpoint about the issue; (condemns) فبعد ٣٦ سنة (36 years after) تستنكر ; clarifies some time relations between past and present events; (more particularly since) خاصة وأن expresses justification; and ( as for ) أما expresses contrast between different political positions.

These elements which express contrast, justification, and explanation or act as highlighters indicate that our text is not a mere enumeration of events, but is also intended to evaluate these events by making emotive statements and using the elements as devices to signal the reactions between the different elements of the text in a way which reflects the author's intention.

#### **3.15.4.The Textual Analytic Categories:**

A. Use of Metaphors, Cliches and Collocations:

a. The Use of Personification as in

(The assassination of democracy in India)

إغتيال الديمقراطية في الهند

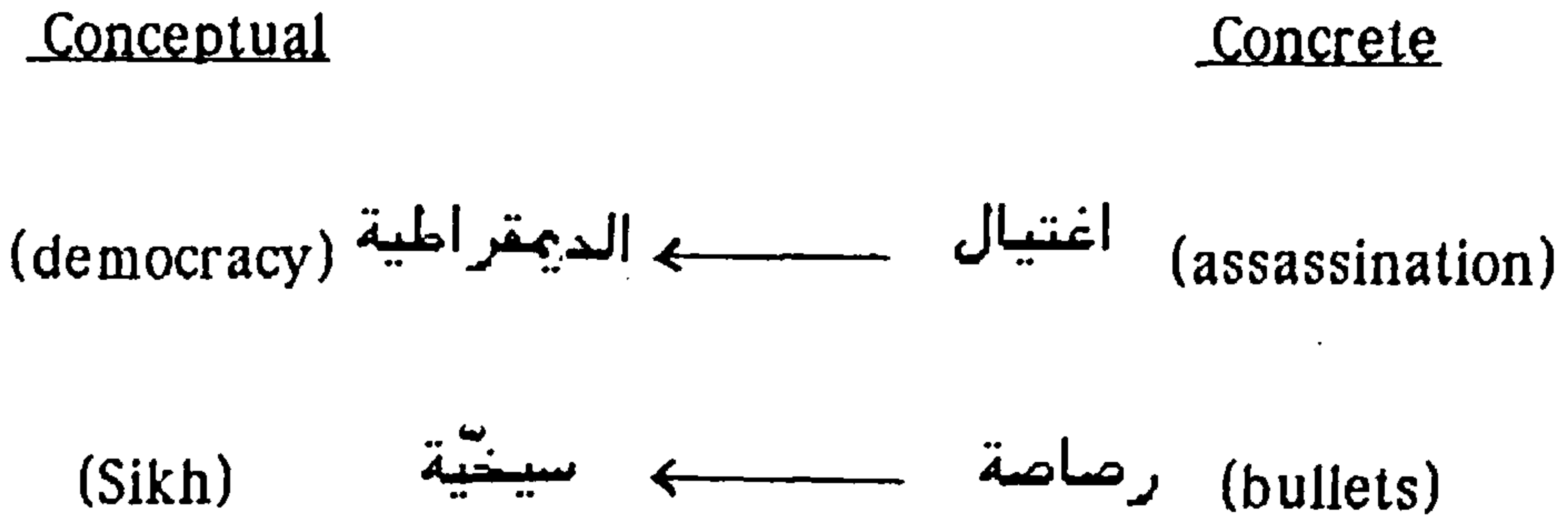
'democracy' a concept, is personified by its use with 'assassination' which in itself carries the idea of violence and crime and, therefore, involves emotiveness.

(16 Sikh bullets) ١٦ رصاصة سيخية

'bullets' is also personified by its use with an ethnic adjective. This personification has another objective. As the main issue, seen in the 'text signal', is about a concept . **سيخية** 'Sikheiya' here is seen not as referring to particular person, the Sikhs who pulled the triggers, but rather to person belonging to an entity, i.e., the Sikhs in general. Thus, the 16 Sikh bullets fired, although concrete, are intended to relay the symbolism that all the Sikhs together were trying to get rid of dictatorship; as the text says: الطائفة بأسرها مسؤولة

(the whole community is responsible )

The pragmatic function is relayed here, by the concretisation of concepts as persons through the communicativeness of juxtaposing the conceptual and the concrete:



b. Metaphors:

"The Father of India's Independence"

"أبو الأستقلال الهندي"

"The Mother of Modern India"

"أم الهند الحديثة"

Here, again we are presented with concepts personified or persons conceptualized, a device which is not free from emotiveness. "The father " or "the mother" will re-create an image in the reader's mind and involve him emotionally.

C. collocations:

In (endeavoured to lay its foundations)

جاهدت على إرساء دعائمها

there is an idea of unremitting efforts.

(the criminal aggression)

الاعتداء الآثم

and (painful loss)

الخسارة الفادحة

are negative collocations which involve emotions as there is a negative value judgement expressed about them.

d. Repetition:

The repetition of ( demented), which is a negative adjective, adds to the sense of atrocity, crime and emotion characterizing the issue and dominating the text.

B. The Use of Neutral Versus Emotive Vocabulary:

In addition to the metaphors and collocations involving emotiveness, there is a list of emotive vocabulary which is much longer than that of neutral vocabulary. These, mainly negative items, are verbs, adjectives,



and nouns. They are employed to 'colour' the text (Wallace:1981). For example:

(ended the life of )

أنهت حياة

(was afflicted with grief)

فجعت

(condemns)

تستنكر

(was hurt)

أُصِبت

(which is only 200m)

الذي لا يبعد سوى

### C. Lexical Cohesion:

This is achieved, on the one hand, through the use of collocations and, on the other, through the use of certain vocabulary from restricted fields within a particular province. For example, within the province of medicine, we have:

(hospital)

مستشفى

(urgent operation)

عملية جراحية عاجلة

(clinically)

من الناحية الاكلينيكية

(lost huge quantities of blood)

نزف كميات كبيرة من الدم

( was hurt)

أُصِبت

'status' is equally expressed in the text, e.g.

(Mahatma)

المهاتما

(Prime Minister)

رئيس الوزراء

(His Majesty the prince)

صاحب السمو أمير البلاد

#### D. Topics and Distribution of Background Information:

The text can be divided into three parts:

1. The news: the assassination + details (paragraphs 1 and 2).

2. Its political consequences + details

(paragraphs 3,4,5 and 6).

3. Kuwaiti and international reaction

(paragraphs 7,8,9 and 10).

At this point, we may say that there is a gradual gradation from main information, consequences and comments to minor information - which nevertheless concerns the same issue - about the reaction of the Kuwaiti authorities.

In the first six paragraphs, minor information intermingles with the main information . Minor information is brought in for the purpose of evoking the whole situation and activating other concepts and issues related to it.

Examples of minor information:

in paragraph 1:

(Head of the non-aligned movement)

رئيسة حركة عدم الانحياز

in paragraph 5:

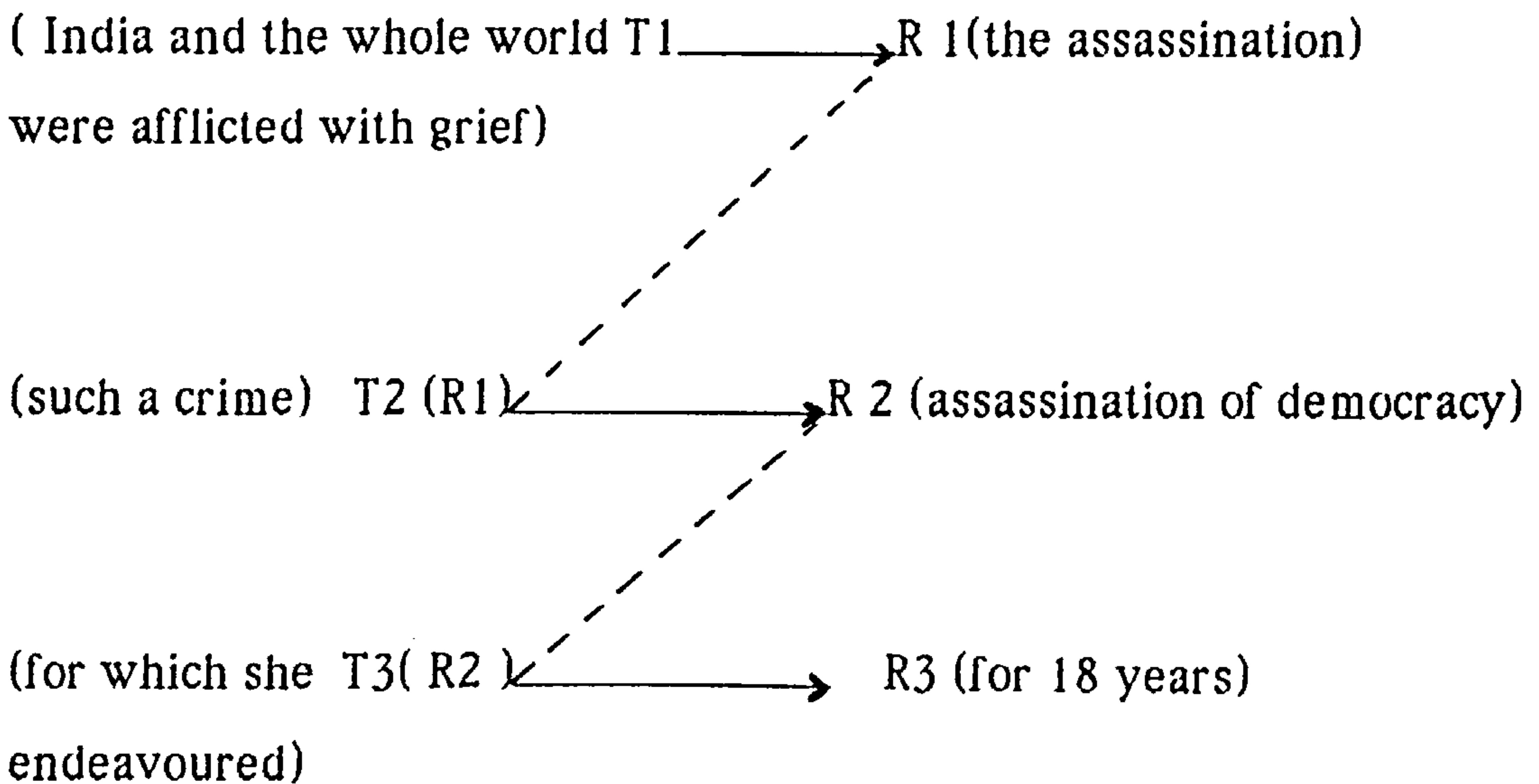
(From his own family)

ومن عائلته نفسها

This is for the first six paragraphs. The four remaining ones contain only background information and thus contribute to the overall effect.

#### E. Theme/ Rheme Progression:

Let us consider the theme/rheme pattern in the first paragraph of our text:



We notice that each rheme is picked up as the next theme , presenting a zigzag pattern. This theme dynamics indicates that each element (theme



or rhyme) is not discarded, but used again in the text in a progressive and gradual pattern which achieves cohesion, continuity, and emotiveness.

### 3.16. Text B

Arabic neutral news report

#### لبنان يطالب باتفاق هدنة جديدة

#### استراتيجية لبنانية سورية مشتركة تجاه الجنوب

اتفقت سوريا ولبنان على استراتيجية مشتركة من عدة نقاط بشأن الانسحاب الاسرائيلي من الجنوب اللبناني، وذكرت مصادر حكومية ان من بين هذه النقاط عدم الموافقة على أي دور أمني لغير الجيش الشرعي مدعوماً من قبل قوات الطوارئ الدولية ورفض تقسيم الجنوب إلى مربعات أمنية مستقلة أو أي شكل من أشكال تقطيع المناطق بحيث تتوزع مهمة الأمن على أفراد بين الجيش وقوات الطوارئ الدولية ومعارضة مبدأ التزامن بين انسحاب القوات الاسرائيلية ومغادرة القوات السورية العاملة في لبنان والتزام سوريا بتقديم كل دعم للبنان فور الانسحاب الاسرائيلي لتمكينه من الحفاظ على أمنه وعدم تعريضه للخطر.

وأضاف أن لبنان سيؤكد على ضرورة رعاية الأمم المتحدة للمفاوضات العسكرية الاسرائيلية اللبنانية المشتركة في الناقورة حتى النهاية وقالت المصادر الحكومية إن لبنان سيطلب باتفاق هدنة جديدة مع إسرائيل يحل محل اتفاق 1989 الذي تقول إسرائيل انه أصبح لاغياً.

وقالت صحيفة النهار امس ان الرئيس أمين الجميل تلقى يوم الاربعاء الماضي رسالة من بيريز دي كويلار الأمين العام للأمم المتحدة بشأن المحادثات بين لبنان واسرائيل.

وأضافت ان الرسالة تتضمن قرار الأمم المتحدة القاضي برعاية المفاوضات العسكرية بين لبنان واسرائيل للاتفاق على الترتيبات الامنية في الجنوب كما تتضمن موعد البدء بهذه المفاوضات وهو الاثنين المقبل وقالت ان الرسالة ذكرت انه تم الاتفاق على ان تجري مفاوضات عسكرية بين لبنان واسرائيل في الناقورة بإشراف الأمم المتحدة لاتخاذ الاجراءات العسكرية بين الجانبين وتحقيق الترتيبات الامنية تمهيداً لانسحاب الجيش الاسرائيلي من جنوب لبنان ونسبت الصحيفة إلى شخصيات زارت القصر الجمهوري ولم تحدد هويتها قولها ان الرئيس الجميل "شدد على ان عبارة جنوب لبنان الواردة في الرسالة تعني الجنوب والبقاع الغربي وراشيا".

وقالت ان الرئيس الجميل ابدى ارتياحه وتفاؤله بالوضع وانّه اعتبر ان صفحة جديدة فتحت على صعيد حل الازمة اللبنانية ونسبت اليه القول ان الجيش اللبناني سيصل الى نهر الاولي باتفاق الجميع.

وقالت ان الجميل قد يقترح اشراك قوات فرنسية وبريطانية لمراقبة الحدود اللبنانية الاسرائيلية في محاولة لحل الخلافات حول ذلك، وأضافت ان الوفد اللبناني سيقدّم الاقتراح الى محادثات الناقورة التي تبدأ يوم الاثنين المقبل.

وذكرت صحيفة السفير امس أن سوريا ولبنان اتفقا على استراتيجية مشتركة في مفاوضات الناقورة تتضمن عدم الموافقة على عدم منح أي دور لقوات لحد العملية في أي ترتيبات أمنية في الجنوب اللبناني في المستقبل ومنح الجيش اللبناني مسؤوليات استثنائية لمعالجة الوضع الأمني بالاشتراك مع القوات الحولية.

أضافت ان الاستراتيجية المشتركة التي تم التوصل اليها خلال محادثات عبد الحليم خدام نائب الرئيس السوري والرئيس الجميل في بكفيا ترفض قبول فكرة انسحاب القوات الاسرائيلية والسورية في آن واحد.

### **3.16.1. Typographical Conventions:**

#### **A. The Headlines:**

There are two different sizes . The 'text signal' extends to two lines and is preceded by one 'detail'. Both are factual statements which contribute to the text's information.

#### **B. Paragraphing:**

There are 8 paragraphs which all, without exception, have verbal structures as scene setters.

#### **C. Punctuation:**

It is regular on the whole. There are two commas, which could be dispensed with, two full-stops and one set of quotation marks. Again in this text, there is no excessive use of English punctuation conventions.

### **3.16.2. The Contextual Analytic Categories of Text B :**

#### **A. Situationality and Intentionality:**

As the emphasis is on events reflected by the profusion of action verbs, the addresser tries to inform the addressee without 'managing' (de Beaugrande: 1987) the situation to change future behaviour. This is evident in the fact that no value judgements are made.

#### **B. Intertextuality:**



No particular knowledge outside the text is required. The text, which deals with Middle-Eastern affairs, will be familiar to readers of the Kuwaiti newspaper 'Al-Waṭān'.

### 3.16.3. The Structural Analytic Categories:

#### A. Other than Wa 'and' Connectivity:

It is clear that the only feature used is wa 'and' whether within paragraphs or between paragraphs. This demonstrates once again that the communicative intention here is more important than pragmatic considerations. It sets the tone of the text: enumeration of facts and events. It is not concerned with concepts, opinions, etc. The result is a sense of repetitiveness, typical of news reports, which are primarily to inform.

#### B. The Use of Tense:

Almost all verbs are used in the past. Out of 39 occurrences only 10 are in the present. Most of these verbs are employed in the active voice except for two passive occurrences:

(has not been specified)

لَمْ يُعَدِّدْ

(has been turned)

فُتِحَتْ

There is apparently no effort on the part of the addresser to avoid certain important repetitions such as:

(added)

وَأُضِيفَتْ

(said)

وقالت

#### C. Scene Setters:

If the fact that the eight paragraphs have verbal structures as scene setters implies one thing, it is that emphasis in our text is placed on action. Focus is on events and information, or details about these events, which is a non-evaluative phenomenon. Indeed, they follow each other in the text at a regular pace. The fact that there are no nominal scene setters or scene setters which start with adverbials demonstrates that focus is on actions, facts, and not on concepts.

#### D. Speech Acts:

As we have pointed out, all the scene setters in this text are verbals preceded by the connector 'and'. Some of these verbs are typical of news reports such as

(said)

وقالت

(added)

أضافت

If we consider the first chunk, namely paragraph 1, we can identify two 'supra-sentential elements':

(Syria and Lebanon agreed) E1

S...E.1 acts as a scene setter

(Government sources mentioned) E2      S.E.2 acts as a highlighter in presenting information. It adds in explanation

(the refusal) E3

(In such a way that ) E4

(the opposition of ) E5

(Syria's commitment) E6

As with all other scene setters in the text, the first two (E1 and E2 ) do not announce viewpoints, substantive opinions,....etc. They announce additional information present in the same source. There is no evaluation of the situation, merely a description or rather enumeration of events.

#### **3.16.4.The Textual Analytic Categories:**

##### **A. Use of Metaphors, Cliches and Collocations:**

Apart from the use of a few collocations, e.g.

( any form of )

أي شكل من أشكال



and metaphors:

(a new page is turned )

صفحة جديدة تُفتح

there is resort to rhetoric. We are clearly within the domain of politics, more particularly that of military withdrawal , and therefore, we find frequent use of technical expressions, for instance,

(joint strategy)

استراتيجية مشتركة

(negotiations)

مفاوضات

(military measures)

إجراءات عسكرية

This choice of a particular, specific, and technical vocabulary shows attention to details and accuracy. It also shows that the real concern is not about opinions or points of view, but events and what they entail. For example, the repetition of information in paragraph 8.

#### B. The Use of Neutral Versus Emotive Vocabulary:

The vocabulary used is specialized and there are no emotive verbs. Most of the verbal elements are typical of news reports style like 'said', 'added', 'visited' ... etc. No descriptive adjectives are used to highlight the situation. In fact, emotiveness in the choice of vocabulary in this text, in general, is conspicuously absent.

#### C. Lexical Cohesion:

It appears clearly from the beginning that we are operating within 'journalese'. The usual jargon achieves lexical cohesion. For example:

(1) within the province of journalism we have:

(Government sources mentioned)

ذكرت مصادر حكومية

(the newspaper attributed)

نسبت الصحيفة

(the newspaper said)

قالت الصحيفة

(2) Within the province of international disputes we have:

(joint strategy)

إستراتيجية مشتركة

(withdrawal)

إنسحاب

(U.N. observation)

رعاية الأمم المتحدة

D. Topics and Distribution of Information:

The text can be divided into three different parts, each of them representing a new source of information. While the first two complement each other in content, the third one mainly repeats the information already seen in part one:

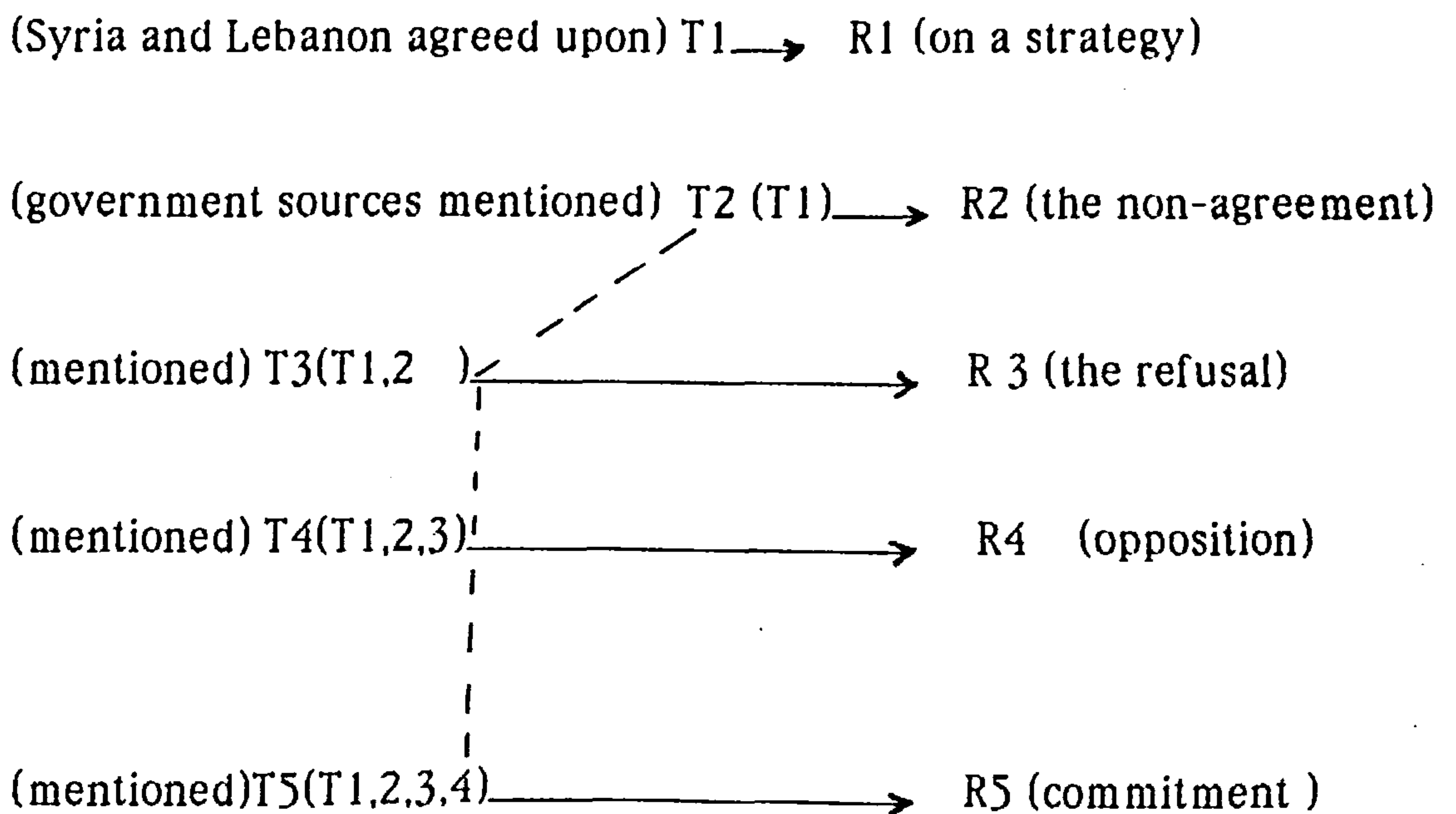
1. Information about the joint strategy from government sources.
2. The same information from the newspaper 'Al-Nahar' and some more details.

3. Almost the same as in (1). The source is another newspaper.

The article, which is about a Lebano-Syrian joint strategy, presupposes that the reader has knowledge about current affairs (in this case it is the Middle-East and, more particularly, war in Lebanon). For this reason, there is little background information. This is made even more important by the fact that the article- text B - appeared in an Arabic newspaper. That is, a lot is assumed. One piece of background information may be that concerning 1949, when an agreement was signed by Lebanon.

#### E. Theme/Rheme Progression:

We notice here a static thematic progression. Each element in the first chunk which here corresponds to a paragraph consists of a theme which is picked up by all the following elements as theme. Rhemes are different, more is re-used. For example,





### 3.17. Text C:

Arabic argumentative article

#### انحيرا...الخسارة والحرس الالهة!!

الخسارة الفادحة لواحدة من ابرز زعماء العالم الثالث يوم امس كانت قاسية.

وقاسية على الشعوب العربية بخسارة صديقة حميمة لقضية العرب الاولى، وصديقة لكل محبي السلام في عالم اليوم المضطرب القلق.

والخسارة فادحة لان ما حدث في الهند يوم امس اكبر من قضية خسارة زعيمة عظيمة حملت في قلبها هموم الملايين من الهنود ودافعت عن الديمقراطية وكانت إحدى ضحاياها.

والخسارة الاعظم هي انه اذا نجح اعداء الهند وهم بالضرورة اعداء لشعوب العالم الثالث كلها في اثاره النزاعات العنصرية والطائفية فان هذا العالم المليء بالمجاعات والفقر والمرض سيتحول الى شيء اشبه بالعذاب.

وإذا اعتقد بعض المتطرفين من طائفة السيخ او غيرها من الطوائف ان الخيمة الهندية لا تنتفع لغيرهم فان الامة الهندية كلها ستكون على كف عفريت وسينشغل الهنود بالحروب الاهلية عن حروبهم الاخرى ضد الجهل والمرض والجوع.

وفي اذهان الجميع ان العنصرية المسيحية جاءت الى الشرق في الحروب الصليبية معتقدة ان ما تفكر به هو بالضرورة ما يفكر فيه شعوب الشرق فكانت الحروب والمذابح.

وفي اذهان الجميع ان مناخيم بيغن يحتل الضفة الغربية والقطاع ويعمل فوق كفه كتابه المقدس ليقول للعالم ان هذه المناطق يهودية لا مكان فيها لغير اليهود معتمداً على نصوص كتابه المقدس.

وفي اذهان الجميع ان بعض الطوائف والفئات اللبنانية اعتقدت ان لبنان لها هي وحدها، وان ما عداها مرفوض فكانت النتيجة حرباً مدمرة تقزرة، كريمة ذهب ضحيتها لبنان وفلسطين بل وكل العرب.

وهل نتعلم شيئاً من إقدام عدد من المتطرفين السيخ على اطلاق النار على انجيرا غاندي؟ هل نتعلم ان العالم الثالث اذا اشتعلت فيه الحروب الدينية والطائفية والعنصرية فان العقل والمنطق سيكونان اول ضحايا هذا العالم وان الدمار الشامل هو القاعدة وما عداه الاستثناء؟

لا بد ان نتعلم من الحرس الهندي فنحن نعيش وسط بركان مخيف من العصبية والطوائف والتكنلات التي لو نجح احد في اثاره الاقتتال بينها فان الجميع سيكونون ضحاياهم. وسيكون استيعاب الحرس حينذاك متأخراً جداً.

### **3.17.1. Typographical Conventions:**

#### **A. The Headline:**

It is composed of one headline starting with a name (Ghandi) then three dots of an exclamatory function, then the second part of the headline and two exclamation marks. We notice that the headline is only one sentence, as opposed to the 4 sentences in Text A and the 2 sentences as in Text B. Here, we note that the aim of the headline in Text C is to attract attention, and that it has a durable effect by summing up the issue or rather the way the author looks at it and evaluates it. It is clear that the rhetorical effect is present, sustained by the use of punctuation. The aim in the previous headlines was to give as much information as possible.

#### **B. Paragraphing:**

There are 11 paragraphs composed of one to two sentences. Most paragraph scene setters are nominal. Most of them start with repetition of elements taken from previous paragraphs.

#### **C. Punctuation:**

It is regular, but varied compared with the previous texts (dashes, question and exclamation marks ... etc.).

### **3.17.2. The Contextual Analytic Categories:**

#### **A. Situationality and Intentionality:**

The text is intended for a readership which is expected to have heard



about and is shocked by the crime. The author is not focusing on the details of the assassination as in Text A . However, through modifiers he is clear about his feelings. What is pointed out is what he thinks the consequences of this event will be for the third world, and that he thinks that some measures must be taken to prevent fanaticism from causing a turmoil. In this situation, there is a clear match between producer's intentions and receiver's reactions.

#### B. Intertextuality:

As there is only cursory reference to the 'Sikhs' in the text, the addresser will need to be acquainted with the ethnic implications of the word as opposed to 'Hindus', and with the third world in general. The reader will more particularly have to be familiar with the Middle-East, as reference is made to Lebanon and to Begin.

### 3.17.3. The Structural Analytic Categories:

#### A. Other than wa 'and' Connectivity:

Paragraphs are linked to each other by means of other than ordinary connectors. That is, except in cases where wa 'and' is used, connectivity is established by other cohesive devices , to be discussed later.

#### B. The Use of Tense:

Tense, whether past or other forms, is used for a different purpose than that we found in the other texts. Here, tense is not a carrier of time or

factual information. It is instead geared to relay a set of hypotheses, comparisons, evaluativeness ... etc. Hence, the verbs are consistently 'non-factual', e.g.

(bore in her heart)

حملت في قلبها

(what they think)

هو ما يفكر فيه

### C. The Use of Nominal Versus Verbal Scene Setters:

The text is heavily nominalized. Most paragraph scene setters are nominal, that is 6 out of 9. Furthermore, the verbal elements are consistently non-factual. The fact that most scene setters are nominal demonstrates that emphasis is not on events, which are more appropriately relayed by verbal structures, but rather on the evaluation of events from the addresser's point of view.

### D. Speech Acts:

Let us consider the chunk of paragraphs 1 to 3:

E1 tone setting element	}	S.E.1
E 2 concept 1 evaluated		
E 3 concept 2 evaluated		

E 4 repetition of the tone setting element	}	S.E.2
E 5 substantiator		

E6 substantiator

E7 substantiator

It is clear that elements are substantiated through the case of nominal devices such as repetition, e.g., E1 and E4 .

### 3.17.4.The Textual Analytic Categories:

#### A. The Use of Metaphors, Cliches and Collocations:

##### 1. Metaphors:

(will be in turmoil)

ستكون على كف عفريت

(we live in a threatening volcano)

نعيش وسط بركان مخيف

(the Indian home)

الخيمة الهندية

(brandish)

يحمل فوق كفه

(bore in her heart the problems )

حملت في قلبها هموم

##### 2. Cliches:

(peace-lovers)

معبي السلام

While use of such devices is far more frequent than in Text B, there are striking similarities between this text and text A in this respect. Such similarities may not be quantitative as in Text C there are more



metaphors. However, there is certainly a striking qualitative resemblance, e.g.

( who endeavoured )

التي جاهدت

(bore in her heart)

حملت في قلبها

( a great loss )

خسارة فادحة

3. Collocations:

(a great loss)

خسارة فادحة

(a sincere friend)

صديقة حميمة

(a great leader)

زعيمة عظيمة

B. The Use of Neutral Versus Emotive Vocabulary:

It would not be difficult to produce a long list of all items of vocabulary carrying value judgement. However, the following should suffice:

1. Modifiers:

(hard)

قاسية

(great)

عظيمة

(too late)

متأخر جداً

(utter destruction)

دمار شامل

(threatening)

مخيف

## 2. Superlatives and Comparatives:

(greatest)

الأعظم

(most)

أبرز

(bigger)

أكبر

## 3. Evaluative words:

(one of)

إحدى

(alone)

وحدها

(all)

جميع

(some)

بعض

## C. Cohesion:

It is achieved mainly through repetition ,which links paragraphs to each other. For instance:

E2 picks up (hard)

from E1

and

E3 picks up (the loss is great)

from E1... etc.

The author also makes constant use of modifiers, comparatives, and

superlatives ,which contribute to the cohesion of the text and its aim and, consequently, make an impact on the reader.

#### D. Topics and Distribution of Background Information:

The headline sums up all the issues discussed in the text. It is divided into two parts:

1. The death of Mrs. Gandhi.
2. The lesson to be learnt from it.

As the editorial is not primarily intended to describe events but rather to anticipate consequences, there is no description of what has actually happened. It is more about concepts. Also as it is about the consequences in the third world of Mrs. Gandhi's death, reference to this is made right from the beginning. The text brings in many 'worlds', i.e., India, Lebanon, the West Bank, but without giving much information about them. It rather focuses on fanaticism and its consequences, which are concepts to be evaluated.

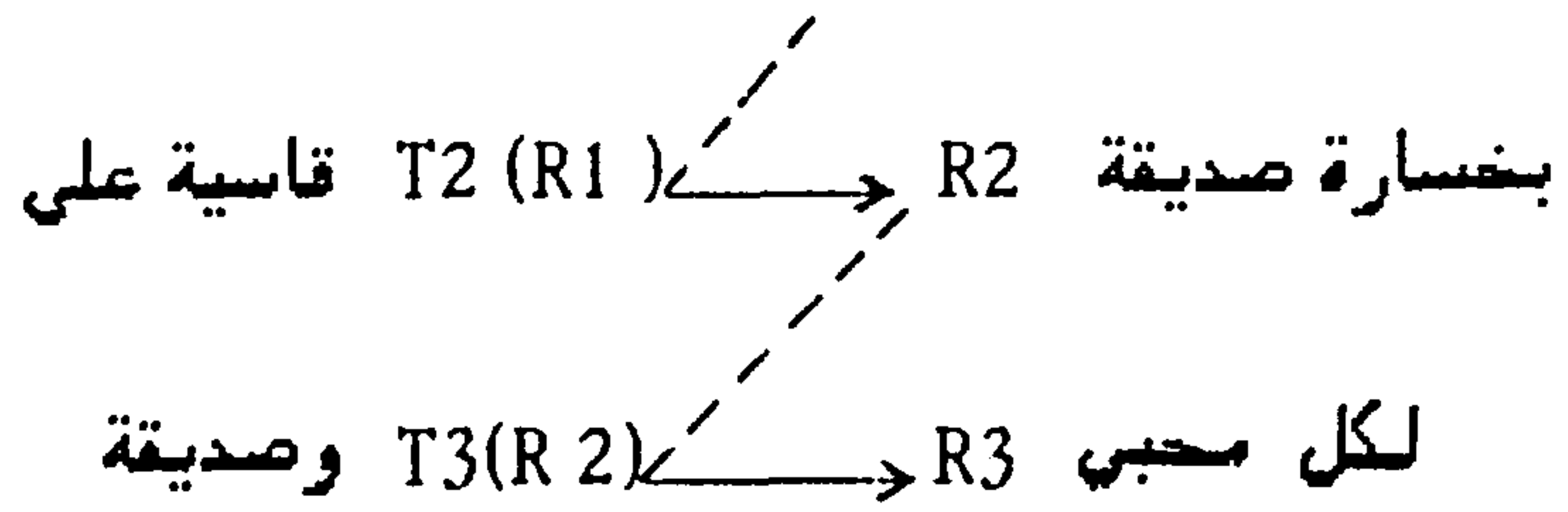
#### E. Theme/Rheme Progression:

Let us consider the chunk of the first 4 paragraphs ,which all have the same topic: (the loss)

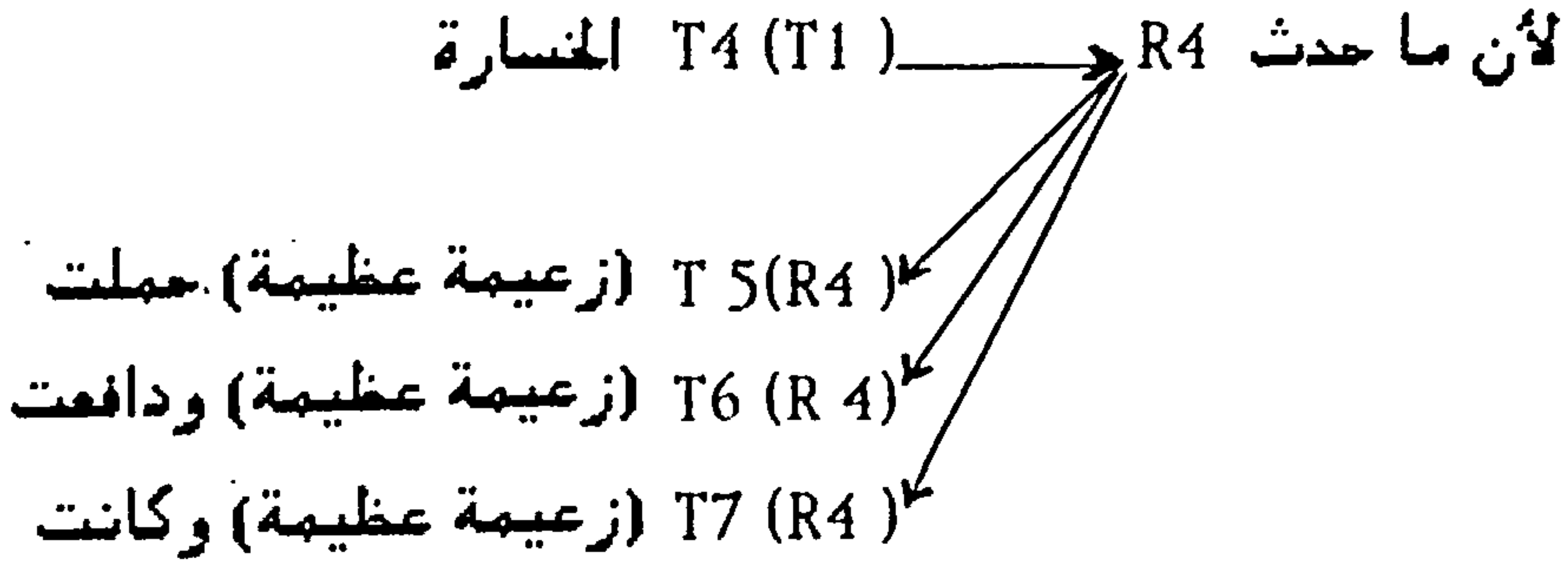
S.E.1

كانت قاسية R1 كانت قاسية  
T1 الخسارة الفادحة





S.E.2



In S.E.1, the first rheme is picked up as the next theme and gives us a turbulence, like the zigzag pattern seen in Text A, which is different from the uniform theme 1, theme 2 ... etc in Text B. This contributes to each element's being the substantiator of the previous one.

S.E.2 presents another turbulent pattern. It picks up T1 from S.E.1 and then R1 is picked up as the following themes T5 ,T6 ,T7 .

### 3.18. Comparative Analysis of Texts A, B, and C:

In the preceding pages, we have analysed three different texts A, B, and C at their three constituent levels: context, structure, and texture. In the

process, we have been able to demonstrate that though A, B, and C have a number of features in common as they all belong to the province of journalese, they differ from each other in a number of basic ways. The difference between A and B, on the one hand, and C, on the other, is text-typological: the former texts belong to the type of exposition, whereas the latter text belongs to the type of argumentation. An interesting insight that our analysis has yielded, however, is to do with the identification of a text form within expository news reports. For instance, Text A, which shares a number of features with the class of texts to which Text B belongs, being - emotive, borrows at the same time a number of features from the argumentative text-type, which is evaluative. In what follows, I shall attempt to piece the evidence together and draw some conclusions in the light of the analysis presented so far.

### **3.18.1. The Typographical Conventions:**

The headline in the news reports A and B is used to sum up the points to be developed in the article, whereas in the editorial C it is used as an attention getter, i.e., to attract the reader's attention to what follows.

In Texts A and B, each paragraph brings in a new fact, a separate event or a piece of information. The case is different in Text C where each paragraph is the expression of a thought stemming from the previous one, producing a chain effect which maintains the reader's interest. Text C also makes a more varied use of punctuation than Texts A and B, a fact which illustrates the use of rhetoric in the text.

### 3.18.2. Context Analysis:

Context analysis has shown that Text B, being informative, i.e., an issue about war in Lebanon, focuses on facts and events. Texts A and C, which cover the same emotional issue, that is Mrs Gandhi's death, proceed by making use of a different pragmatic variable, namely emotively informing and evaluatively convincing. Therefore, whereas Text A expresses some emotiveness while relating the event - through the use of some devices that will be clear in discussing other aspects of the text - Text C comments on the event, and that makes it subjective. It aims at evaluating the whole situation.

### 3.18.3. Structure Analysis:

#### 1. Connectivity:

The connector which is mostly used in Text B is wa 'and'. This connector also precedes each scene setter in every paragraph, producing a monotonous effect that may be represented as follows:

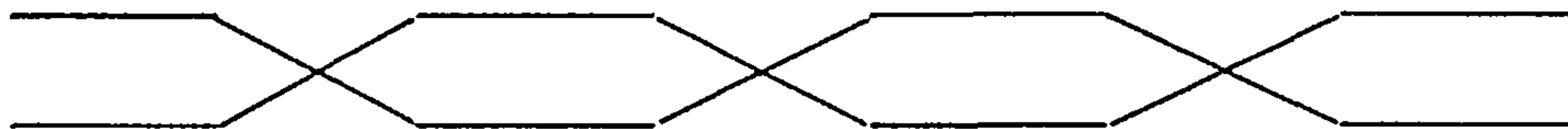
wa — wa — wa. Text A achieves connectivity in two ways through the use of adverbials, e.g., wa fawra 'soon after' and connectors, e.g., wa 'and'. Shift from verbal to nominal structures varies the pace, highlighting new points. The pattern achieved is smoother and can be diagrammed as follows:



Connectivity in Text C is achieved mainly through the use of repetition.



However, wa 'and' is often used. These devices contribute to maintaining the reader's attention by producing a chain effect. The pattern achieved is as follows:



## 2. Tense:

The verbs used in Text B are mostly in the past tense. Many of them are clichés typical of news reports,

e.g. (said)

وقالت

(added)

وأضافت

(mentioned)

وذكرت

In Text A as well most verbs are used in the past tense. However, they are more varied and many of them, I assume, convey an element of emotiveness, e.g.

(was afflicted)

فجعت

In Text C, where focus is not on events, tense is not used to relay time information, but rather the evaluation of facts. Therefore, the use of non-factual verbs is dominant, e.g.

(If they believe)

إذا أعتقد

(shall we learn)

هل نتعلم

## 3. The Use of Nominal Versus Verbal Scene Setters:

As Text B focuses on events, all its scene setters are verbal. In Text A, 4 out of 10 scene setters are nominal. These nominal scene setters are mainly used to highlight shift of focus, as in paragraph 4. In some cases, verbal scene setters are preceded by adverbials which help recreate the atmosphere and express an element of urgency, e.g. wa fawra 'as soon as'.

In Text C, only 3 scene setters out of 10 are verbal. And even then the verbs used are not those usually associated with news reports, such as 'said', 'added' ... etc as in Text B for example. The nominal scene setters, generally concepts picked up from preceding text segments, achieve many purposes, such as focus, emphasis, and the production of a chain effect.

#### 4. Speech Acts:

In Text B, a mere enumeration of events, as we have mentioned earlier, no concepts are evaluated and no statements substantiated. Transition within the text is not from one point of view to another, but rather from one source of information to another. Therefore, no attempt is made on the part of the addresser to evaluate and no expression of emotiveness is in evidence.

In Text A, many substantiators are used, expressing justification (more particularly since), explanation (since...), and contrast, etc. If these substantiators do not systematically evaluate events, they confer an emotive tone on the text.

In Text C, substantiation of ideas is achieved mainly through repetition. The repeated element is substantiated by a new idea, a device which helps build up the argument.

#### 3.18.4. Text Analysis:

##### 1. The Use of Metaphors, Cliches, and Collocations:

Text A employs a number of metaphors, collocations, and personified concepts which 'colour' the text (Wallace: 1981) and produce a subjective element which relays emotiveness. Text B uses fewer metaphors, cliches, and collocations. Those used are typical of news reporting.

Text C employs quite a few metaphors and some collocations which, like Text A, concern certain modifiers usually associated with particular nouns, e.g.

( a sincere friend)

صديقة حميمة

(the great loss)

الخسارة الفادحة

##### 2. Cohesion:

In Text A, cohesion is achieved by the use of vocabulary according to province, i.e., hospital and political assassination, as in paragraphs 7, 8, and 9.

In Text B, lexical cohesion is achieved by the use of journalistic



vocabulary mainly in the province of international affairs.

In Text C, lexical cohesion is achieved mainly by repetition and the sustained use of modifiers, comparatives, and superlatives. Paragraph sequencing also influences how cohesion threads its way through the discourse.

### 3. The Use of Neutral Versus Emotive Vocabulary:

In Text A, emotive substantive verbs and other devices, such as substantiators, are employed to relay emotiveness. In Text B, there is no use of emotive vocabulary. In Text C, there is a profusion of modifiers, repetitions, comparatives, and superlatives which contribute to evaluativeness.

### 4. Distribution of Background Information:

In Text A, reference is constantly made in the first six paragraphs to background information. The remaining paragraphs are devoted to background information, and they are to a lesser extent related to the main news, as they inform the reader about Kuwait's reaction to it.

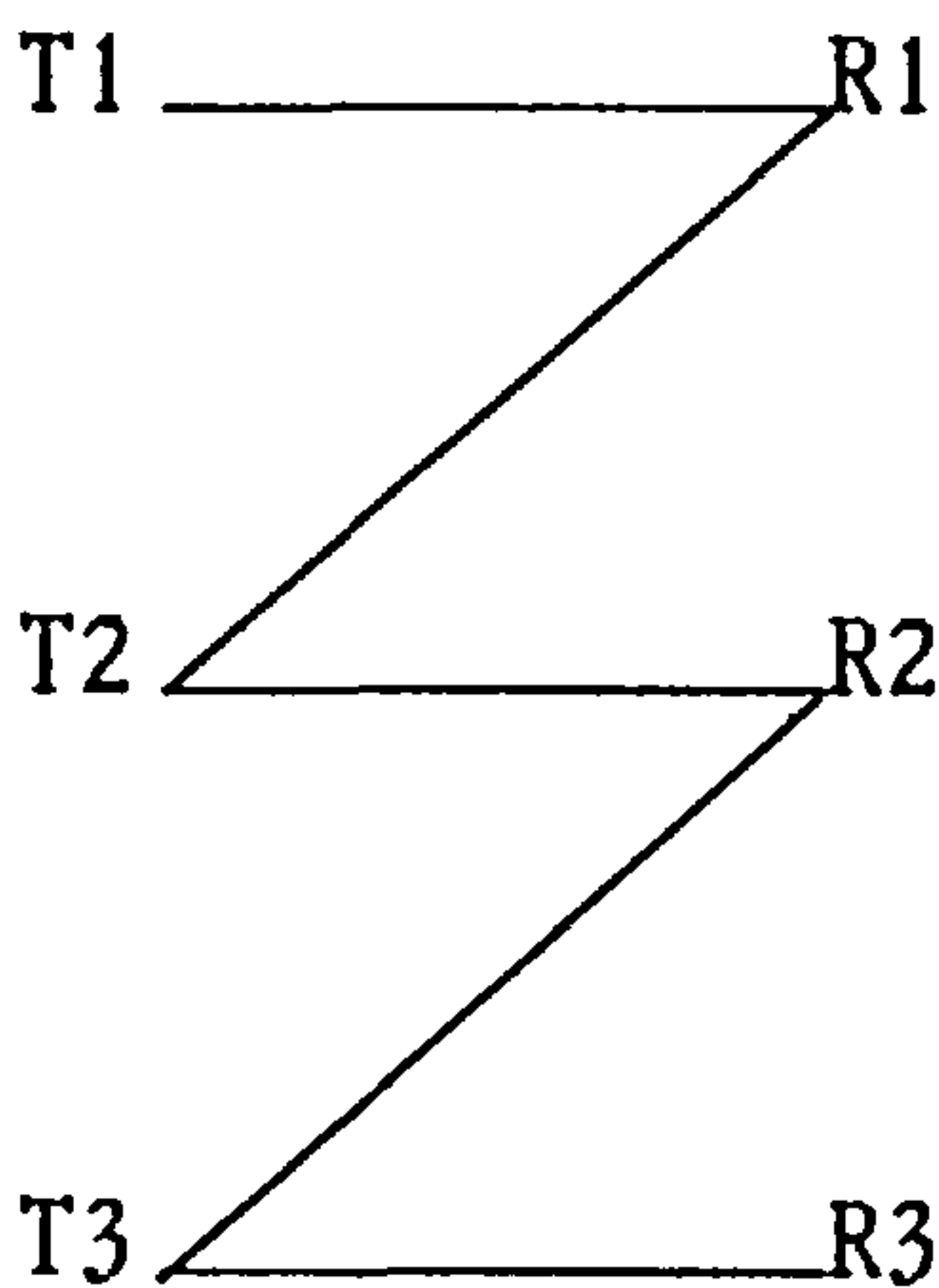
In Text B, if reference is made to some past events related to the issue, for example in paragraph 2, 'the 1949 agreement', no background information is presented. As focus is on events, the data presented is precise, limited and exhaustive.

In Text C, since the primary objective of the addresser is to convince, not

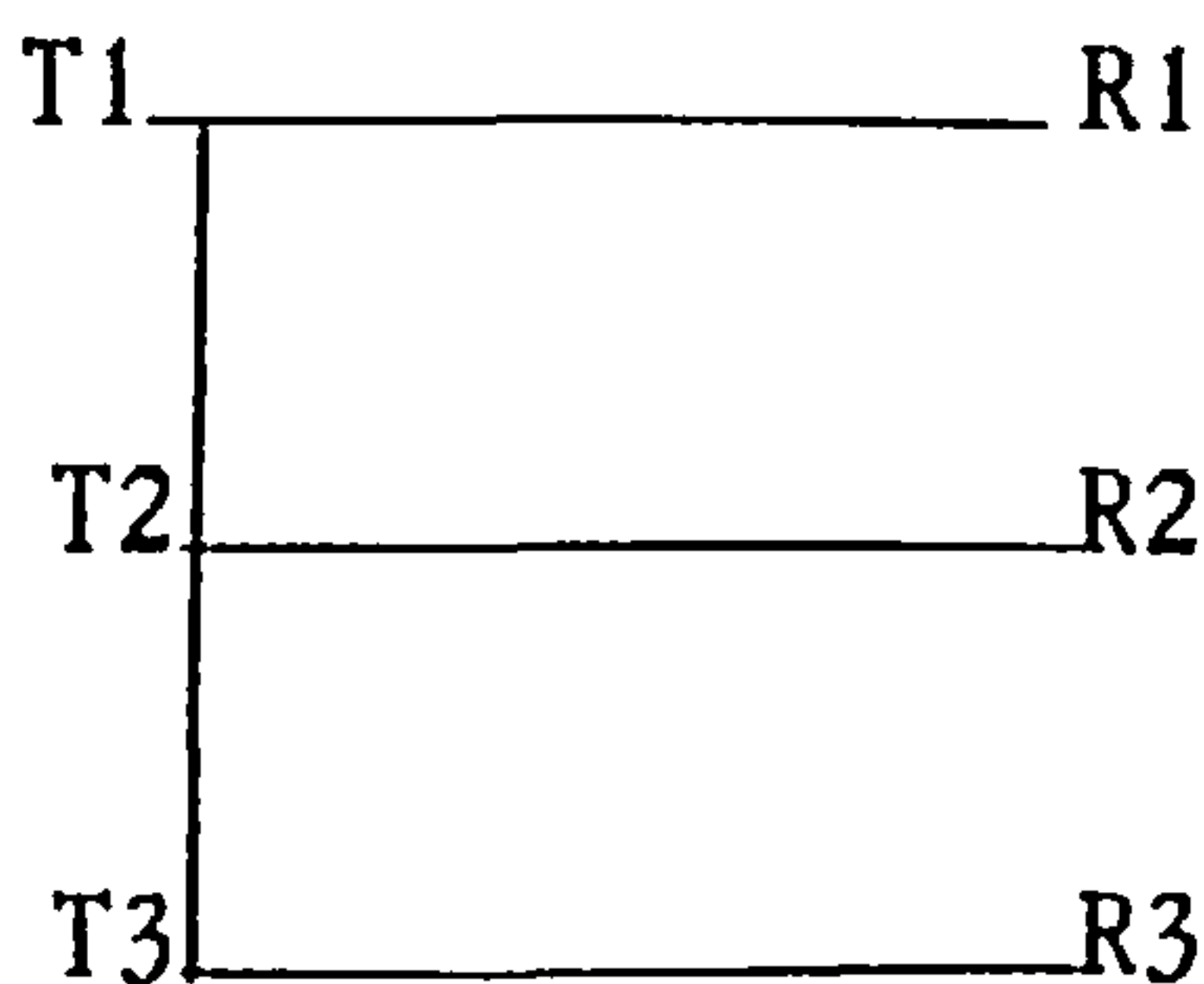
to inform, background information is instead used as, in paragraphs 7 and 8 ,to sustain his argument and to produce a realistic and concrete picture, aimed at convincing the reader.

### 5. Theme/Rheme Progression:

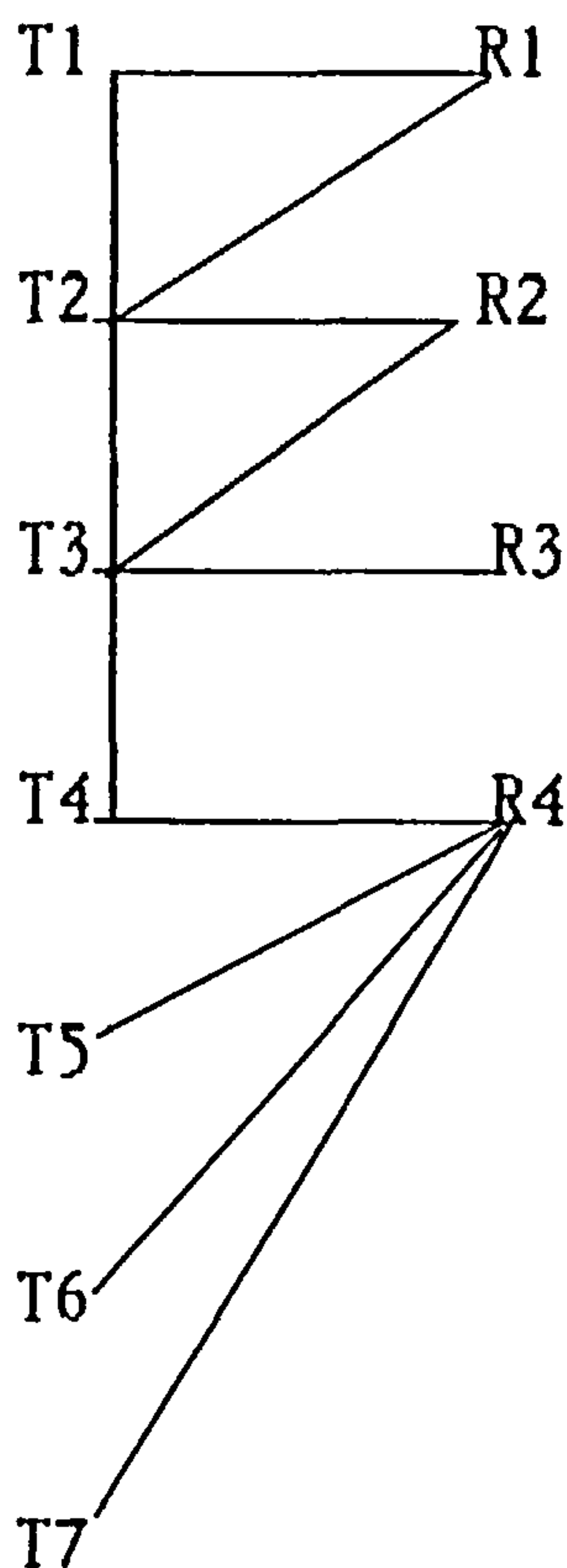
In Text A, the thematic pattern is turbulent and forms a zigzag which illustrates the progression of the elements and their different emotive relations of substantiation and opposition:



In Text B, the thematic pattern produced is uniform. Each theme is followed by its own rheme. They are followed by yet another theme and rheme, with no relation of contrast, justification or opposition expressed, but rather one of addition:



In Text C, the same turbulence within the thematic pattern is to be found as in Text A. However, progression is realized with elements which are even more closely bound to each other, mainly through an accentuated use of repetition; for example, the second pattern identified picks up the same rheme as the theme of several text elements. The purpose is to probe deeper and deeper in an attempt to convince the reader:



Having analysed comparatively Texts A, B, and C, we may say that though A and B belong to the same type: the expository, they, nevertheless, differ in subtle and basic ways. Thus, though both are concerned with presenting facts, Text B - emotive enumerates them, whereas Text A + emotive presents them with subjective overtones. This subjective element, achieved through the use of certain modifiers and substantiators, produces an emotional response, an element which is non-



existent in Text B. This comparative analysis enables us to highlight certain categories which point to the fact that Text A possesses certain features of exposition (Text B) and argumentation (Text C).

Having traced the emotive elements in the previous Texts A, B, and C entirely from a theoretical point of view, let us now see how these emotive features are practically maintained within the process of translation, namely, in the target language text. For this purpose, Text A + emotive, as a sample text, has been translated into English by a translation trainee who has a good grasp of English grammar and vocabulary.

SLT:

Text A

### الكويت تستنكر الجريمة

اغتيال الديمقراطية في الهند  
١٦ رصاصة سيخية أنهت حياة انديرا غاندي  
راجيف رئيساً للحكومة وإجراءات عسكرية لمواجهة الموقف

فجعت الهند والعالم باغتيال السيدة انديرا غاندي "٦٧ سنة" رئيسة وزراء الهند، ورئيسة حركة عدم الانحياز وهي الجريمة التي رأى فيها المراقبون اغتيالاً للديمقراطية التي جاهدت السيدة غاندي على إرساء دعائمها. فبعد ٣٦ سنة على اغتيال غاندي "أبو الأستقلال الهندي" رصاص مهووس من الهندوس، أنهت صباح أمس الأربعاء ١٦ رصاصة أطلقها ثلاثة من المهووسين السيخ، يعملون في الحرس الخاص لرئيسة وزراء حياة "أم الهند الحديثة" انديرا غاندي لدى سيرها مترجلة من منزلها إلى مكتبها الذي لا يبعد سوى ٢٠٠ متراً.

TLT:

Text A 1

**Kuwait Condemns the Crime.**

**Assassination of Democracy in India .**

**16 Sikh bullets have ended the life of Indira Gandhi.**

**Rajiv is Prime Minister and Measures to cope with the situation.**

India and the world have been surprised by the murder of 67 year old Indira Gandhi, Prime Minister of India and the President of the Movement of the Non-Aligned Countries. A crime viewed by the observers as a murder for democracy. Mrs. Gandhi has struggled 18 years in order to establish the principles of this democracy. Following the murder of Mahatma Gandhi 'the Indian Liberator' who was shot by Hindus 36 years ago, three Sikhs among the special guard of the prime minister fired yesterday morning, Wednesday, the sixteen bullets that terminated the life of 'the Mother of New India'. The Prime Minister was walking from her house to her office which is not more than 200 metres far.

Considering the target language text, we, as students of translation, note that the translator does not convey the full sense of the origin to the reader. This may be seen in various situations, as far as emotive meaning is concerned. Since the source language text is highly emotive, the translator should reflect as much as possible that emotive tone in the target language text. In the first place, the translator has not conveyed the feeling of shock and consternation to the reader by translating fujīāt as 'surprised', which is mostly used to give a sense of astonishment. Also, the rendering of anhat as 'terminated' is neither impressive nor idiomatic in this context, because it does not convey the emotional element to the

reader in the target text. Thus, it would be more affective to render anhat as 'put an end to the life'.

Armed with the text-typological model, I assume that a better version of translation may be produced. The reason for this is consonant with the fact that the text-typological model - which indicates that text is an interaction of three dimensions: context, i.e., pragmatics, semiotics communicativeness; structure; and texture - focuses on the reciprocal relation between the function of the text and the reception of the addressee, i.e., the text producer's intentions and the receiver's reactions. In addition to the other functions, the text-typological model also enables the translator to identify the text type:

TLT: TEXT A2

**Kuwait Condemns Murder.**

**Democracy Assassinated In India.**

**16 Sikh Bullets Slay Mrs. Gandhi.**

**Rajiv as The Head of Government; and Military Measures to Meet the Situation.**

India and the whole world have been afflicted with grief at the assassination of the Indian Prime Minister and Head of the Non-Aligned Movement, Mrs. Indira Gandhi 67 years. Such a crime has been viewed



by observers as an assassination of the democracy whose foundations Mrs. Gandhi strove to consolidate during the 18 long years. Thirty-six years after Mahatma Gandhi, 'the Father of Indian Independence', was shot dead by the bullets of deranged Hindus, yesterday morning 16 bullets fired by three deranged Sikhs from the Indian Prime Minister's own special bodyguards put an end to the life of Indira Gandhi, 'the Mother of Modern India' as she walked the mere 200 metres from her home to her office.

Having translated the text in accordance with the text-typological model, we may say that the emotional charge has to some extent been transferred to the recipient in the target language text. This may be felt through the affective vocabulary, such as 'murder', 'slay', 'assassination', 'shot dead' 'fired', and 'put an end to the life'. The employment of such a vocabulary is intended to evoke reactions in the reader and virtually geared towards this.

### **3.19. The Issue of Untranslatability:**

Despite the fact that a piece of translation may be thought of as close to the source language text, yet complete equivalence is impossible. This may be ascribed to Malinowski's view on translation equivalence: "Now we have whittled down our paradox to the platitude that the words from one language are never translated into another. If by full translation we mean the supplying of the full range of equivalence devices, metaphorical expressions, and idiomatic sayings ... such a process is of course possible. But even then it must be remembered that something more than the

mere juggling within words and expressions is needed" (Saussure : 1967, P.302).

Viewed from a similar perspective, Duff maintains that "the source language text may contain words and expressions which represent features of the source language culture that are quite simply not found in that of the target language or present in a very different form "(1981,p. 26). Therefore, Duff concludes that in the process of translating "certain associations may be lost" ( 1981, p. 26).

In a similar approach of reasoning, Catford distinguishes between what he terms 'linguistic' and 'cultural' untranslatability. The former is due to linguistic differences between the source language and the target language, while the latter occurs "when a situational feature, functionally relevant for the source language text, is completely absent from the culture of which the target language is a part" (1965, p. 99). The cultural aspect is once more emphasized by McGuire (1980) as something difficult to translate.

Furthermore, Newmark distinguishes between words and expressions in the source language which express 'physical' aspects and those which represent 'mental' concepts. He points out that "theoretically, all physical phenomena should be translatable accurately, as they are concrete and in the sensible world, whilst mental concepts should be untranslatable, as they are ideal and peculiar to one individual" (1981: pp. 134 - 135 ).

In the long run, even though untranslatability exists, we may , nevertheless, suggest that translators should take into account the emotive phenomenon, in order to preserve the semantic, syntactic, and

rhetorical manipulation in the target language text . On the basis of such a text-typological model, an optimal version of translation may be arrived at.



## CHAPTER IV

### Summary and Conclusion:

Through this study, I have attempted thoroughly to investigate the elements or features which display emotional language on the part of the writer or speaker. The aim of these affective devices is mainly to make the reader or hearer accept the text producer point of view and, consequently, persuade him.

The objective of this thesis has been to produce an analytical study of emotiveness within the framework of speech acts and to explore certain means or strategies which demonstrate such a phenomenon both in English and Arabic news reports and editorials with reference to translation.

In the foregoing pages, a certain number of phenomena in both English and Arabic have been argued to be the result of the motivation of the writer or speaker. They have been ascribed to emotional attitudes on the part of the writer or speaker, or to his desire to affect the recipient in a certain way. Hence, we may suggest that such phenomena are employed to reveal an ideological attitude or to spring from emotional sources in the writer.

In the first chapter, I traced the relevance of text linguistics to the science of translation, substantiating my point with various views introduced by modern linguists. I then analysed a text in accordance

with the text-typological model to demonstrate the validity of the hypothesis. I also gave a review of the various models of translation, considering the text-typological model as the most appropriate one for translation. On this basis, I identified with examples three different text types: the expository in the form of news reports as in Text 1, the instructional as in Text 3, and the argumentative in the form of editorials as in Text 4. Furthermore, I discussed the functions of language, in particular, the emotive function around which the whole work revolves. In addition, I dealt with meaning and its importance in the process of translating, polysemy, synonymy, and lexical translatability. Finally, I embarked on the notion of equivalence in translation, reviewing some concepts presented by theorists of translation for that end.

In the second chapter, I centred on the emotive phenomenon in relation to persuasion and ideology, distinguishing two sections: Section One, on the one hand, dealt with persuasion as a means of expressing emotional language; elements of persuasion; persuasion and emotional language; the concepts of persuasion and manipulation; emphasis and its use in discourse as conducive to emotive tone; stylistics and rhetorics as basic features or characteristics of emotive meaning; the concept and components of style; and the structure of both news reports and editorials. Section Two, on the other hand, concentrated on the relationship between language and ideology by introducing various concepts; ideology and news reporting. Here, I tried to reveal the implicit relationship between ideology and news reporting by decoding some instances of news reports.



In the third chapter, I moved on to the focal point of the thesis, that is the analysis, which is divided into two sections: Section One concentrated on the strategies which display emotive senses, identifying their types, i.e., semantic, syntactic, rhetorical, and stylistic strategies. I discussed these strategies separately, demonstrating how they expedite the evocation of reactions in the mind of the receiver. Section Two represented the analysis by analysing three texts in Arabic, after which a comparative analysis was presented.

In conclusion, we should stress the fact that in order to arouse in readers certain feelings or attitudes, or to incite in them certain reactions, force, freshness, and vivacity of expressions are required, because frequently used words lose much of their force through familiarity. The sharpness of words is, indeed, the driving-force, which impels the emotions of the reader or hearer in accordance with the writer's or speaker's desire. Hence, emotionally-loaded words or expressions transfer, so to speak, the recipient from the world of reason to that of emotion.

In the light of what I have been discussing, I find it quite reasonable to infer that these emotional or affective devices used by writers may be understood to be either instinctive or deliberate. They externalise above all an ideological inclination on the part of the writer or speaker.

At the end, I must admit that this discussion has been incapable of illustrating every emotional and affective device in the data presented, but it is hoped that this study has to some extent illuminated our vision and realisation of the emotional elements employed by writers.



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## APPENDICES

Officials win release of three stabbed prisoners

# Inmates warn gaol siege will end in death

By Sarah Boseley

Three prisoners with stab wounds were brought out yesterday morning from Perth prison, in Scotland, where last night inmates were still holding hostage a warder, Mr George Jolly.

The inmates, who control one wing of the prison, hung out banners during the day warning that the siege would end in death. They underlined their message by repeatedly staging a grim pantomime, with one prisoner brandishing a knife out of a window and pretending to slash the throat of another, who screamed in mock anguish.

The three prisoners with stab wounds left the gaol's besieged C hall after negotiations with prison officials and the police, and were treated in hospital. Another five prisoners slipped out at the same time, and the release of five more was negotiated in the afternoon.

The death warnings from inside the prison were backed by pressure groups outside who said that killings could occur in the wake of the SAS-style raid which ended the five-day siege in Peterhead prison in the early hours of Saturday morning and freed warder, Mr Jackie Stewart.

The Scottish Secretary, Mr Malcolm Rifkind, appeared to take the warnings seriously, although he blamed the outbreak of trouble in Scotland's prisons on "a tiny minority of violent people". He said on BBC Radio: "There is a chance of something very unpleasant happening soon."

He did not, he said, discount warnings made by the former Peterhead inmate turned prison reformer, Mr Jimmy Boyle,



Malcolm Rifkind

who said the Peterhead raid made deaths a possibility. "Mr Boyle has long experience of prisons. That is a factor that has to be borne in mind," said Mr Rifkind.

According to the Scottish office about 100 prisoners were in C hall last night, many of

Leader comment, page 12:  
Prisoners languish, page 3

them against their will. A spokesman said: "A number of other prisoners in the hall are thought to want out."

No one was injured in the fight that began the siege on Sunday afternoon, which may have been staged to distract the attention of other warders while Mr Jolly was seized.

At the back of the five-storey Victorian block of C hall, overlooking an industrial estate, white banners made of sheets appeared yesterday. One said, "Siege will end in deaths" and another, "Rao Raker and Gary Skeet will murder." Later an

abusive message confirmed that the prisoners knew about the rumoured involvement of the SAS at Peterhead.

Police officers gathered to look through the powerful lenses of press cameras as a macabre pantomime was acted out at the fourth-storey windows. Three men were seen, one brandishing a knife. The knifeman drew the weapon several times across the throat of another man wearing a pink shirt. He then slashed a pillow to prove its sharpness. Later, apparently bloodstained shirts were thrown to the ground.

A Scottish Office spokesman said negotiators have spoken to Mr Jolly, aged 39, who has two children, and he is unharmed. He said that overcrowding in Scottish prisons had been largely eliminated in the last few months and that conditions were not the reason for the violence which has racked three Scottish gaols in as many weeks.

He ruled out a royal commission into prison problems, dismissing the recommendations such bodies produce as "proposals dressed up as generalisations."

His concern was for the welfare of prison officers and other inmates. "The vast majority of prisoners do want to continue their sentences in peace. One or two individuals prevent them from doing that," he said.

On the other side of the prison, walkers strolling the South Inch, a green sward dotted with the first autumn leaves, were kept back from the wall enclosing A hall, where prisoners, kept all day in their cells by warders, hurled plates and a burning blanket out of windows and shouted abuse at the police.



shire to celebrate.

## Scotland's prison storm

There was a crisis in the Scottish prisons before the latest horrific incident at Perth; before the incident which ended over the weekend at Peterhead; before the incident a few days earlier at Shotts. (But) three violent episodes, in three different prisons, obviously awaken extreme concern. Yet the Scottish Secretary, Mr Malcolm Rifkind, seemed yesterday to be offering little explanation and no remedies. He preferred to boast about the near-elimination of overcrowding, failing to draw the more worrying message that if that is indeed the case and the troubles are continuing, then there is something even more seriously wrong. Mr Rifkind relied on the "copycat syndrome" and the "small minority of very vicious people." Such an analysis hardly seems to take on board the gravity of what is going on. Using the SAS to free a prison officer in considerable danger may be a necessary if extreme answer to an individual problem; it is no way of preventing future incidents or of addressing the underlying problem. The short gap before the seizing of another prison officer at another prison, Perth, is unwelcome testimony to that truth.

Shotts is a good place to start the analysis. Shotts is the most modern prison in Britain, very recently opened, with modern hygiene and no overcrowding. The easy explanation of Victorian conditions therefore cannot be applied. A proportion of Scottish prisoners seems to be so alienated that modern conditions cannot bring calm. They respond violently to a regime which they find harsh; and there is widespread agreement in Scotland about that harshness. For a start, Scottish prison officers have to spend too much time dealing with prisoners who should not be in prison at all. Nearly 50 per cent of Scottish prisoners are inside for non-payment of fines; 20 per cent are on remand awaiting trial; a further 20 per cent are in prison for drink-related crimes. The situation is worsened by the rules covering parole, which is now

virtually non-existent in Scotland for those convicted of serious crimes. This creates a no-hope atmosphere in the prisons; and anarchy seems to follow.

And then there is the feeling in Scotland that the Scottish Office is not on top of the problem. This is manifested not only by prison reformers (but) by governors and prison officers. While Mr Rifkind dismisses talk of a Royal Commission to look into the crisis by saying it would take too long, others on the ground refer to the Working Party on Alternative Regimes, set up in 1982 and containing senior figures in prison administration, which produced an interim report a year ago — findings neither published nor acted upon. Scotland produced the Barlinnie special unit, internationally acclaimed for both controlling and rehabilitating violent prisoners. It was closed. Its most famous product, Mr Jimmy Boyle, now dealing with ex-prisoners, warns that the Scottish prison crisis will soon see blood-flowing copiously. Without the prospect of remission for good behaviour, or a development of the rehabilitative aspect of imprisonment rather than the simple, and obviously unsuccessful, containment of violent men, that terrifying prediction could all too soon come true.



Chornobachewy

Western pessimism confirmed

# Gorbachev cites grave internal problems

From Christopher Walker, Moscow

"It is a modern state which has immense achievements. It is a society possessing a huge political, intellectual, scientific and natural potential. But it is a society which has many problems."

"There are problems in the political process, in the development of our democracy. There are problems in the social sphere, and in the economy. Problems also exist in the spiritual sphere, in the sphere of moral philosophy and morality."

With that frank admission in the first speech he has delivered for more than six weeks — published in full in yesterday's main Soviet papers — Mr Mikhail Gorbachev, the Soviet leader, confirmed the gloomy predictions of Western experts about the grave internal difficulties that face him after his long absence from the Kremlin.

He chose not to dwell at any length on the parallel international problems, which include a decision on personal arrangements for the Washington summit later this year, and the degree to which he will allow the issue of "Star Wars" to hold up chances for a new accord on cutting long-range nuclear missiles.

Although Mr Gorbachev denied publicly to 365 members of a French delegation that he faced any political

opposition, the outspoken stand taken by Mr Yegor Ligachev, the Kremlin's No. 2, during his Black Sea sojourn, will have been an unwelcome reminder of the differences which remain inside the 14-strong Politburo.

At a heated meeting with Soviet media representatives on September 16, Mr Ligachev is reported to have clashed openly with the most progressive Soviet editor, Mr Yegor Yakovlev of *Moscow News* — one of Mr Gorbachev's most ardent disciples — and to have instructed all editors not to overdo *glasnost* by excessive exposure of failings in Soviet society.

In an angry letter printed in *Pravda* during Mr

Gorbachev's absence a reader complained that the ratio of positive to negative stories now appearing in the press here was one to nine, and demanded this be reversed.

More ominous in the view of Moscow's newly liberated intelligentsia was the warning issued on September 10 by General Viktor Chebrikov, the powerful chief of the KGB. "We have among us, and here one must speak plainly, people with alien ideas which are even openly hostile to socialism," he said.

Significantly, Mr Gorbachev used his first post-holiday appearance to tackle this contentious point, and to try and minimize the threat on his reforms.

Less than 24 hours after reappearing in Moscow after a seven-week absence, Mr Gorbachev flew to Murmansk yesterday to start a provincial tour in the remote but highly strategic northerly port, the largest city in the world north of the Arctic Circle (Our Own Correspondent writes from Moscow).

## Arctic port of call for Kremlin chief

The surrounding area of the Kola peninsula is home to two thirds of the Kremlin's submarine fleet. Over the last two decades it has become the

largest concentration of Soviet military power, prompting recent calls from the Norwegian military for Oslo to beef up its forces in the region.

There is speculation that the Soviet leader may use the occasion to make a foreign policy speech. He may also stage televised walkabouts to re-establish himself with Soviet viewers after his long absence.

Mr Gorbachev's departure from Moscow and his landing in Murmansk, a city of some

Admittedly that there were "extremist, anti-socialist elements" that might take advantage of *glasnost*, he then emphasized: "This phenomenon is not so widespread."

One Moscow intellectual commented afterwards: "As soon as he is away from the seat of power, we get the feeling of just how fragile these changes may be. It is so obvious that people with very different ideas are waiting in the wings if anything should happen."

Mr Gorbachev tacitly acknowledged also the growing criticism of his economic experiments from conservatives, who fear that they form the thin end of the wedge

400,000 people, was briefly reported by Tass, but the official Soviet news agency gave no details of his programme. Nor was the trip announced in advance.

Since taking office Mr Gorbachev has made a point of visiting places outside Moscow, where he has frequently spoken out strongly in support of his reform drive. He has visited the biggest cities and travelled as widely as the Baltic Republics and the port of Vladivostok in the far east.

to a fatal dilution of present-day communism.

He told his audience in the Kremlin's elegant Sverdlov Hall that the Soviet people were now "trying to see to it that individual activity should not lead to a hoarding mentality, to private-owner psychology; that the spread of co-operatives should not lead to grabbing habits, to stripping the working class through high prices of co-operative products."

He painted modestly with a broad brush, not referring to the problems of the 1987 grain and vegetable harvest now threatened by appalling weather. Mr Gorbachev, who plans to grasp the nettle of long overdue agricultural reform at the next biannual plenary session of the Communist Party's ruling Central Committee, acknowledged that changes were taking place slowly. But he adopted the overriding tone of optimism which has become the hallmark of his set-piece addresses.

"You might say: Does everyone understand and feel *perestroika* (restructuring) deeply enough? Is everyone so to say actively involved in *perestroika*?" he asked. "I can only say that *perestroika* is gaining momentum."

1 to 1987

east

(2)

Mr Storked

The Star-Chronicle

6. 10. 1954.

Text (4)

# China airlifts police to thwart Lhasa demonstration

From Jasper Becker  
In Lhasa  
THE Chinese Government airlifted hundreds of armed police into Lhasa yesterday and stopped all foreigners from flying to the Tibetan capital, in a determined effort to prevent new demonstrations during tomorrow's anniversary of the 1950 occupation.

Meanwhile, Buddhist monks at three leading monasteries issued a statement yesterday asking the United Nations to support their call for independence and denouncing human rights violations.

Their spiritual leader, the Dalai Lama, was denounced in the Peking press as responsible for the violence. His enterprise was "doomed to failure", said the China Daily, and "by pinning his faith on foreign support or inciting violence, he can only tarnish his image."

Officials at the CAAC Chinese Airlines office in Chengdu, Sichuan province, said no foreigners would be allowed into Tibet from today for a period of 10 days.

Leader comment, page 12; Tibet's deep alienation, page 21; People, back page.

The route from Nepal into Tibet was also closed to the outside world.

A cordon of roadblocks mounted by armed police has been thrown around Lhasa and the important monasteries of Sera, Drepung and Ganden, which police searched for ammunition. Travelers heading towards the Nepalese border and the towns of Shigatse and Golmud were reportedly turned back, and all buses leaving Lhasa were thoroughly searched. A planned demonstration on Sunday morning was cancelled after a massive display of force on Saturday night, when a convoy of 30 jeeps and trucks, many filled with armed police, drove through the streets of Lhasa with sirens blazing.

"As soon as the Chinese loosen their control a little, we will take to the streets again," a senior Tibetan lama responded defiantly.

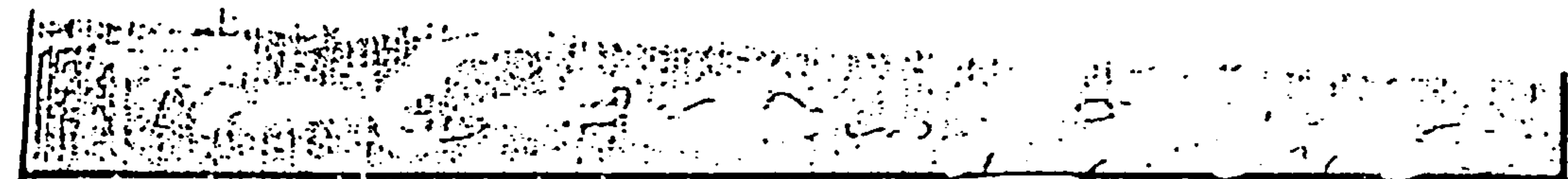
The provincial government issued a stern warning to foreigners to avoid all demonstrations and carrying out "negative propaganda."

A government announcement warned that rioters must save themselves up by October 15 or face serious punishment.



Text (5)

The Guardian 20.10.1987.



Four people drowned when a train plunged into the Towy river near Llandeilo, Dyfed, after part of the Swansea Shrewsbury railway line over the bridge collapsed in torrential rain which enveloped much of Wales. The engine driver and a boy of 13 were among the victims but one elderly woman managed to swim to safety in the badly swollen river

Report, page 3; Leader comment, page 14

## Worst-hit areas to get emergency aid

By John Carvel,  
Political Correspondent

The Government will give emergency aid to the local authorities worst hit by last week's hurricane and yesterday's severe flooding in Wales, it was decided yesterday.

Ministers, at a meeting chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister, Viscount Whitelaw, agreed to activate a financial procedure set up four years ago to let councils recoup some of the costs of the heavy snow during the winter of '81-'82.

The agreement came faster than expected after the meeting on Friday when Mr Douglas Hurd, the Home Secretary, said it was far too early to make such decisions and that no further ministerial meetings were planned. Yesterday's meeting was convened with a speed which indicates how fierce demands have been for action.

With the Lords returning

from the summer recess today and the Commons tomorrow, it was important for the Government to forestall any criticism from the Tory benches.

The formula stipulates that the council must pay the first slice of the clearing up costs — equivalent to the product of a penny rate on their ratepayers. Thereafter the Government will meet 75 per cent of the emergency costs.

In Kent, probably the worst-hit area, costs are estimated at about £10 million. The product of a penny rate is £2 million, so the Government has by yesterday's decision offered to provide three quarters of the remainder — about £13.5 million.

The Environment Secretary, Mr Nicholas Ridley, told reporters after the meeting at the Cabinet Office that the Government had no idea yet of the total costs of the hurricane.

Talks will be held with the local authorities as soon as possible.

The Government feels it is adopting a formula established for just this sort of eventuality. It is unlikely, however, to satisfy Conservative MPs in the worst-hit areas, or to please the Opposition — who will point out that a large part of the burden will fall on local ratepayers.

The formula provides for "special financial assistance to local authorities which, as a consequence of an emergency, would otherwise incur an undue financial burden in providing relief and carrying out immediate works to safeguard life or property or prevent suffering or severe inconvenience to affected communities".

The relief does not, therefore, cover any long-term spending councils may incur as a result of the emergency.

Text (5)

## Our heroes in the storm

Remember how they used to say — perhaps still do — that "so-and-so had a good war"? Now, four days after Friday's Big Blow, it is beginning to be possible to say who had a good storm. Or at least who had a bad one. Top of everybody's list of sufferers, of course, is the Met Office, from the Director General ("Britain's bungling weather boss" — The Sun, Monday) downwards. But his minions have, so to speak, blown it too. If only someone, Mr Ian McCaskill perhaps, had read the weather forecast published in last Thursday's Le Monde more carefully. "Une vaste minimum depressionnaire," it said "va venir se centrer sur les îles Britanniques." Not sur-

prisingly, therefore, "vents forts" could be expected in the Channel, with "rafales" perhaps reaching 150 kilometres per hour. Considering that Thursday's Le Monde was on the streets of Paris on Wednesday afternoon, 36 hours before the rafaes crossed the Sussex coast, it is certainly time they took out a subscription in Blacknell.

But leave the weathermen out of this for a change. After all, suppose we had known when we went to bed on Thursday night that the trees in the garden were liable to blow down during the small hours. What were we actually supposed to do with the foreknowledge? So what about the others who haven't exactly covered themselves in glory these recent days? The mercurious MPs who are exploiting the situation to call for resignations and blame, for instance. The insurance companies which are talking about having to put up their premiums in case once in 300 years turns into twice in 300. And what about a hearty raspberry too for the gangs of "chainsaw cowboys" who have been spotted by Daily Telegraph readers the length and breadth of the Home Counties? Untrained in the art of tree surgery, they are charged huge sums to fell, chop and clear the trees that litter the south-east. In the Weald of Kent, the going rate for even quite a small tree can be as high as £100 or £150. The enterprise culture of work? Or plain profiteering?

Who has had a good storm then? Interestingly, perhaps importantly, it has been a time for some rather unfashionable heroes and some oft-derided virtues. Like local authority workers, for instance. Like public service. A week ago they were feather-bedded moonlighters doing non-jobs at the ratepayers' expense. But things look rather uneventful after a Friday and a weekend in which many of them have been working continuously and in some danger to keep roads clear, homes dry and the elderly safe. The emergency services have been in the forefront, of course. It has been firemen, police and ambulance drivers who have been in greatest danger. But don't forget the home neeps, the social workers or indeed the council manual workers. They were all there when we needed them. Nobody else would have been.

# DANGER, ROAD SIGNS AHEAD

The number of motorway crashes associated with road repair works has reached the point where serious public concern is justified. Wednesday's horrific pile-up on the M61, in which 12 people died in an appalling circumstances, should trigger an urgent review of every aspect of road safety connected with temporary alterations to the traffic flow.

The fact that each accident is in certain respects unique, and that the diversions and lane-sharing arising from motorway maintenance are temporary, seems to have lulled the authorities into a state of dangerous complacency. But the British motorway system has now come of age, and innovative programmes of repair are going to be a permanent feature of the system.

The Government, the police, and the authorities responsible for motorway works must look again at these hazards. What might have been sufficient when contra-flow systems were rare is not good enough now that they are almost more the rule than the exception.

Many such accidents are associated with average speed, no doubt below the maximum of 70 mph allowed by law on motorways but well above the maximum allowed by safety. Yet it is has become customary to rely on temporary speed limits which are advisory only, not legally enforceable, and which often look as if their status is only semi-official. There have been trials in a few places with super statutory

limits, displayed in the familiar way by legal speed limit signs; but the official mechanism for establishing them is designed for more permanent speed limits and is too inflexible to cope with the changing needs of motorway repair crews.

The law could be amended to allow a temporary but legally enforceable limit to be created on the authority of the local chief officer of police, for instance, subject to review every few weeks and to the need for proper confirmation if it is required beyond a certain period. Visible radar enforcement of the limit would then be possible since the more common speed checks used on the open road by mobile patrols would not be practical on a contra-flow system.

Particular attention should be given to the status of "matrix" speed signs, described officially only as "warnings", whereby a temporary limit is indicated by a changeable electric light display, either overhead or at the road-side. It makes no sense that they should be advisory not compulsory, except as an excuse for carelessness in now this facility is used. Motorists also have a right to expect that they will be set with more precision. The all too familiar sight of a temporary speed limit indicating 20 mph when the road is clear and dry in all directions for miles ahead can only undermine their authority and effectiveness.

30.10.1987  
The Times

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The Guardian 3.11.1987.

Trotsky not rehabilitated in anniversary speech

# Gorbachev tells Russians of Stalin's crimes

From Martin Walker  
in Moscow

The Soviet people were officially given back the bulk of their history yesterday, in all its grandeur and its tragedy, its self-inflicted wounds and its achievements. For the first time, they were told, on coast-to-coast television, by their leader speaking live from the Kremlin on the Soviet Union's most solemn and formal occasion, that Joseph Stalin committed "unforgivable crimes."

"It is sometimes said that Stalin did not know of many instances of lawlessness. Documents at our disposal show that this is not so. The guilt of Stalin and his immediate entourage before the party and the people for the wholesale repressions and acts of lawlessness is enormous and unforgivable. This is a lesson for all generations," Mr Gorbachev said.

"Those were real crimes stemming from an abuse of power. Many thousands of people inside and outside the party were subjected to wholesale repressive measures. That, Comrades, is the bitter truth," he said, in a clear attempt to break the grip that Stalin still exerts from the grave upon the Soviet psyche.

Most Western historians count Stalin's victims in the millions, rather than the thousands, and it was disturbing that in his description of Stalin's repression, Mr Gorbachev did not mention the massacre of the officer corps on the eve of the second world war, which contributed to the disastrous early defeats.

His failure to acknowledge Trotsky's historic role in organising the Red Army after 1917,



Mr Gorbachev: tones  
of pure emotion

and his failure to rehabilitate Nikolai Bukharin disappointed Western observers and many Soviet intellectuals alike.

But during the most detailed and balanced account of the 70 tumultuous years of Soviet power yet given to its citizens, Mr Gorbachev announced the formation of a new judicial commission to review the cases of the purge victims.

He stressed: "We know the accusations and repressions against a number of party leaders and statesmen, against

Text of speech, page 8

many Communists and non-party people, against economic managers and military men, against scientists and cultural personalities were the result of deliberate falsifications."

He went further than Khrushchev's earlier assaults on Stalinism by attacking "the impermissible methods" used in the forced collectivisation of agriculture. Until collectivisation, Mr Gorbachev said, "the peasant thought that socialism was his government too."

The Soviet leader probably

inevitably, insisted that the broad strategy of collectivisation had been correct, although he condemned the indiscriminate attack on the kulaks, the richer peasantry, for sweeping up many of the poor and average peasants too.

Stalin, he insisted, had taken the right strategic decision to embark on the crash programme of industrialisation in the 1930s. Stalin was also right in his opposition to Trotsky after Lenin's death, Mr Gorbachev said, and he was right to sign the non-aggression pact with Adolf Hitler in 1939, in the absence of any real commitment by Britain and France to a system of collective security against Nazism. Stalin's role as a war leader was also "as actor in the achievement of victory in 1945," Mr Gorbachev said.

The Soviet leader was seeking to bring a sense of balance to Soviet history, to lead the people to rediscover their past, warts and all, to learn to accept both nightmare and success.

He went on to condemn Stalin's "abuses of power and violations of Socialist legality" after 1945, and to acknowledge that his crimes had done "serious damage to the cause of socialism and to the authority of the party."

It was clear that Mr Gorbachev was determined to reopen the debate on Stalin that had been closed when Khrushchev fell in 1964. The former leader too was praised for his courage in first telling the party of Stalin's crimes in 1956, and for his attempts to reform the economy and administrative system out of the bureaucratic straitjacket into which Stalin had locked it.

Stalin's fundamental failure, and one whose effects are felt

## But do the people want freedom?

The Soviet Union's celebration of 70 years of revolution began yesterday in a most uncelebratory mood. Mr Mikhail Gorbachev's speech was serious going on sombre but it was the speech the occasion demanded. He had much to say about Stalin which a lesser man might, in prudence, have postponed to a future occasion when current disagreements were less pressing. Clearly, in Gorbachev's judgment, the health of the Soviet Union demands that the dark past of the Stalin era be opened up for inspection. Therefore he starts now on the distinction between Stalin's strategy and Stalin's methods. Yet more than 30 years after Khrushchev's famous report to the 20th congress, there were without doubt many in his audience who preferred his recital of Stalin's success in industrialisation to that of Stalin's crimes which, he said, were enormous, unforgivable and a lesson to all future generations. The resistance to Gorbachev's glasnost and perestroika is, by his own account, increasing, yet the effects of those reforms have still to be felt. In perestroika, or restructuring, they have barely begun. The Soviet Union thus observes its anniversary in a state of at least deep anxiety. That anxiety cannot be confined within Soviet borders.

Mr Gorbachev was concerned to distinguish both the constructive from the evil in Soviet history and the ideal from the practicable today. It is normally contrary to Gorbachev's nature to offer caution when his agenda is so wide-ranging, but he did so in seeking a balance between tradition and change. Much though it may go against his nature, he has to make concessions to the placemen, whom he distrusts and not infrequently denounces.

Thus Gorbachev strove for balance. A commission will re-examine the history of the Stalin years and seek to rehabilitate those who were sent to their deaths. Yet in those years, "in the most difficult condi-

tions, in the absence of mechanisation, on semi-starvation rations, people performed miracles." Collectivisation in industry produced results; in agriculture its principles were flagrantly violated. Bukharin played "an important part" in defeating Trotskyism but he underrated the need for speed in building socialism in the thirties. No-one has previously broached so many party divisions from such a rostrum. Today, Gorbachev insisted, the party will not allow any departure from the principles of economic reform now adopted. But — the balance was on ubiquitous display — there are "overzealous and impatient" people who think change is not happening fast enough. The party, he said, will not yield to them.

Not every disagreement about the immediate scope and pace of perestroika needs to be elevated into a crisis. The growing resistance of which Gorbachev spoke is a worrying phenomenon but it did not prevent him from saying, on the Politburo's behalf, that the reform programme would continue. But in the running of Moscow itself there have been signs that disagreement about pace has become disagreement about policy. And in factories people unused to taking decisions resist the process Gorbachev has set on foot. He calls it democratisation, and by inference the ills of previous epochs, Stalin's and Brezhnev's, are blamed on the absence of that quality. The big question remains, though: do the Russian people want the changes Gorbachev is determined they shall have? Are they so accustomed to obedience and confinement, like birds in a cage, that they can't think how to handle the democratic socialism Gorbachev offers them? That looks like a real danger, for presumably the relaxation of authority allows people to choose authority if that is what they prefer. Unfortunately there would be many among his listeners in the Supreme Soviet yesterday to applaud such a course.



The Scotsman 4.11.1987

# Alcohol and tobacco laws under fire

THE Government was accused yesterday of adopting "loony-libertarian" policies which were frustrating attempts to cut the death toll from alcohol and tobacco abuse.

Dr James Dunbar, the director of the Tayside Safe Driving Project, criticised the prevailing attitude that placed greater importance on protecting individual liberty than on instituting effective policies, such as the introduction of random breath testing.

"About 400 lives could be saved in Britain every year if random breath testing was introduced," said Dr Dunbar, but despite huge public support for

it, the idea was being blocked for ideological reasons.

His attack, however, was not confined to the Conservatives. He said that there were also loony libertarians in the Labour Party when it came to this issue.

And Mr Peter Taylor, a broadcaster and author, who has written a book on the politics of tobacco, said it was the same attitude that was preventing an advertising ban being introduced on cigarettes.

"The argument used is that such a ban on what is a legal product constitutes an attack on liberty, but until advertising is banned it is going to be difficult

for health educators to get their message across," he said.

Dr James Syme, vice president of the Royal College of Physicians, said one form of liberty was to give people what they wanted but it had to be remembered that a large number also wanted to be helped.

They were speaking at a symposium in Edinburgh organised to highlight and review issues related to drug misuse which was addressed by some of Britain's leading specialists.

The Government's commitment to do something about illicit drug use, which resulted

By BRYAN CURISTIE

in £17 million being spent on preventive action last year, was compared with the £2 million spent on tackling alcohol-related problems.

Dr Martin Plant, of Edinburgh University's Alcohol Research Group, said that the focus needed to be shifted towards tobacco and alcohol, which cause far more deaths, disease and disability.

"If you sell a lot of tobacco, you get a Queen's award for industry; if you sell a lot of cocaine, you get locked up," he said.

The Government was given

credit for setting up a ministerial group to look into the problems of alcohol abuse, but fears were expressed that other recent decisions could lead to an epidemic of alcohol problems.

Mr Peter Rorstad, director of the North-East of England Council on Addiction, said that granting all-day licences in England and Wales would lead to an increase in consumption and there was concern that an EEC directive on alcohol taxation would lead to lower prices and a further resultant increase in drinking.

An Edinburgh researcher also gave warning of the danger of

doctors prescribing drugs to help people to come off heroin and then these being sold on the black market.

Ms Valerie Morrison, another member of the Alcohol Research Group, who is studying the heroin problem in the city, said that when heroin is scarce, users turn to abusing prescribed drugs, finding no great problem in getting these from doctors after explaining that they need them to help come off heroin.

But when heroin becomes available again, the users sell the prescriptions on the black market.



## Pointing funds at real health risks

One of the recurring ironies of health budgeting in Britain is that we so often point resources at areas which do not necessarily represent the major problems we face. A symposium on drugs in Edinburgh yesterday, underlined the inherent frustration — groups tackling the massive problems generated by tobacco and alcohol misuse, for example, know very well that the budget for dealing with the comparatively much smaller problem of heroin addiction is more than eight times that devoted to drink alone. One of the reasons for this, no doubt, is the frequently artificial dividing line which society draws between illegal substances and acceptable ones. It is almost inconceivable that we should be sanguine about something which causes 100,000 preventable deaths a year in Britain, yet the truth is that successive Governments have failed to campaign against cigarette-smoking with the vigour that the health risk implies they should. In contrast to the hysteria generated by a relatively small number of deaths from heroin, the tobacco lobby has been given an easy ride in the UK. Much higher profile campaigns are being waged in America and Australia. Nor will the arithmetic of the argument melt many hearts in the Treasury which can expect to collect an annual £5 billion in tax from smokers, while the medical bill rendered by tobacco to the Health Service amounts to some £500 million a year. Moreover, the ban on television advertising of cigarettes — which many people feel ought to be extended into a total prohibition on the promotion of all forms of smoking — has been circumvented by the industry's massive sports sponsorship. Last year British viewers were treated, effectively, to 350 hours of tobacco-sponsored television.

The arguments for targeting more resources on alcohol are just as compelling. Alcohol abuse is a major contributor to road deaths and injuries, crimes of all kinds, serious accidents at work and in the home, and a whole range of illnesses. Here again, though, there are powerful vested interests protecting the trade, with often perplexing results for health researchers. They find it a sad commentary on the state of the funding that, for many of them, the only source of income is the drinks industry itself, despite the implications they feel this has for the credibility of their findings. Yesterday's symposium also suggested that a shortage of resources meant that groups spent as much time fund-raising as they did addressing themselves to the problems of abuse, their primary objective. Frequently they were engaged in battles with each other for available subventions. They are affected, too, by the short-term "hype". When issues like heroin or solvent abuse are the focus of public attention in the media, politicians feel pressed to provide funds for which voluntary and statutory groups are encouraged to apply, even though they are aware that other concerns are, in reality, much more pressing. It is, perhaps, natural for Governments to respond to the most vocal lobbies in this way, but it would frequently be more cost-effective to acknowledge that the loudest voices are not always defining the most urgent problems.

# ريجان يعيد راي بران عالم تفتحن للقرار الدولي

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أرجو  
الرجاء

لندن - واشنطن - نيويورك - تونس - الشرق الاوسط:

تبدأ الدبلوماسية العربية هذا الاسبوع مرحلة جديدة من نشاطها المكثف لوقف الحرب العراقية الايرانية، وسيكون مقر الامم المتحدة وهو اعلى منبر دولي مركز هذا النشاط الذي يبل الاجماع العربي على القمة الطارئة التي تعتبر المفترقة منذ الآن وحتى انعقادها مهلة لايران لكي تنضم الى جهود السلام وعلان موقفها بصراحة من قرار مجلس الامن الدولي رقم ٥٩٨، وأكدت الاوساط العربية المطلعة التي شهدت اجتماعات تونس ان تلك المهلة ستتيح للقيادات العربية ايضا تكوين فكرة اكثر وضوحا عن نوايا النظام الايراني تجاه تطورات الحرب والعلاقات مع الجيران العرب ولا الهة وقت نفسه حيث الرئيس الامريكى ايران امس على تحديد موقفها من قرار مجلس الامن ودعا الاتحاد السوفياتي الى التعاون من اجل تنفيذه، وأكد اهتمام بلاده وعملها من اجل السلام في الشرق الاوسط.

يشاركون في اجتماعات الامم المتحدة قد انهوا امس الاول اجتماعات تكميلية طارئة في تونس لبحث الموقف الراهن، وانفقوا على عقد قمة عربية طارئة في العاصمة الاردنية في الاسبوع الاول من نوفمبر (تشرين الثاني) المقبل.

كما ناشد السوفيات الى الاسهام والمساعدة من اجل انهاء الحرب التي ما كان ينبغي لها ان تندفع بين ايران والعراق، وقال ان السوفيات قد سامعوا في صياغة قرار مجلس الامن الدولي ووافقوا عليه، وعليهم المساعدة في تنفيذه بالتعاون مع الدول الاعضاء.

ودعا الرئيس ريجان في خطاب القاه في وقت متأخر مساء امس، بمم بجمعية العمومة للامم المتحدة الى - الايراني الى تحديد مهلة، بلاده بشكل واضح من القرار ٥٦٨ الداعي الى وقف فوري لاطلاق النار.

أكد على ان الولايات المتحدة تدعم بشدة تنفيذ القرار وتدعم ايضا جهود الامين العام للامم المتحدة، ولكننا مصابون بالاحباط لعدم قبول ايران للقرار الدولي.

وقال: انني اعلم ان الرئيس الايراني سيلقي كلمة بلاده يوم غد (اليوم) وانني انتهر هذه المناسبة وادعوه ليحدد موقف بلاده بقبول او رفض القرار ٥٩٨، واذا كان الجواب ايجابيا، فانها خطوة ستلقى الترحيب وتقديرا كبيرا، اما اذا كان سلبيا فانه لا خيار امام مجلس الامن من اتخاذ الاجراءات لفرض العقوبات.

وكرر ريجان موقف بلاده وسياستها في منطقة الخليج والتي تعود الى ٤٠ عاما خلت، وان الاهداف التي ترمي اليها هي التي من اجلها كان الوجود العسكري الامريكى الراهن في المنطقة.

واشار في كلمته الى امتناع الولايات المتحدة باستقرار وسلام منطقة الشرق الاوسط، وقال انه ما من مكان على هذه الارض اليوم بحاجة الى السلام اكثر من منطقة الشرق الاوسط، واننا سنواصل جهودنا للتقريب بين الاطراف المتنازعة لتتلقى من اجل حل خلافاتهم وصنع السلام.

لم ينتهرا ان يحذد الرئيس الايراني على خامنئي اليوم امام الجمعية العمومية للامم المتحدة موقف بلاده من قرار مجلس الامن الدولي، بعد ان افشلت مهمة السلام التي قام بها خافيير بيريز دي كويلار الامين العام للامم المتحدة الى كل من بغداد وطهران في الاسبوع قبل الماضي.

وذكر في اروقة المنظمة الدولية ان محادثات وزراء خارجية الدول العربية على هامش اجتماعات الجمعية العمومية تحظى بأهمية كبيرة.

وستكون المستجدات الاخيرة في منطقة الخليج وكذلك ازمة الشرق الاوسط من أبرز نقاط جدول اعمال الامم المتحدة في دورتها الجديدة التي ستعقدت امامها الرئيس الامريكى رونالد ريجان وعدد من زعماء دول العالم ووزراء خارجية الدول الكبرى.

وكان وزراء خارجية الدول العربية الذين

وارجا الوزراء مسألة فرض اي عقوبات على ايران وذلك لتركيز الانتباه على دورة الامم المتحدة والموقف الدولي خلالها بهذا الشأن، سيما وان دولا كبرى كالولايات المتحدة وبريطانيا تضغطان بالفعل لفرض حظر دولي على بيع الاسلحة لايران اذا ما استمرت في رفضها لقرار مجلس الامن ٥٩٨.

وتوجه عدد من وزراء الخارجية العرب فور انتهاء الاجتماعات الى نيويورك فيما عاد بعضهم الى بلاده حيث عاد الامير سعود الفيصل وزير الخارجية السعودي امس، كما عاد ايضا السيد طاهر المصري وزير خارجية الاردن للانضمام الى الوفد الاردني للامم المتحدة الذي سيتراسه الامير حسن ولي عهد الاردن.

واعاد الشيخ صباح الاحمد الجابر وزير خارجية الكويت عن املة في ان تؤدي القمة الطارئة المقبلة الى ازالة الخلافات بين الدول العربية، وقال ان التهديد الايراني يثقل كامل الجميع، وجاء تصريح الشيخ صباح بعد اختتام اجتماعات تونس ونشرت امس في مجلة ميدايست ميور، التي تصدر في لندن.

وقرار انعقاد القمة الطارئة، يعتبره من الاول من نوعه منذ عام ١٩٨٣ الى اتفاق العرب باغلبية كبيرة على ذلك، وهذا يشير الى ان عددا من النزاعات فيما بين الدول العربية قد سويت او في طريقها الى التسوية وهي النزاعات التي كانت وراء تأجيل انعقاد مؤتمرات القمة العادية السنوية.

وسيجسري وزراء الخارجية العرب مناقشات واسعة داخل الجمعية العامة في نيويورك او على هامش اعمالها بشأن التطورات في منطقة الخليج.

لاحتمال ان يلتقي عدد من الوزراء العرب منفردين او مجتمعين مع وزيرى خارجيتي الولايات المتحدة والاتحاد السوفياتي ومع عدد من وزراء خارجية الدول الدائمة العضوية وغير الدائمة بمجلس الامن.



# والصراع مستمر

عالم

●● تلبس الجيوب العراقية - الإيرانية عامها السابع، وقد كانت وما زالت شيئا من الدنيا والناس معا، والعرب على وجه الخصوص والعرب المأخوذة من هزم الحرب الطويلة التي يذمر فيها شيعة، شقيقان يشتركان في الدين والجغرافيا والمصر الموحدة كثيرة بحجم الاحداث التي مرت والنكبات التي شهدناها وما كنا نتوقع أن نشهدا على مر السنين.

الامر الذي لم يعد مثيرا للخلاف هو ان المنتصر الوحيد في هذه الحرب اذا سلمنا جدلا بالنتيجة هو العدو الاخر على الضفة الاخرى الذي لا علاقة له بالبلدين الجارين - العراق وايران. قطعنا فالاعداء كثيرون لكن ابرزهم من يريد ايقاف تقدم الامتين الإيرانية والعربية ومنع تلاحمهما واتفاقهما وتعاونهما الذي كان، مازال موقدا يضيء الحضارة الانسانية ويثريها على مدى القرون.

والعبء الاخرى ان القوم لا تغير نظاما، لا تحصر شعنا على الركوع تحت اقدام الغزاة وهي عبرة رايناها اثناء التواجد العسكري العراقي على الاراضي الإيرانية ثم مازلنا نلمسها من خلال الصمد بالعراقي المثير للاذنب والاعجاب، من كافة طبقات الشعب، بمختلف دياناته ومذاهبه، ويحترم البشر عن تقييمه لنظام الحكم في بغداد لأن الشعوب عادة تختلف وتتصارع وتتقاتل فيما بينها، وتتبادل اسالة الدماء لكنها امام الاجئين تتوحد، وتواجه ذلك المحتل بنفس واحد، ويرغبة موحدة في الخفاج من اجل الا تطفأ قدما اراضيها.

والدرس الثالث وهو الذي له علاقة بالعرب المتمثل في ان امتنا العربية بكل ما اوتيت من طاقات وما منحها الله من نعم وما اعطاها من قوة، وجدت نفسها امام معضلة التوسم الايراني والبهمة للخمينية على اراضيها ومقدساتها وابنائها منقسمة على نفسها في بداية الحرب ثم مختلفة مع نفسها ومن ثم حاولت ان تتوحد رغم الطرف الذي مازال يبرر التصرف الايراني ويزينه، ويقلب الاسود ابيض، والليل نهارا، ويقضم عينيه هو لا غيره على التحالف الاساسي بين بهمة على الصمة، الهجمة على الاراضي الفلسطينية، متصورا ان الآخرين مقتنعون بطروحاته العقيمة غير المعبوه التي عبرها الا الدروس المستفادة من تاريخ هذه الامة المبتلاة منذ قديم الزمن بالقسام والشردم.

ولو ان ايران لاقت العرب متهم قوة واحدة ونفسا واحدا واحساسا واحدا لما تسنى لها ممارسه هذه العريضة طوال السنوات السبع الماضية، لكنها ظلت تلعب على عامل الفرقة بين العرب، وعامل الاختلاف فيما بينهم.

على ان الواقع الذي امامنا مختلف عن التمنيات والاحلام التي كنا نسعى لها ونجاهد بمشاعرنا من اجل الوصول اليها، على الرغم من بعض مظاهر التماسك التي نأمل ان تظهر في الافق سواء من خلال مؤتمر القمة القادم الذي نتطلع ان يخصص للبحث عن صيغة عربية موحدة لمواجهة المعتدى على الاراضي العربية ودعم الصامدين المقاتلين حقا للذود عن العربية وعن صفاء الاسلام ونقائه، ويبقى هذه بهمة التبرية الاستيطانية التي تهدف الى تحقيق حلمها بمسح الشخصية العربية والاستيلاء على ما في الارض العربية من انسان وثروة ومقدسات.

واذا كنا لا نريد استباق الاحداث فانه من العيب انتظار ما الذي سيقوله الرئيس الايراني علي خامنئي امام الجمعية العامة للأمم المتحدة اليوم. فهو سيكرر ذات الشروط المتعنتة التي تكشف بجلاء ان للنظام الايراني معتبر استمرار الحرب احد ركائز بقائه وجوده وقدرته على تكميم اقواء خصومه وتوجيه شانه بزمرة اثنائه الى انونها بدلا من الحديث عن شكل الحكم الذي يمثل صورة متاخة معنطة غير انسانية. ويقود شعيا عظيميا كالشعب الايراني الى حافة الانتحار. وصورة السياسة الايرانية القادمة في تقديرنا تجاه العرب ستكون اكثر حقا وتخريبا من سابقتها. فكلما تراجعت مقدرتها على فرض ما تريده بالقوة، وكلما خاب املها - وخيبة الامل هذه متواصلة - في حسم المعركة لمصلحتها، وكلما شعرت انها مستمرة في العجز من ان تحقق وعدا قطعته على الشعب الايراني في تحقيق احلام قديمة باليه، كلما اتجهت الى الانتحار والى التخريب لذاتها ولجيرانها ولن لا يتفقون معها في الافكار ويقفون ضد منطلقها الهمجي. وما على العرب الا الاتجاه الى قمتهم في عمان والى التوحد لدره هذا الخطر الايراني المجنون الذي استفاد من

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مبارك وشيرك في احدى عربات مترو الانفاق بعد الافتتاح الرسمي للمشروع

# مبارك وشيرك في افتتاح اولى خط مترو الانفاق بمصر

القاهرة - مكتب الشرق الاوسط: المتفرع الرئيسى المصرى، حسين مبارك والسيد جاك شيرك رئيس الوزراء الفرنسى امس اول خط مترو الانفاق في مصر والذي يمتد من حلوان حتى ميدان رمسيس بالقاهرة، منها 4 كيلومتر تحت الارض. والقى الرئيس مبارك كلمة اشار فيها الى الدراسات الطويلة التي اجراها علماء وخبراء الجانبين المصرى والفرنسى حتى تم التوصل الى احسن تخطيط لعمل المترو لضمان سهولة حركة المرور في القاهرة.

وحول مشكلة الزيادة السكانية في مصر قال مبارك: لدينا برنامج وخطة لمعالجة هذه المشكلة وبدانا العمل بها وستتعلق نتائج طيبة. وقال ان المواطنين حاليا يدارون في تفهمها، وان لديهم حاليا قناعة بالقضاء عليها من اجل مستقبل هذا الوطن.

وقال: لقد كان حلمنا ان تقوم مصر بعمل نفق للمترو تحت الارض في مدينة القاهرة وان هذا الامل تحقق بجهد مصري - فرنسى مشترك لانجاز هذا المشروع العملاق الذي يعتبر اول مترو انفاق في قارة افريقية وفي منطقة الشرق الاوسط.

واتمى الرئيس المصرى بالدور الفرنسى في انشاء المشروع وعملية ادارة المترو والاشراف على صيانتة للفترة المقبلة.

وكان الرئيس مبارك قد استقل قطار المترو مع صيوفه بعد ان قام بقص الشريط مع السيد جاك شيرك عند موقع محطة السادات بميدان التحرير ايدانا بافتتاح المرحلة الاولى لمشروع مترو الانفاق، وبعد افتتاح محطة مبارك التي تقع بميدان رمسيس اراح الرئيس مبارك الستار عن التوجه التذكارية التي تشيد بالتعاون

المصري الفرنسى.

والقى السيد يوسف صبري ابو طالب محافظ القاهرة كلمة اشاد فيها بجهد الشركات الفرنسية التي ساهمت في المشروع وقدم هدية تذكارية لكل من الرئيس مبارك ورئيس الوزراء الفرنسى واكد السيد كيتسواوتى مدير مجموعة الشركات الفرنسية التي نفذت المشروع ان انجاز مترو انفاق القاهرة يعتبر اهم انجاز تحقق في مجال المواصلات.

وبعد ذلك تحفلت المهندسين سليمان متولي وزير النقل والمواصلات المصرى عن المزايا الكبيرة التي سيوفرها مشروع المترو ومنها انخفاض نسبة التلوث وتلايل حوادث المرور.

وعلى الصعيد نفسه فقد بدأ ميدان التحرير الذي يعد قلب العاصمة المصرية امس جديدا بعد الجهد الضخم الذي بذلته محافظة القاهرة، لاعادة تخطيطه وتجسيده وظلاء المباني التي تطل عليه باللون الابيض.. ومعظم هذه المباني من الطراز المعماري الاسلامي.

ومن بين المباني التاريخية التي تطل على ميدان التحرير مبنى المتحف المصرى، ووزارة الخارجية والجامعة الامريكية وجامعة الدول العربية ومجمع التحرير الذي يضم عشرات المصالح الحكومية.

وقد تحددت طرق ومسارات مرور السيارات والترام والمشاة في شكل متناسق، وظهرت الاشارات الاتوماتيكية في جنبات الميدان وبشكل يارز لتسهيل المرور، بالاضافة الى علامات المرور الدولية.

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تمكنت السليبيات من العالم العربي بحيث أصبح اي حدث ايجابي يمر دون اي اهتمام او اي تعليق او اي توقف. وكل بناء او انجاز لم يعد يعتبر حدثا يستحق التذكر بل الحدث فقط ذم ما كان امرا سياسيا مثيرا ولو كان ضد النفس وضد الناس وضد الامة.

من هنا لا يجوز ان يصر نيا افتتاح المترو في القاهرة دون ان نعطيها ما يستحق. انصرية جديدة لهذه المدينة العريقة التي تزاخم فيها السكان حتى صارت تمتد في كل اتجاه. وهذه الحافلات الكهربائية التي ستنتقل الناس بعد اليوم سوف تساهم في حل معضلة اجتماعية تتفاقم منذ الخمسينات حين صارت القاهرة تتحول من مجرد عاصمة كبرى الى ما اصبحت عليه اليوم. اي مدينة تعدادها يفارب تعداد سكان لندن اما حجمها فاقل من عاصمة بريطانيا بأربع مرات على الاقل.

وقد بدا الى حين ان حل مشكلة الازدحام فوق الارض لم يعد صعبا فقط بل اصبح مستحيلا ولذا كان لا بد من اللجوء الى الحل الذي لجأت اليه باريس قبل اكثر من مائة عام، اي حفر انفاق طولها حوالي خمسة كيلومترات واقامة عالم كامل من وسائل النقل تحت سطح القاهرة. وسوف ينقل المترو الجديد 25 الف مسافر في الساعة. وحين يكتمل بعد حوالي تسعة اشهر سيرتفع العدد الى 60 الفا في الساعة وهو رقم كبير بالنسبة الى عملية الانتقال التي حولها المصريون طوال سنين الى صورة كاريكاتورية مضحكة في صحفهم لكنهم في الحقيقة عانوا منها كمسكلة اجتماعية واقتصادية ترهق النفوس والموازنات معا.

طبعيا كانت كلفة المترو باهظة لكن الفائدة منه لا تقاس. ولا تستطيع مصر ان تنتظر يوم يصبح لديها فائض مالي لكي تقوم بمثل هذا المشروع الضخم. ان هناك مشكلة سكانية مزمنة لا بد من التصدي لها بشكل او بآخر. وللموسيقار محمد عبد الوهاب قول شهير وهو ان مصر منذ سبعة الاف سنة الى اليوم كانت بحاجة فقط الى حاكم، والى حكومة من 20 وزيرا للاقتصاد. والحقيقة ان الرئيس حسني مبارك طرح نفسه كرجل عاقل وواقعي، كما قال رئيس الوزراء الفرنسي جاك شيراك خلال تدشين المترو. فهو يعرف ان مشاكل مصر الاقتصادية تحتاج الى حلول جذرية وبعيدة المدى. والواقع ان الحالة الاقتصادية لا تزال صعبة في شكل عام والتضخم المالي لا يزال يزداد، لكن البحث عن الحلول قائم في اكثر من حقل. وقد شهدت مصر هذا الصيف تحسنا واضحا في الدخل السياحي اذ عاد اليها الكثير من المصطافين العرب وقصدتها مجموعات كبيرة من السياح الفرنسيين وغيرهم من الأوروبيين.

لكن المسيرة طويلة بالثبات. ومصر التي قفزت مرة واحدة من اقتصاد الحرب الى اقتصاد الانفتاح، بدأت تعتاد شيئا فشيئا الان على الاقتصاد الوطني والاستثمارية البعيدة المدى. على الرئيس حسني مبارك ان يظل سائرا، كما فعل حتى الان، على طريق بالغة الدقة والتوازن. ان من ناحية هناك مشاريع التنمية التي يحطم بها ومن ناحية اخرى هناك الدين التي ورثها، هناك ايضا واقع الدعم الاقتصادي الذي تقدمه الدولة لبعض المواد الاستهلاكية الضرورية.

ان محطة قطار ليست بالقليل! ولا بالقليل ان تصرف الدولة حوالي 200 مليون جنيه استرليني لكي تربط حنوان في الجنوب بميدان رمسيس! ولعل اهل القاهرة - سواء الذين سوف يستخدمون المترو او الذين لن يستخدموه - يعرفون اكثر من غيرهم ماذا يعني هذا التنفس الحديدي في مدينة يستمر فيها ازدحام حركة السير احيانا حتى منتصف الليل، ومع ان الشبه كبير - وطبيعي - بين مترو القاهرة ومترو باريس فان الموازن المصري سوف يدفع اقل بكثير ثمنها لتذكرته. وعاصمة النيل التي كانت تشبه باريس بكباريها وهندستها سوف تشبهها بعد الان ايضا تحت الارض التي تتراكم تحتها، على عجلات مطاطية فادنة، الحافلات المطلية بالابيض والازرق.

يبقى طبعيا ان هذا الحل قد يكون مثالا يحتذى للمدن المشابهة في العالم النامي، اي المدن الافريقية والاسيوية التي فاتتها مرحلة التنظيم المدني، او فاتها ان تحسب في النصف الاول من هذا القرن انها ستتحول ذات يوم الى ازمة سكانية قائمة. لقد فتحت القاهرة

Test (3) ١٩٨٧/١٧  
١٢٧ مليون مصري يشاركون في الاستفتاء

# نعم.. مبارك

## الأولوية للاستقرار والأصلاح الاقتصادي

القاهرة - مكتب الشرق الأوسط، من جمال عنایت: أعلن اللواء زكي بدر وزير الداخلية المصري أن ١٢, ٩٧٪ من الشعب المصري قالوا "نعم" لاستمرار الرئيس حسني مبارك، رئيسا للجمهورية لفترة رئاسة ثانية مدتها ٦ أعوام. وأضاف في بيان له بعد ظهر أمس أن نسبة الموالقين ال مجموع الناخبين الحاضرين بلغت ٩٥,٨٪ وبلغت نسبة غير الموالقين ال مجموع الأصوات الصحيحة ٢,٨٨٪.

ولتحت مندورها لاشقائها العرب، وأيضا مصر الإفريقية التي تسعى لتحقيق الوحدة والتنمية وتبني قضايا القارة الإفريقية، وأيضا استفتاء على كل جهد يبذل من أجل السلام الشامل والعادل الذي يحقق

وعقب إعلان النتيجة قال السيد صلفوت الشريف وزير الإعلام المصري للشرق الأوسط أن هذه النسبة جاءت تحية تقدير أمة لقائد أثبت أنه قد قاد مسيرتها، وحقق إنجازات كان أعظمها أنه خلق للشعب الحرية والديمقراطية، فثبت الشعب أنه قد مارس حقه الديمقراطي بأوسع نطاق تجاوبا مع الرئيس مبارك.

وأضاف وزير الإعلام المصري في تصريحاته الخاصة: إن هذه النتيجة أثبتت أن الشعب المصري يعيش يوما بيوم مع الرئيس ويشارك في صنع كل إنجاز على أرض مصر. ثم جاءت النتيجة استفتاء على سياسة الرئيس مبارك في الداخل والخارج، وردا تاما على كل من يرى، أو يعطي نفسه الحق في أن يتحدث باسم هذا الشعب.

وحول مغزى النسبة العالية لحضور الناخبين هذا الاستفتاء قال السيد صلفوت الشريف: إن الشعب يقول إن سياسات الرئيس مبارك الداخلية والخارجية هي على الطريق الذي يرتضيه، ثم هو أيضا استفتاء على أن الشعب يقدّر القيم والمبادئ التي أرسى قواعدها وثبت جذورها الرئيس مبارك، والتي تمثلت في الطهارة والجدية، والبعد عن الهوى، وأنه يسمو فوق الصفائر ويرتفع فوق التجاوزات، ويحكم العقل والمنطق، ويضع المصلحة العليا، ومصصلحة الشعب قبل كل شيء.

وردا على سؤال حول النسبة العالية التي صوتت بالموافقة للرئيس مبارك قال وزير الإعلام المصري: هذه النتيجة تعلن أن الشعب قد ارتفع فوق الحزبية وأسلطها حين خرج يختار رئيس مصر - كل المصريين، كما أنها دليل ثقة الشعب في قيادته وثقة الشعب في سياسة الرئيس مبارك التي أعادت لمصر موقعها العزيم.



من اسم من الاستفتاء الذي جرى في مصر وكانت نتيجته شبه معروفة للقاضي والداني، هو التعاطف الكبي الذي يحظى به الرئيس المصري حسني مبارك في الداخل والخارج.

وهو تعاطف لم يحققه زعيم مصر سيادة جتر في الندوات الذهبية للرئيس الزاحل جمال عبد الناصر رحمه الله لهذا هذا ناتج من ان الرئيس مبارك اعاد لمصر كثيرا من هبتها وكثيرا من اجترامها وقدرها واسعا. وان كان مطلوبها منه احرى من التحامها بعالمها العربي. ولم يعد مثيرا للجدل بعد الفترة التي قضاها مبارك في الحكم والدلائل التي قدمها التساؤل حول وطنية حاكم مصر، او دور مصر العربي الوطني، الذي ترسخ في اكثر من مناسبة واكثر من موقع، سواء كان ذلك في توقع في تعاملها مع اسرائيل الذي كان تعاملها واضحا يأخذ باعتباره كرامة مصر، وكرامة الامة العربية، او كان في موقفها المشرف من الحرب العراقية الايرانية في الوقت الذي كان فيه البعض يتسربلون بنزيفهم الطائفي وحقدهم الدفين على هذه الامة العريضة القوة المعطاءة، متاجرين بعناوينها ولافتات العروبة فيها، وهم يعارسون اخطر انواع التخريب والاعاقبة والتدمير، لامة اسعدتهم بعد شقاء، وامنتهم بعد خوف، واطمئنتهم بعد جوع. والحق ان مصر منذ تاريخها الطويل كانت دوما اقبيا للامة العربية، وتغرا معطاء، من ثغورها العظيمة منذ من الله عليها بالعروبة والاسلام، ومن الله عليها بموقعها الحضاري الفريد المتميز، وهي الان تقدم جزءا مما كانت تساهم فيه منذ تلك اللحظة التاريخية التي حلت فيها قدما عمرو بن العاص ارضها، فحباها بن الخطاب بعنايته وحبته متأسيا بالرسول الكريم الذي اوصى بها خيرا واوصى باقباطها خيرا.

واليوم تبدو مصر في عهد مبارك، قاعدة عروبية، اسخة، ومنطلقا يعبر عما في مكنون مصر من حضارة وتسامح، واستمرارية انسانية. ظهر ذلك في ديمقراطياتها - المقبولة - في مؤتمر اسكندرية للناس في السواحل، وبذلك بالمدن، ويحوز المعارضون في ديار الغربية باسم التقدمية، العروبة والاسلام.

ومصر الامم الجنون التي لا تقبل معارضا، ولم تفصل راسا من جسده، ولم تظارد صاحب رأي، بل صانت كرامة الانسان واكرمت وفادة اللاجئين اليها.

وهي ايضا مع هذا وذاك تحاول رغم كل الصعاب والعقبات ان تقدم الوجه الحضاري لامة عربية نامضة، وليس ادل على ذلك من احتفائها بالفرن، عبر عرضها لاوبرا عايدة وهو عرض مثير جاء في وقته مؤكدا او مددلا على انه اذا كان هناك في الطرف الشرقي من الامة العربية امة تحاول سرقة مكاسب العرب، قبح العرب مستخدمة سلاح العنف والهمجية والقتل والتشريد، والتعذيب، فان هناك امة عربية اخرى داخل مصر الكبر، تقدم وجهها حضاريا متسامحا، وتحققي بالفن، كما تحققي بالتراث، كما هو احتفاؤها بكل القيم الراسخة الانسانية.

ومبارك اليوم وقد استحق هذا التعاطف من شعبه والاحترام من قبل الامة العربية هو استحقاق لم ينله عن عبث، ولا بسلاح الارهاب ولا باجهزة الاذاعة، او الفوغائية، ولكن بتراث عريق ضخ من تقدير مكانة مصر، ودورها، وقدرها الطبيعي، ونظرة امتها العربية لها. نشعر ان خياراته القادمة كثيرة لعل اهمها هو الانطلاق على بركة الله بلا خوف ولا تردد، في اعطاء بعد مصر العربي ومجا اكثر، واتجاهات اكبر، لاننا نعتقد بل ونؤمن ان الدور عادة يوحده ولا يعنى، وما يقال عن التسميات العربية، والشكيات يجب ان يصعب من حركة مصر، والتفافها على قدرها ودورها وحركتها.

وما اشد حاجتنا هذا اليوم وقد احتفلنا قبل اسابيع بمعركة حطين، ان نرى صلاح الدين الايوبي، مرة ثانية، نافضا عن سيفه الغبار، وعن فرسه السبات العميق، ليعيد لهذه الامة مجددا وحبوبتها، وانتفاضاتها.

ومصر مع شيققاتها العربيات قادرة ان تعيد لهذا القاري العربي طريقه ولهذا السيف العربي لمعانه، ولهذا الالف العربي شموخه.

ولعل ايضا من طموحاتنا القادمة في فترة مبارك الرئاسية الجديدة، ان تتعمق التجربة الديمقراطية اكثر فاكثرا، فلقد اثبت مبارك بحرصه على الديمقراطية في مصر، ان بلاده تسير الى الامام، وانها تشكل تجربة حية معطاء قوية، بين دول العالم الثالث. وان التعددية، وحرية الراي اكثر الاوعية قدرة على حفظ مكتسبات الامة، وتماسكها، ولا نشك ان الرئيس الذي عود امته العربية وشعبه في مصر على اسلوب هادي، متزن عقلاني في الحكم وهو الان يملك مقدرة الاستمرار في ذات الاتجاه.

# الجميل يتحدث أمام الجمعية العامة غداً

## دعوة السوفييات لدور في حل أزمة لبنان

لندن - والشرق الاوسط - وصفت اوساط مقربة من الرئيس اللبناني أمين الجميل المرحلة التي ستلي القاءه لخطابه امام الجمعية العامة للأمم المتحدة بأنها ستكون مرحلة متحركة في السياسة اللبنانية تبدأ بلقاءات مع وزير خارجيتي الولايات المتحدة والاتحاد السوفياتي لاجراء لبنان من الجمود الذي يتخبط به. وقالت هذه الاوساط ان اللقاءات التي سيجريها الرئيس اللبناني مع المسؤولين في نيويورك سيكون في غاية الاهمية.

واضافت ان اللقاء مع وزير الخارجية السوفياتي ادوارد شيفاردنازده هو اول لقاء على مسيوهمرفليم بين لبنان والاتحاد السوفياتي. وسيشكل بداية تطور نوعي في العلاقات اللبنانية - السوفياتية وثمرة تطور في العلاقات بين البلدين ارسى دعائمها الرئيس الجميل منذ بداية عهده.

وكان لبنان قد قطف الثمار الاولى لهذا التطور في مجلس الامن حين اشترك الاتحاد السوفياتي لأول مرة في التصديق على التجديد للقوات الدولية منذ عام ونصف العام كما وافق على تمويلها. في حين كان في الماضي يمتنع عن التصويت.

واشارت الاوساط الرئاسية اللبنانية الى ان اللقاءات بين الرئيس اللبناني الجميل والسفراء السوفيات في لبنان سواء الحالي كولوتشا أو السفير السابق سولداتوف لا تزال مستمرة، وان التشاور بين البلدين يجري على اعلى المستويات وقد تخللها استلام الرئيس الجميل لثلاث رسائل من الزعيم السوفياتي ميخائيل جورباتشوف.

وتعلق هذه الاوساط اهمية بالغة على الدور السوفياتي المقبل سواء في لبنان أو في الشرق الاوسط.

وحول ما اذا كان الرئيس اللبناني سيثير مع الوزير السوفياتي مسألة تحريك الحلول المجددة لازمة اللبنانية والعلاقة مع سورية، قالت هذه الاوساط ان الطلب لن يكون بشكل مباشر، وانما سيتمثل في الطلب الى الحكومة السوفياتية لعب دور لحل الازمة اللبنانية سواء على الصعيد الجنوبي او على الصعيد الداخلي.

وابلغت الاوساط الوثيقة الصلة بالرئيس الجميل والشرق الاوسط ان

أراي «الشرق الاوسط» ص ٩

وابلغت الاوساط الوثيقة الصلة بالرئيس الجميل والشرق الاوسط ان الرئيس الجميل في اجتماعه العاشر والنصف من قبل ظهر غد بتوقيت نيويورك وستتناول فيها الاوضاع في لبنان على ضوء التطورات التي استحدثت وتتسارع.

وستحدث بشكل خاص عن المداخلات والصكوك التي يتعرض لها لبنان وشلل العمل الحكومي وتعطيل كل المبادرات التوفيقية التي كان اللبنانيون يسعون اليها.

ويشير الرئيس في كلمته الى حاجة المجتمع اللبناني للتطوير والاصلاح اللذين يحول دون التفاهم حولهما عدم تولد الاجواء الملائمة للبنانيين.



الرسالة

(4)

اختار الرئيس اللبناني امين الجميل ان يلقي خطابه السنوي هذا انعام امام الامم المتحدة بدلا من ان يلقيه امام اللبنانيين وفقا للتقاليد ، ويعكس هذا القرار وضعا مؤسفا ومريبا يزداد تزدادا يوما بعد آخر منذ نزلت بذلك البلد الشقيق تازلة الحرب والدمار والفك بالذات .

وبعدما كان الخلاف وفقا على قادة الحرب وصل الان الى سياسي والسلام . اتي الى الوزراء الذين لا ميليشيات تضرب بسيفهم او يضربون بسيفها . وفيما بلغت الحالة الاقتصادية حد المجاعة عمد اهل الحكم اخيرا الى معالجتها بالمراسلة . لانهم لا يخاطبون بعضهم البعض . كأنما لا يكفي ان يكون نصف الحكومة بالوكالة ونصفها الاخر بالغياب فجات الان ظاهرة المراسلة التي لا نعرف سابقة لها في اي دولة ، خصوصا عندما يكون موضوع هذه المراسلة هو رغيف المواطن ولقمته .

ويصر فريق من اهل الحكم على ان يقاطع الرئيس الجميل ووزراءه حتى نهاية العهد في الصيف المقبل . ويصر الرئيس الجميل بدوره على البقاء في تصر بعدا حتى اللحظة الاخيرة باعتباره رئيسا شرعيا انتخب باكثرية اعضاء المجلس النيابي . وبين الموقعين يقف مواطن يائس واكثرية صامتة يدكها الحرب منذ ١٢ عاما ، ووطن شعاعه العذاب ولا شك ان الرئيس الجميل لن يسمع الكثير في الامم المتحدة عن حرص الدول على وحدة لبنان وسيادته وسلامة اراضيه . لكن اي وحدة هذه التي تقوم على المراسلة واي سيادة هذه التي تنتهكها الميليشيات وصبيان الازقة والزوار يخزواي ارض هذه التي ينتهك حرمتها الاحتلال الاسرائيلي - متحديا كل رغبة وطمنة وكل قزار دولي .

ان لبنان للاسف في حاجة الان الى من ينقذه من لبنان . ولا شك ان هناك الكثير مما تستطيع الاسرة الدولية ان تقدمه للرئيس الجميل خصوصا في حقل المساعدات الانسانية الملحة . لكن كيف نستطيع ايضا ان نفهم هذه الاسرة او ان نقنعها بان اللبنانيين غير قادرين على الالتقاء في ما بينهم حتى عندما يصبح الموضوع العاجل هو رغيف الانسان .

لقد جردت الحرب المواطن اللبناني من كل شيء من بيته احيانا ومن سلامه وامنه وراحته ومن استقراره ومن تقدمه ومن كل ما كان يملك ، فهل يجوز ان تجرده ايضا من رغبته ؟ وهل يجوز ان يحدث ذلك والقادة جميعا على خصام بل من دون وعد او امل باللقاء غدا او بعد غد ؟

ان الخصومة الى هذا الحد بين ابناء البيت الواحد معروفة - ولو نادرة - عند الافراد فقط لا عند الدول . ويروي ان الكاتب الروسي تولستوي - صاحب رواية الحرب والسلام الشهيرة - عاش مع زوجته صونيا نصف قرن وهو لا يكلمها او يخاطبها او يتطلع في وجهها . وكان كلما اراد شيئا منها كتب لها ورقة في ذلك !

وحتى عندما كان يجوع كان يصر على ان يطلب الطعام كتابة ا

الرسالة  
19/1



# واشنطن تقود التحرك الدولي لفرض حظر على طهران

لندن - نيويورك - واشنطن - الكويت - الشرق الاوسط:

بدأت الولايات المتحدة تساندها بريطانيا حملة دبلوماسية في الامم المتحدة لفرض حظر على شحن الاسلحة الى ايران، وذلك لتعنتها امام الارادة الدولية المتمثلة بقرار مجلس الامن رقم ٥٩٨، وفي غضون ذلك، توجه كاسبار واينبرجر وزير الدفاع الأمريكي الى منطقة الخليج في زيارة لعدد من دول المنطقة تستغرق عدة ايام، وعلى هذا الصعيد واصلت الطائرات العراقية غاراتها التدميرية للمنشآت حيوية في عمق ايران التي ردت من ناحيتها بقصف المناطق السكنية والمدنية في البصرة.

واعلن جورج شولتز وزير الخارجية الأمريكي ليمس ان بلاده قد بدأت فعلا صياغة مشروع قرار دولي يدعو لفرض حظر على ارساليات السلاح العالمية الى ايران، قال ان واشنطن كثفت مشاوراتها مع اعضاء مجلس الامن الدولي في هذا الاتجاه خوفاً من اخطار مواجهة تقع بين الولايات المتحدة ويران حينما هاجمت طائرة امريكية سفينة زبال ايرانية كانت تزود الغامبا في مياه الخليج.

وتعهدت الحكومة البريطانية امس بان سبق نصا وروحا اي حظر على تصدير اسلحة الى ايران فور مصادقة مجلس من الدولي على قرار من هذا القبيل. وجاء في التعهد على لسان الان كلارك وزير تجارة والصناعة البريطاني في تصريحات في بها امس لوكالة الانباء الكويتية.

وقال ان الحكومة البريطانية مستعدة - تحطيق اي قيود تتبناها الامم المتحدة - بوضع حد للنزاع العراقي الايراني.

واعلن وزير الخارجية البريطاني سير بري هار في خطابه امام الجمعية العامة مع المتحدة ان بريطانيا امرت باغلاق تب مشتريات الاسلحة الايراني في شارع تورنيا بلندن وسحبت التأشيرات من ثين عسكري يعملون فيه. وقال سير بري ان الحكومة البريطانية امبلتهم بوعين لمغادرة البلاد.

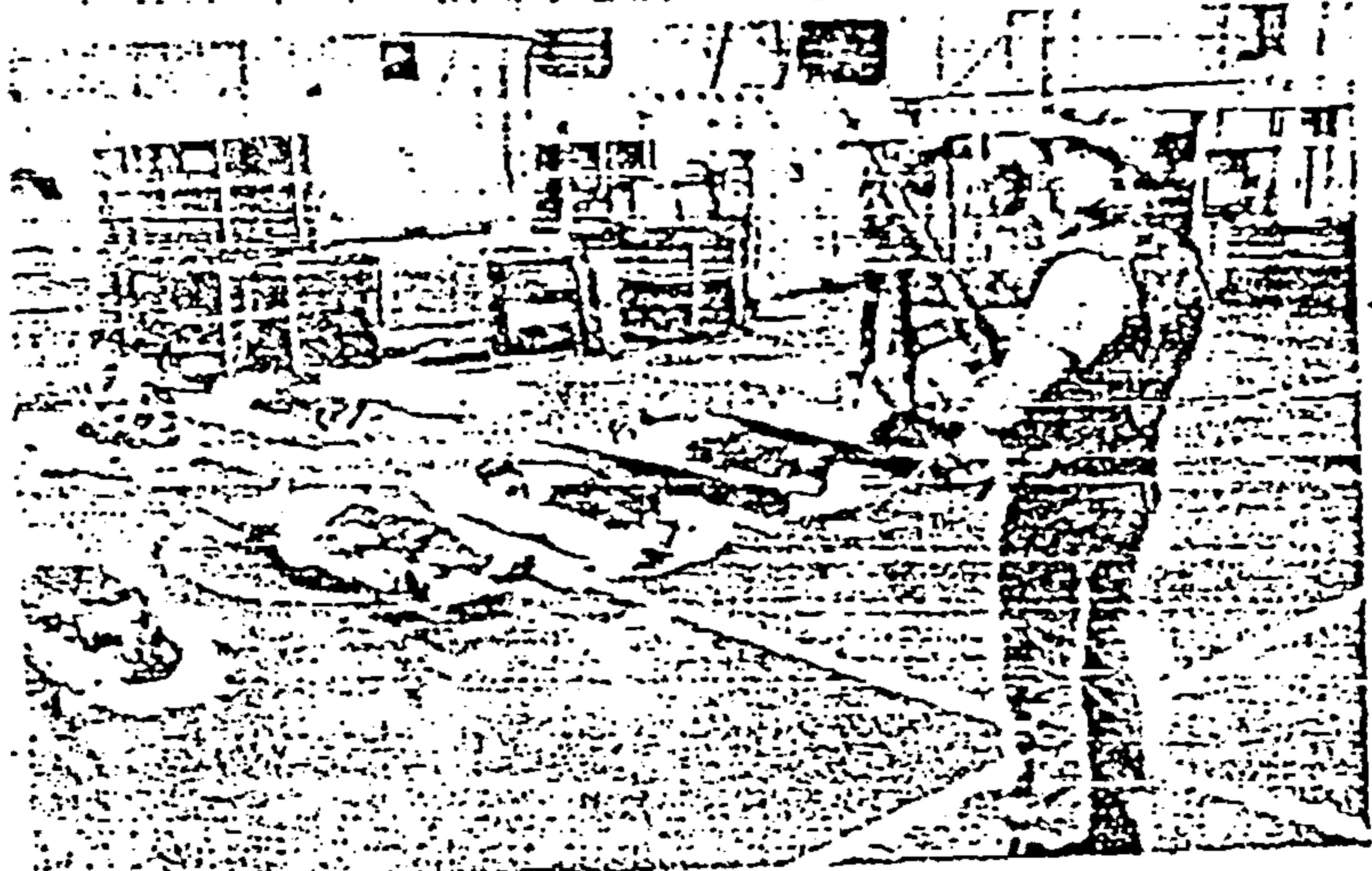
وكان قرار اغلاق المكتب قد اتخذ منذ مدة ن الحكومة قوت الاسراع في تنفيذ عقب جوم الايراني على ناقلة جنتل بريزه التي مع العلم البريطاني خلال ابحارها في سيج هذا الاسبوع.

كذلك اعلن سير جفري ان مائتي ايراني ريين يعملون في المكتب الايراني صبحون دون اعمال ولكنه لا يتحتم مع مغادرة بريطانيا.

يدعا الوزير البريطاني الامم المتحدة الى فرض حظر على اسلحة الى ايران لان لها الاخير في الخليج يبين بجلاء انها لا ي اطلاقا قبول قرار مجلس الامن الدولي ٥٩٨.

أكد الوزير البريطاني من ناحية اخرى سرتير سي وحدة مجلس الامن الدولي التفريط في الاجماع الذي توصل اليه ساؤه بشأن الموقف الخاص بالحرب نقية الايرانية.

قال في تصريحات لمحطة التليفزيون بطاني بي. بي. سي. انها امير ان اي دولي بشأن حظر الاسلحة على الطرف خس لوقف اطلاق النار في النزاع الدائر عراق وايران لن يكتب له النجاح ما لم - بدعم موحد من قبل اعضاء مجلس - وخاصة الدول دائمة العضوية فيه.



بحارة السفينة الايرانية التي اغرقتها طائرة الهليكوبتر الامريكية اثناء القائه الالغام في مياه الخليج تحت حراسة الجنود الامريكيين على ظهر الحاملة الاسلحة.

واوضح انه شعر من خلال لقائه الذي عقده بيوم امس الاول مع ادوارد شيفارد نادر وزير الخارجية السوفياتي ان موسكو مستعدة للتعاون مع مجلس الامن والحفاظة على وحدته.

وعلى صعيد اخر، دعا الدكتور ديفيد اوين وزير الخارجية البريطاني الاسبق الولايات المتحدة وبريطانيا الى التعاون مع الاتحاد السوفياتي على صعيد التحرك العسكري البحري في مياه الخليج الدولية. ويجيء التحرك الدبلوماسي الواسع متزامنا مع جولة بدأها كاسبار واينبرجر وزير الدفاع الامريكي اسلم امس في عدد من دول الخليج. وكانت الجولة مقطرة سلفا وذكر مسؤولو النتائج ان لا علاقة لتوقيتها بالاصدام العسكري الامريكي الايراني.

واكد واينبرجر قبيل توجهه للمنطقة عزم بلاده على الرد بعنف على اي عمل عدواني ايراني وقال ان الايرانيين يمارسون الارهاب منذ عام ١٩٧٨ ضد الولايات المتحدة ومحالها. وعليه فائنا سنرد على اي عمل يقومون به ضدنا.

وعلى صعيد العمليات العسكرية في الجبهة اعلن العراق ان طائراته الحربية اغارت بعد ظهر امس على مستنقع للسكر والاسمنت واحدى شبكات نقل الطاقة الكهربائية في كرمينشاه بانمق الايراني.

وذكرت الوكالة من جهة اخرى نقلا عن متحدث عسكري عراقي ان قوة ميناء العميق جنوبي العراق احبطت محاولة قام بها ١٥ زورقا معاديا للتقرب من منعة التحميل في الميناء الليلة قبل الماضية.

رأى الشرق الاوسط ص ٩

## أسواق المال

لندن - الشرق الاوسط:  
استمر الدولار قويا خلال معاملات هادئة نسبيا امس وشهدت اسواق النفط استقرارا ملموسا. وكانت اهم مؤشرات الاسعار امس كالتالي:

● الدولار: ٦٠٩٥ جنيه  
● استرليني: ١,٨٢٣٠ مارك -  
١,٥١٢٠ فرنك سويسري -  
٦,٠٧٨٠ فرنك فرنسي - ٣,٧٥١٥  
ريال سعودي - ٢,٨١٣٠ دينار  
كويتي

● الذهب: ٤٦١,١٠ دولار  
للاونصة

● الفضة: ٧,٥٤ دولار  
للاونصة

● النفط: ١٨,٤٥ دولار للبرميل  
من خام برنت تسليم نوفمبر (تشرين  
الثاني) المقبل

(التفاصيل ص ٤)

## السري وليس للنشر

دولة عربية مرشحة لتعديل  
وزاري قريب يتوقع ان يشمل تعيين  
رئيس جديد لحكومتها.









# فتنة كرامين فتنة لبنان

تجار الحرب والطائفية لا يريدون للحرب الاهلية اللبنانية ان تتوقف فهم لا يعيشون الا على الحروب وعلى الطائفية والذين قتلوا كرامين ليسوا سوى منفذين لنفس المخطط الذي بدأته اسرائيل منذ ايام باحتلال اجزاء جديدة من الجنوب اللبناني واستعدادها لشن هجوم جديد ضد المقاومة اللبنانية الباسلة في جنوب لبنان والذين قتلوه لا يمكن ان ينفصلوا عن قتلة مثقفي لبنان ومفكريه والذين راح ضحيتهم خلال شهر واحد اثنان من خيرة مفكري لبنان ومناضليه والذين قتلوه هم انفسهم المستفيدون من هبوط الليرة اللبنانية يوم امس امام الدولار الاميركي بشكل تراجميدي وهم تجار العملة والسوق السوداء ليس اطلاق النار على كرامين سوى اطلاق نار على جسد لبنان الجريح ومحاولة لتزيف المزيد من الدماء وبحصصا المزيد من انصحابا من فقراء لبنان وفلاحيه وكل الفئات التي بظحتها الحرب وارتفاع الاسعار والعدوان الاسرائيلي المستمر

لقد اصبح واضحا انه كلما هدأت الامور على جبهة الحرب اللبنانية الكريهة، واشتدت على جبهة النضال الوطني ضد اسرائيل كلما تم اقعكالمعارك الجانبية وكلما رايت عمليات الارهاب والقتل بدم بارد في محاولة لخدمة مخطط الصهيونية من جهة، والمخطط الطائفي اللبناني من جهة اخرى

انهم يريدون ان ينفصلوا لبنان عن العروبة، ويريدون الحاقه بالمخطط الصهيوني الاميركي في المنطقة

يريدون ان تستمر الحرب الطائفية لان وقفها يعني سحب البساط من تحت ارجل تجار الطائفية واحزابها وقواها المرتبطة بالصهيونية

لقد قتل كرامين، وقتل قبله عدد من المفكرين والمناضلين وسيقتل بعده بلا شك عدد آخر لكن ارادة لبنان ستظل هي نفس الارادة، والاختيار اللبناني طبيعي هو الاختيار العربي المعادي للصهيونية

والذين لا يقرأون تاريخ البشرية ولا يقرأون تاريخ لبنان نفسه سيكونون اول من يدفع الثمن غالبا نتيجة اعمالهم الارهابية ونتيجة القتل والخطف والتفجيرات التي لا تستفيد منها سوى جبهة الطائفية ولا يتضرر منها سوى مجموع اللبنانيين

ليس امام اللبنانيين سوى اختيار واحد وهو اختيار السلام والمحبة وليس هناك درس للبنان اقسى من درس الحزينة فورا مقبرة لبنان الذي يجب ان ينتصر ويعود كما كان وطنا واحدا لا مكان فيه للطوائف والطائفية

للوطن

(٥)

١٩٩٧ (١٧٩)



# تراجع حدة القتال على محاور مخيم البرج ومعارك الليل تسفر عن ٣٠ قتلى وجرحاً

بيروت - الشرق الأوسط والوكالات  
تراجعت بعض الشيء ظهر أمس حدة الاشتباكات على محاور مخيم برج البراجنة الفلسطينية في الضاحية الجنوبية لبيروت بين المدافعين عنه من جانب وحركة «أمل» من جانب آخر. إذ سجل خلال الليلة قبل الماضية وساعات الصباح الأولى مقتل خمسة اشخاص واصابة نحو ثلاثين آخرين بجروح. فيما استتقت المفاوضات السياسية على أكثر من صعيد حول التطورات الراهنة واحتمال عقد لقاء قمة إسلامي لبناني موسع.

وفي بيروت، قالت دوائر قضائية ان قاضي التحقيق العسكري طالب أمس بتوقيع عقوبة الاعدام على ستة لبنانيين متهمين بارتكاب حادث تلجير سفارة الولايات المتحدة في بيروت في ١٨ ابريل (نيسان) ١٩٨٢. واصدر القاضي امراً باعتقال حسين صالح حرب وسامي محمود الحاج ومحمود موسى الديراني ومحمد فايف الجديع وحسن محمد حرب وعلي مصطفى حيدر وهم جميعاً هاربين حالياً.

الموتور والاسلحة الثقيلة، بعد الاتفاق على وقف النار، وبمنع سيارات وكالة غوث اللاجئين الفلسطينيين الدولية التي تحمل مواد غذائية ومساعدات اخرى من الوصول الى مناطق المخيمات. وذكرت المصادر الامنية ان جميع الطرق المؤدية الى مخيم برج البراجنة والقريبة منه ظلت مغلقة أمس لليوم الرابع على التوالي.

وقالت مصادر فلسطينية ان القتال اندثر عقب إعلان اتفاق على وقف للنار خلال الليلة قبل الماضية وقالت مصادر أمنية ان الاشتباكات الأخيرة اندلعت بعد ان اطلق المقاتلون الفلسطينيون قذائف مورتر على مناطق سكنية حول مخيم برج البراجنة مما أدى الى سقوط خمسة قتلى واصابة نحو ١٥ آخرين بجروح. وأضافت تقول ان اثنين من القتلى كانا فلسطينيين يعيشان خارج المخيم في المناطق المكتظة بالسكنة.

وقلت المصادر أيضاً ان التوتر على سيطرا على محاور مخيم الرشيدية في مدينة صور الجنوبية، ويهدم اعتباراً من صباح أمس عمليات القنص والتراشق بالاسلحة الرشاشة. في هذه الاثناء، اجتمع السيد عبد الحليم خدام نائب الرئيس السوري مع وفد من اللقاء الاسلامي، ضم النائبين زكي مزبودي وجميل كبي حيث جرى عرض عام لمجمل التطورات الجارية على الساحة اللبنانية أمنياً وسياسياً، وموضوع عقد لقاء اسلامي موسع لتوحيد المواقف.

وذكرت المصادر الفلسطينية ان ١٦ شخصاً على الاقل جرحوا عندما تصدقت مقاتلو «أمل» المخيم بمدافع المورتر. واتهمت جبهة الانقاذ الوطني الفلسطيني وحركة «فتح» والمجلس الثوري التي يتزعمها «أبو نضال» في بيان لها حركة «أمل» بمواصلة تصيد المخيم بمدافع

كما بحث السيد ياسين وجوج وزير الاعلام السوري مع السيد جوزيف سكال وزير الامم المتحدة اللبناني ممثل منظمة الامم المتحدة بين البلدين في شتى المجالات إضافة الى الاوضاع الراهنة في لبنان والمنطقة.

من جانب آخر، قالت مصادر وزارة الخارجية اللبنانية أمس ان الوزارة ابلغت بمعلومات شبه رسمية من باريس تتعلق بعزم الحكومة الفرنسية تقليص عدد جنودها المشاركين في قوات الطوارئ الدولية العاملة في جنوب لبنان لحفظ السلام.

وذكرت مصادر السفارة الفرنسية في بيروت ان التخفيض الفرنسي يأتي في إطار عملية وقائية لحماية جنود الكتيبة الفرنسية بعدما تعرضوا خلال هذا العام الى عدة هجمات مسلحة أدت الى مقتل وجرح عدد كبير منهم واستدعت نقل جنود الكتيبة وتجميعهم في منطقة الناقورة بعيداً عن أي جهد عسكري أو موقع ذي صلة ميدانية.

١٩٨٦/١١/٥

## رأي المسيرة الأوسط

### الخطر المشترك

المعارك الطاحنة الدائرة منذ اسبوعين حول المخيمات الفلسطينية في لبنان تصاعدت حدتها بشكل يهدد بانفجار كبير خاصة بعد امتداد الاشتباكات من مخيم الرشيدية القريب من صور بالجنوب اللبناني والمحاصر منذ اكثر من ٢٨ يوما الى مخيم برج البراجنة بالضاحية الجنوبية لبيروت. وثمة عاملان يؤكدان احتمالات هذا الانفجار الكبير الاول يتمثل في تزايد ضراوة المعارك الى حد استخدام انواع ثقيلة من الاسلحة منها الدبابات وقاذفات الصواريخ مما ادى الى مقتل العشرات والحياة المئات منهم اطفال من ابناء سكان المخيم.

اما العامل الثاني فيتمثل في الاعتراف بفشل الجهود المبذولة لوقف المعارك واحتواء الازمة التي زاد من تفجرها اصرار حركة وامله على نزع السلاح من مخيم الرشيدية وطرد من يحملون السلاح من سكانه الفلسطينيين كشرط مسبق لتنفيذ الاتفاق المبرم في دمشق في ٥ اكتوبر (تشرين الاول) الماضي برفع الحصار عن المخيم.

وكان نتيجة لذلك ان تزايدت عنف المذابح التي تتكبد ضد سكان مخيمي برج البراجنة والرشيدية وباقي مخيمات اللاجئين خاصة في منطقة صور كما تصاعدت عمليات طرد الفلسطينيين من مخيماتهم.

ان ما يجري ضد المخيمات الفلسطينية في لبنان وما يتوقع ان يحدثه من انفجار عام كبير في الموقف الامني هو بكل المعايير خطير بالنظر يهدد كل الاطراف بل ويهدد حتى محاولات اعادة الامن والاستقرار للبنان كله من خلال تحقيق الوحدة الوطنية.

وهذا الوضع لا يخدم سوى مصلحة العدو الاسرائيلي لما يحدثه من فرقة تفتت وحدة العمل في مواجهة الخطر المشترك.



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# لك عهد يستقبل الشاذلي القليبي بأبحاث الإعداد للقمّة تُستأنف في دول التعاون

جدة - عمان - الشرق الاوسط - والوكالات:

استقبل خادم الحرمين الشريفين الملك فهد بن عبد العزيز آل سعود في مكتبه بقصر السلام بعد ظهر امس السيد الشاذلي القليبي الامين العام لجامعة الدول العربية بحضور وزير الدولة وعضو مجلس الوزراء السعودي السيد محمد ابراهيم مسعود ووكيل وزارة الخارجية للشؤون السياسية عبد الرحمن منصور.

وكذلك الصحفيين ورجال الاعلام. وقد تقدر ان يكون مقر المؤتمر في المركز الثقافي الملكي الذي شهدت قاعاته انعقاد قمة ١٩٨٠ وسيكون فندق بلازا الحديث مقر اقامة الملوك والرؤساء كما ستوزع الوفود ما بين فنادق «الماريوت» و«الريجنسي» و«القدس».

أرأى «الشرق الاوسط» ص ٩

وكان القليبي نوه في تصريح ادلى به عقب وصوله الى جدة بالدور البارز الذي تقوم به المملكة العربية السعودية بقيادة خادم الحرمين الشريفين في دفع العمل العربي المشترك. واعرب عن اعتزازه بزيارة الملكة وقال انني اعلق اهمية خاصة على المباحثات التي ساجريها خلال زيارتي للمملكة والتي تاتي في اطار المشاركات المتعلقة بالاعداد للقمّة غير العادية التي ستعقد في المملكة الاردنية الهاشمية مشيرا الى اهمية الدور الذي يؤديه خادم الحرمين الشريفين لتدعيم وحدة الصف العربي.

وقال ان المملكة لن تدخر اي جهد للمساعدة على تحقيق النجاح لهذه القمة ومواجهة التحديات التي تتعرض لها امتنا. وفي عمان قال مصدر رسمي كبير ان العامل الاردني الملك حسين سيمضي هذا الاسبوع في جولات لدول مجلس التعاون الخليجي عقب انتهاء زيارته الحالية لسلطنة عمان وسيبحث مع قادة هذه الدول كافة الترتيبات المتعلقة بعقد القمة العربية الطارئة وكافة القضايا التي ستطرح فيها. ومن المتوقع ان تختتم هذه الجولة في نهاية الاسبوع الحالي.

وفي الاطار ذاته تراسس السيد زيد الرفاعي رئيس الوزراء الاردني. رئيس اللجنة التوجيهية العليا لمؤتمر القمة العربي الطارئ الذي سيعقد في الثامن من شهر نوفمبر (تشرين الثاني) المقبل اجتماعا جديدا للجنة امس.

وبحثت اللجنة في عدد من الامور التمهيديّة لترتيب انعقاد القمة من حيث تنظيم حركة السير في الحي الذي ستعقد فيه القمة من العاصمة الاردنية وكذلك اماكن اقامة رؤساء الوفود العربية. والوفود.

إذن، هناك قمة عربية في نهاية الامر، وهي ليست القمة العادية المنتظرة منذ زمن طويل وبالتالي فانها لن تعقد في مكانها المقرر، اي الرياض، بل سوف تتم بدلا من ذلك في عمان.

ليس مهما بالطبع اين تتعقد بل المهم ان تتعقد: كما، يلاحظ العرب اوطاني، كما قال الشاعر. لكن ونحن نرحب بالقمة الموعودة، اي قمة في اي زمان وفي اي مكان لا بد لنا من وقفة بسيطة. فالحقيقة ان القمة «الطارئة» هي التسوية وليست الحل. وفي هذا الجو المتلبد من التعقيدات السياسية فضل العرب ان اي قمة وعادية، يجب ان يسبقها اتفاق ولو على الهدف النهائي من الانعقاد، لكن في غياب مثل هذه النية ظل العرب يتمنون ان تكون طارئة، فيما تمتد خوف من عدم الوصول الى الحد الأدنى من الاتفاق على المسائل الجوهرية.

بكلام آخر، هناك اشياء كثيرة فقدت معانيها في العالم العربي على مختلف المستويات، والعرب، المؤيدون للقمة، لم يشأوا ان يطل هذا الياس الى المستوى الاعلى. ومن هنا كانت الفكرة - التسوية، اي تسوية القمة المقبلة طارئة مع ان الحرب العراقية - الايرانية ليست امرا طارئا والقضية الفلسطينية ليست مسألة عابرة. وان من يعرف ذلك طبعا هو مضيف القمة المقبلة وخير وسطائها ورعاتها، الملك حسين.

وانعقاد القمة لا يعني انه ليست هناك خلافات وتناقضات وتباين في الراي لكن العرب المخلصين من دول الاعتدال يعرفون ان ذلك ضروري وعادي نحن الخلاف في النهاية لا يجب ان يمس القضايا الجوهرية.

والقضايا الجوهرية، هي التي مالها علاقة بشرف العرب الوطني، وباستقلالهم، ومواقفهم من الاعداء الخارجيين.

ومن هذه القناعة وهذا الايمان سعت تلك الدول الى المحافظة على انضباطية القمة، ولو من حيث الانعقاد الطبيعي. فهذه هي القمة الافريقية تتعقد اعتياديا، كل عام، بصرف النظر عن الخلافات التي تمزق بعض الدول الشقيقة في القارة السمراء.

والاسرة الاوروبية تعقد اجتماعاتها برغم معرفتها المسبقة مثلا بان اليونان لن توقع البلاغ المشترك او ان اسبانيا سوف تسجل تحفظا. وهكذا الامر بالنسبة الى منظمة الدول الامريكية. بل ان التقيد بمثل هذه الالتزامات العليا هو امر بديهي لكل الهيئات المشابهة للمجموعة العربية.

لماذا اذاً يظل هذا امرا عصيا عندنا؟

للأسف، اننا لانزال نختلف احيانا حول جوهر الامر. وفي طبيعة هذه الخلافات الخلاف على التحوار ضمن اطار القمة. ونحن نسجل في هذا الصدد سبقا على انفسنا وليس على الاخرين فقط! فقد ذهب فيصل بن عبد العزيز رحمه الله الى القمة في الاسكندرية والقاهرة، دون ان يابه بما كانت مراسم ووسائل اعلام جمال عبد الناصر رحمه الله تقوله عنه وعن بلاده وعن شعبه. لكن فيصلا كما هي السعودية يعرف ان موقف حكومة عربية شيء والقمة شيء آخر. اما الان فنجد ان بعض الزعماء يرفضون حتى فكرة الحضور. وليس من الطبيعي ان يتطلع العرب الى قاداتهم، خصوصا وهم في مثل هذا الحال، فيروا انهم لا يزالون متباعدين متنافرين الى هذا الحد.

ومع ان «الدورة الطارئة» تسوية لا بد منها وبرغم انها تحتل من الناحية الشكلية والقانونية، عدم الوصول الى موقف موحد، فاننا لانزال نأمل، بانزلة «القمة» عيان الى... البنابيه، الى ايام القمم الاولى، يوم كان الهاجس هو الخوف من تحويل نهر الاردن وتهويده. فاذا بنا وقد تعددت خلافا. تعددت مخاوفنا ايضا وانتقلت من الانهر الى البحار وحتى الى المضائق.



## تطور تاريخي في العلاقات الأمريكية-السوفياتية

# ريجان: القمة في الخريف واتفقا على الصواريخ

واشنطن - وكالات الأنباء: توصل الاتحاد السوفياتي والولايات المتحدة امس الى اتفاق مبدئي لتوقيع معاهدة حول الصواريخ النووية المتوسطة والاقصر مدى وقد اعلن هذه الخطوة التاريخية التي تعد الاولى من نوعها منذ بداية العصر النووي الرئيس الامريكى ريجان في بيان تلفزيوني نقل على الهواء الى جميع انحاء العالم اكد فيه ايضا الاتفاق على عقد قمة تجمع مع الرئيس السوفياتي ميخائيل جورباتشوف في واشنطن خلال الخريف الحالي.

وقد اعلن التوصل لهذا الاتفاق في ختام ثلاثة ايام من المحادثات المكثفة بين وزيرى خارجية الولايات المتحدة جورج شولتز والاتحاد السوفياتي ادوارد شيفاردنازه بحثا خلالها بشكل اساسي قضايا الحد من التسليح خاصة النووي والقضايا الاقليمية وامكانيات عقد قمة امريكية سوفياتية. ووصف الرئيس ريجان المحادثات في كلمته بأنها كانت صريحة وبنائة، تحقق خلالها تقدم ملحوظ رغم اختلاف وجهات النظر بخصوص العديد من المسائل. وأشار البيان المشترك - الذي صدر في ختام المحادثات - الى ان الوزيرين اتفقا على الانتقاء مرة اخرى في موسكو في النصف الثاني من شهر اكتوبر (تشرين الاول) المقبل لمراجعة نتائج عملهما فيما يتعلق بالقضايا المشتركة - بما في ذلك تطورات محادثات الوفدين الامريكى والسوفياتي في جنيف - بالإضافة لتحديد موعد عقد قمة ريجان وجورباتشوف. وأكد الوزيران ضرورة تكثيف الجهود للتوصل الى اتفاقية مماثلة لاتفاقية الصواريخ النووية، تهدف الى تخفيض حجم الاسلحة الاستراتيجية الهجومية لدى الدولتين بنسبة 50٪.

كما اتفق الجانبان على عقد محادثات خاصة قبل اول ديسمبر (تشرين الثاني) بشأن التجارب النووية.

وكانت المفاوضات حول حظر التجارب النووية قد توقفت عام 1980 غير ان مجموعات من خبراء البلدين اجتمعت عدة مرات منذ ذلك الحين.

وكان جورباتشوف قد اعلن وقف التجارب النووية من جانب واحد في اغسطس (اب) عام 1986، ولكنها استؤنفت بعد ستة اشهر. ولوحظ ان الاتحاد السوفياتي اجري آخر تحاربه امس الاول وقبل ساعات قليلة من انتهاء محادثات شولتز وشيفاردنازه.

وتجاوزت المحادثات بين الوزيرين ليلة امس المدة المحددة لها بعدة ساعات ووصفها المتحدث باسم الخارجية السوفياتية بأنها كانت تحدد مسار التاريخ.



Text

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الالتحاق - او التقدم - الاول من نوعه منذ عام 1972  
يوم وقع ريتشارد نيكسون وبيير بريجنيف بجمعة من  
الاتفاقات التي تحد من انتاج الاسلحة المدمة . بل لعله  
التحول - او التقدم - الاول من نوعه منذ الستينات ، يوم اتفق  
الامريكيون على وقف التجارب النووية فوق سطح الارض ! بل  
لعله ، او هو فعلا ، التقدم الاكثر اهمية منذ ان انتهت الحرب  
العالمية الثانية لكي يبدأ بين الحليفين السابقين ذلك السياق  
الرهيب نحو الترسانة النهائية ؟

فلان ، يقول الامريكيون والسوفييات في بيان نادر من  
البيانات المشتركة ، انهم ليسوا فقط في صدد الخطر بل هم  
ايضا في صدد تدمير الصواريخ التي تواجه بعضها البعض في  
اوروبا ! ، هذه طبعاً بداية طريق طويل وشاق وصعب ، غير انها  
في هذا الظرف بالذات ، تعني ان الابواب قد افتحت امام القمة  
المرتقبة بين رونالد ريجان وميخائيل جورباتشوف .

هي ايضا لن تكون قمة عادية بين الرجلين ، او قمة  
تمهيدية كتلك التي عقدها في جنيف قبل عامين او مثل القمة  
العاجلة التي عقدت في ايسلندا في الخريف الماضي . فالعالم  
سوف يبدو مختلفا احدا امامهما بعد اليوم . وقد ننقل الان من  
تلك التعابير التي ولدت بعد نهاية الحرب الباردة ، اي  
«الانفراج» الدولي و«الوفاق» الدولي ، الى مرحلة جديدة هي  
«الاتفاق» الدولي ، وليس من المستبعد ابدا ان ينهي رئيس  
متصلب مثل رونالد ريجان ولايته الثانية والاخيرة بتسجيل  
خطوة دولية تاريخية . فالرؤساء الامريكيون منذ الحرب  
انتهوا عهدهم اما بتصعيد دولي او بانفراج : ترومان في  
كوريا ، ايزنهاور في اوروبا ، كيندي في كوبا ، جونسون في  
فيتنام ، ونيكسون في قمتين مع بريجنيف ، حتى جيرالد فورد  
الذي اكمل عن نيكسون ولايته الثانية حاول تسجيل نقطة  
دولية تاريخية ، في حين ان جيمي كارتر - الرجل الذي وضع  
مبدأ «حماية» الخليج - سقط في شرك فخ الرهائن في طهران .

أين المنطقة من هذا التحول ؟ وهل هو تقدم بالنسبة اليها  
ايضا ؟

يميل البعض الى الاعتقاد عادة بان كل وفاق بين الكبار هو  
اتفاق على حساب الاخرين . لكن ليس بالضرورة ان يكون ذلك  
صحيحا دائما . وسواء بالقمة او بدونها ، وبالصواريخ او  
بدونها ، لا يمكن للكبار ان يلتقوا من دون ان يكون الشرق  
الاوسط حاضرا . اذ على الصعيد الاستراتيجي المجرد يظل  
من اكثر النقاط اهمية في العالم . ولا يستطيع المفاوضون  
الامريكيون والسوفييات الدخول في اي مفاوضات حول اتفاقهم  
الجديد دون ان يأخذوا في الاعتبار وضع المنطقة وموقفها .

وعندما وصلت امريكا والاتحاد السوفياتي الى حافة الحرب في  
ازمة كوبا في عام 1961 تنفس ذلك الاحتقان بالاتفاق على  
«نوعية» الوجود الاطلنطي في تركيا ! اما على الصعيد  
السياسي فهل يمكن ان يعقد قمة بين اقوى رجلين في العالم  
دون التطلع الى حرب الخشج ؟ وهل ان الصواريخ القابعة في  
اوروبا منذ الحرب اكثر ابهة من الخشج البحري البائل في  
المياه الحارة على اطراف الخليج العربي ؟

ان الاتصالات العربية الاخيرة مع السوفييات والاتصالات  
العربية الوشبكة مع الامريكيين في شأن هذه الحرب يحمل على  
الاعتقاد بان القمة المقبلة قد تبتلع بتدمير الصواريخ لكن لا  
بد ان تقف بالكثير من التأمل - والجدية - امام الحرب  
العراقية - الايرانية وامام نقطة الانفجار الاخرى في  
افغانستان ، ناهيك طبعاً بالقضية الام في الشرق الاوسط التي  
حذفت من ملفاتها - بكل اسف - عبارة «عاجل جدا» !

# وملتزمون بأسعار أوبك

البحرين  
القطر

جدة - الكويت - واس - كونا : أكدت المملكة العربية السعودية انها ملتزمة بأسعار منظمة الدول المصدرة للبترول «اوبك»، ولم تمنح اية حسومات من اي نوع من تلك الاسعار هل اي من مبيعاتها وقال مصدر مسؤول بوزارة البترول والثروة المعدنية السعودية انه لم يحدث ان انتقد خادم الحرمين الشريفين اعضاء «اوبك» الذين قالت وكالة «يوناييتد برس انترناشيونال» انهم فشلوا في الالتزام باتفاق توصلت اليه المنظمة.

لقد صرح مصدر مسؤول بالوزارة لوكالة الانباء السعودية ردا على ما تناقلته وكالات الانباء مساء امس الاول بان السعودية ملتزمة بأسعار «اوبك» وقال من جهة اخرى ان التصريح الذي ادل به وزير البترول والثروة المعدنية السعودي اثر اجتماع خادم

الحرمين الشريفين باعضاء اللجنة الوزارية الثلاثية لدول منظمة «اوبك»، اضم وصرح ولا يحتل التأهل أو التصريف كما جاء في وحاها «يوناييتد برس انترناشيونال».

واضاف انه لم يحدث ان انتقد خادم الحرمين الشريفين اعضاء «اوبك» الذين قالت الوكالة المذكورة انهم فشلوا في الالتزام باتفاق توصلت اليه المنظمة قبل اربعة اشهر بهدف استقرار الاسعار.

وفي الكويت استقبل امير دولة الكويت الشيخ جابر الاحمد الصباح امس اعضاء اللجنة الثلاثية لاوبك التي تضم كلامن وزير البترول الفنزويلي الدكتور هيرنانديز جريسانتي ووزير البترول النيجيري الحاج ريلوانو لقمان ووزير بترول اندونيسيا الدكتور سحروتي.

وحضر المقابلة وزير النفط الكويتي الشيخ علي الخليفة العذبي والامين العام المساعد لمنظمة «اوبك» الدكتور لفاضل شلبي.

وقد توجه اعضاء اللجنة الى ابوظبي بعد ذلك في زيارة لدولة الامارات العربية المتحدة تستغرق يومين في نطاق جولة لها بعدد من الدول الاعضاء بالمنظمة.

وسيلتقي اعضاء اللجنة خلال الزيارة مع الشيخ زايد بن سلطان آل نهيان رئيس دولة الامارات.

وكان وزير البترول النيجيري والرئيس الحالي لمنظمة «اوبك» ريلوانو لقمان قد نلى في الرياض ليلة امس صحة ما نشرته بعض التقارير الصحفية القائلة ان الزيادة في انتاج اوبك من النفط تبلغ 3 ملايين برميل يوميا وقال ان تلك التقارير خاطئة.

واوضح ان اللجنة الوزارية الثلاثية لمنظمة الدول المصدرة للبترول التي تتكون منه ومن وزير البترول الفنزويلي ووزير البترول الاندونيسي ستجتمع في جمع المعلومات الضرورية عن انتاج النفط قبل اجتماع اوبك المقبل في ديسمبر (كانون اول) واشارت وكالة «اسوشيتد برس» التي نقلت تصريح وزير النفط النيجيري الى ان المملكة العربية السعودية هي اكبر مصدر للنفط في العالم وان السيد هشام ناظر وزير البترول والثروة المعدنية هو الذي حث على انشاء هذه اللجنة للمحافظة على اسعار نفط اوبك.

ونقل على لسان وزير البترول النيجيري ان اللجنة الوزارية الثلاثية لمنظمة الدول المصدرة للبترول ستعود الى السعودية ثانية في نهاية جولاتها التي تزور فيها بعض الدول الخليجية.



## في معترك الطرق

نجاح أو فشل منظمة الدول المصدرة للبترول ، أوبك ، موضوع لا يهم  
اعضائها فقط بل وكافة الدول المنتجة للبترول وغير البترول . أنها أول  
منظمة من العالم الثالث استطاعت ان تحمي انتاج اعضائها من المواد  
الاولية وترسم لغيرها من الدول النامية طريقا للتحكم في اقتصادها ورقابها  
ومستقبلها .

وامصابت كلمات خادم الحرمين الشريفين ، الملك فهد بن عبد العزيز ،  
كبد الحقيقة بقوله للجنة ، أوبك ، الثلاثية ان استقرار الاسواق البترولية  
امر يهم جميع اعضاء المنظمة والمنتجين الاخرين خارج المنظمة .

والشواهد على ذلك كثيرة ، فبريطانيا التي قاومت باصرار الانضمام الى  
أوبك او الازعان لسياستها ، جنت خير الثمار من استقرار الانتاج الذي  
ساعدها على زيادة اسعارها وتحسين ميزانيتها في الاشهر الاخيرة .

تعد ان هذا النجاح الذي وجدته دول ، أوبك ، سهلا في السبعينات ، لم  
يعد على ذلك الحال في الثمانينات . انه نجاح مرهون بتوازن دقيق لا يترك  
مجالا للسذاجة او الاتانية . امام الدول الثلاث عشرة في ، أوبك ، خياران  
لا ثالث لهما . اما الحصول على اسعار عالية بتخفيض الانتاج او زيادة  
الانتاج وقبول اسعار منخفضة . اي محاولة لتجاهل هذا الوضع تؤدي الى  
الغاء الخيارين والوقوع في أسر الدول الكبرى المستهلكة .

مهمة أوبك هي الوصول الى معادلة سليمة وحكيمة توازن بين السعر  
والانتاج وتعطي افضل العوائد على المدى القصير والبعيد .

ولكن هذه المعادلة تصبح عديمة القيمة اذا لم يلتزم بها اصحابها . ما  
فائدة الدواء الذي لا يشربه المريض . هذا هو الموقف الذي يجابهه أوبك  
الآن .

بعد تدهور حاد في الاسعار اثار الشكوك حتى في جدرى أوبك تمكنت  
هذه المنظمة في اول العام الحالي من الوصول الى مثل هذه المعادلة التي  
تعطي سعرا قدره ١٨ دولارا في اطار انتاج كلي للاعضاء في حدود ٥,٨  
مليون برميل في اليوم ، على ان يرتفع ذلك الى ١٦,٦ مليون برميل في يونيو  
(حزيران) ثم ١٨,٢ مليون برميل في سبتمبر (ايلول) . وتطوعت المملكة  
العربية السعودية لانتاج ما هو دون الحصة المخصصة لها فصدرت الى  
الاسواق نحو ٢ ملايين برميل بدلا من ٤,١٢٢ مليون برميل .

وكان المطلوب عالميا من البترول نحو ١٨ مليون برميل يوميا . واضطرت  
الدول المستهلكة الى تفريغ مخزونها . وادى كل ذلك الى ارتفاع السعر الى  
اكثر من ١٩ دولارا . وصفق المراقبون الاقتصاديون لهذا النجاح الذي  
اعاد الاحترام والهيبة للمنظمة ، التي استطاعت ان تحقق اهدافها  
الرئيسية لهذه المرحلة وهي تخفيض المخزون ورفع سعر النفط وزيادة  
الطلب على نفط دول أوبك بما يؤدي اخيرا الى تغطية كامل حصصها المقررة  
لها .

المشكلة هي ان اتفاق أوبك كان ساريا على ٦٠ في المائة فقط من النفط  
المعروض في الاسواق . بالنظر لوجود دول منتجة خارج أوبك ، كبريطانيا  
التي استغلت ارتفاع السعر فزادت انتاجها من ٢,١ مليون برميل (الرقم  
الذي تعهد بالالتزام به وزير الطاقة البريطاني) الى ٢,٦ مليون برميل ،  
ودول منتجة اخرى اخرجت نفسها في نطاق تقنين الحصص كالعراق .

ومضلا عن ذلك ، تبين ان عددا من دول أوبك لم تلتزم بحصتها فكانت  
النتيجة ارتفاع معدل الانتاج الى اكثر من ١٩ مليون برميل ، وهو ما تجاوز  
الحاجة العالمية . وعادت الاسعار الى الانهيار ودقت الاجراس للخطر .  
لنوقش الموضوع في مؤتمر يونيو الذي ادهش المراقبين بالوصول الى اتفاق  
يلتزم بالحد المقرر (١٦,٦ م/ب) ولكن الى نهاية العام .

ورغم ترحيب كافة الاوساط بالاتفاق واعتباره بداية حياة جديدة  
للمنظمة ، فان البعض ، وبينهم مجلة الايكونومست ، توقع تجدد المشاكل  
بخروج بعض الاعضاء عن الاتفاق .

وتشير المؤشرات الى ان ذلك هو ما وقع . وعادت المنظمة لتجابه السؤال  
نفسه: اتريد هذه الدول حقا ضمان مستقبل لاقتصادها واستقرارها  
المالي .

اذا كان الجواب يقوم على توفير الاستقرار لمستقبل اسواق البترول ومن  
ثم ضمان التخطيط المستمر للدول المعنية ، فلا بد من الالتزام بنظام رقابة  
يسري على كل دولة مشاركة في المنظمة ويضمن تمسك جميع الدول  
الاعضاء بتنفيذ ما يتقرر داخل المنظمة .