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The American University in Cairo
School of Humanities and Social Sciences

**The Impact of Politics on Lexical Coinage: A Study of the Morphological Patterns in
Egyptian Printed Media After January, 25th 2011**

A Thesis Submitted to
The Department of Applied Linguistics in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
The Degree of Master of Arts

By
Hagar Lotfy
Under the supervision of Dr. Zeinb Taha

December 2017

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ABSTRACT

All living languages come across linguistic changes with time. It is important to mention that various linguistic phenomena that living languages encounter include sound change, phonological change, syntactic change, lexical change or semantic change. From 2011 to 2015, Egypt passed through a critical political situation; a result, media and press introduce new lexical items and revive lexical terminology from the past. During the Arab Spring media websites tried to offer the most accurate lexical terminologies that express people's impatience for dignity, socio-political reforms, and human rights (Michel, 2013). This study aims to primarily investigate the impact of the political situation on the media lexical production, and the word formation strategies that has been frequently used to coin lexical items. Thus, this paper tries to answer the following research questions: 1. to what extent does political change influence the process of lexical creation. What are the common strategies used in lexical creation in modern written Arabic.

The data is extracted by scanning opinion columns in *al-Ahram* and *Al-Shorouq* newspapers from 2009 to 2015. Preliminary results demonstrate that socio-political variables influence the lexical production in which the language used incorporates the social and political feelings. Moreover, from data analysis, the study gives an updated definition of compounding, as a word formation process, and highlights the grammatical structures and the linguistic functions of compounding in MSA which vary from that produced by Arabic Academies. The Results also illustrate that the most common strategies adopted to create lexical items are compounding, as most used strategy, followed by derivation. The paper ends with pedagogical implications for strategies of teaching vocabulary in classroom.

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SYMBOLS OF TRANSLITERATION

| | |
|---|------|
| ا | ā/ a |
| ء | ʔ |
| ب | B |
| ت | T |
| ث | ᠆ |
| ج | g/ ʒ |
| ح | ḥ |
| خ | X |
| د | D |
| ذ | ᠆ |
| ر | r |
| ز | z |
| س | s |
| ش | ʃ/ š |
| ص | ṣ |
| ض | ḍ |
| ط | ṭ |
| ظ | ẓ |
| ع | ʿ |
| ف | f |
| ق | q |
| ك | k |
| ل | l |
| م | m |
| ن | n |
| ه | h |
| و | ū/ w |
| ي | ī/ y |
| ى | a |
| َ | a |
| ُ | u |
| ِ | i |

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MSA ---- Modern Standard Arabic

MWA---- Modern Written Arabic

ECA----- Egyptian Colloquial Arabic

Der----- Derivation

Comp----- Compounding

Met----- Metaphor

MB ----- Muslim Brotherhood

SLL ----- Second Language Learner

N----- Noun

Adj----- Adjective

AP-----Active Participle

PP-----Passive Participant

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background History

"Evidence at hand shows that Arabic is responding in different ways to terminological challenges. In doing so, it is engaged in a dual path and is constantly mediating between the necessity to adapt to the exigencies of modern technical and scientific communication on one hand while maintaining the integrity of its lexical system on the other hand" (Yousif, 2010, P.326).

All living languages come across linguistic changes with time. Existing languages encounter various linguistic changes, including sound change, phonological change, syntactic change, lexical change or semantic change. For instance, Schneidmesser (2000) came up with some terms for linguistic phenomena, such as "rhotacism, hypercorrection, metanalysis, and assimilation - the creation and extinction of terms from active vocabulary" (P.420). He added that societies encounter a change in language and the use of vocabulary as well. Languages have evolutionary phases throughout history. According to Fromkin (1978), English language went through three different stages: Old English (449-1100 C.E.), Middle English (1100 – 1500), and Modern English (1500 to present). These stages highlight the linguistic changes that are moving at a slow pace and are not recognized within short periods of time.

Like the English language, the Arabic language has been through similar evolutionary stages, which are: the pre-Islamic era, the post Islamic era, the Umayyad and the Abbasid periods, and Modern Arabic (Joha, 1990). The 18th century had witnessed the revival of the Arabic language—a symbol of unity

among Arabs—through the emergence of movements call for the revival of MSA and the Arabic dictionary. Translation also played a significant role in the transfer of different vocabulary into language. Furthermore, publications issues in Arabic appeared during this period such as *al-Waqā'i al-Maṣriyya* (Holes, 2004).

During the 19th century, Arabic journals, books and translated publications emerged. These led to the establishment of Arabic language academies in Cairo, Damascus and Baghdad. The major role of these academies is to accommodate new concepts and ideas and make the Arabic language useful in the ever-changing world. (Ferrando, 2011). By the end of 19th century, the journalistic literary style influenced gradually spoken language of well-educated Egyptians. Consequently, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) used by native speakers not only in written contexts but also in spoken language (Holes, 2004; Abdellah, 2003). In the 20th century, MSA reached a powerful and a flourishing stage. The mass media and the proliferation of literature, as well as the political, economic and scientific changes fundamentally contributed to the growth of MSA and led to language modernization. For instances, Arabized words were added to the Arabic language to meet the social needs (Holes,2004; Ferrando, 2011). As a result, Arabic has been brought “to its current position as a powerful cultural language well adapted to the requirements of modernity” (Ferrando, 2011, P 17).

Taha (1981), El-mouloudi (1986) and Yousif (2010) agree that MSA has been subjected to lexical modernization to follow up the technical, scientific, socio-political and cultural disciplines. Although there are academies in Egypt, Syria and Baghdad Who were responsible for coining new vocabulary, the rapid global

changes make it hard to keep up with the need for rapid lexical equivalents. Thus, in contemporary Arabic, media has responded to socio-political demands and has come up with matching terminologies. Furthermore, media has coined words by themselves without waiting for linguists or the academies. That is why Arabic newspapers have the greater share in coining new lexical items. The newspapers demonstrate many syntactic and phraseological creations today. Press language has far-reaching influences on Arabic terminology, vocabulary, grammar, and phraseology.

Arabic language is more of a focus in this study because, to the best of my knowledge relatively rare research has been done in this area, Modern Arabic lexical change. Arabic is a Semitic language that had gone through various significant linguistic changes. “Modern Standard Arabic or Modern Literary Arabic is the modern descendant of classical Arabic, unchanged in the essentials of its syntax but greatly changed and still changing in its vocabulary and phraseology” (Holes 2004, P.5). Von Schlegel (as cited in Dubyan, 1993) developed a typological classification in which languages are described under three categories. The first one is “**inflectional language**” in which words are derived from one root to refer to different semantic meanings such as Indo-European and Semitic languages. The second is “**agglutinative languages**” where prefixes and suffixes are added to the main word to form a new meaning, like Turkish language. And the third is “**Isolantes languages**” each word has one form and non-inflected.

1.2 Research gap:

Between 2011 and 2013, Egypt has gone through major critical political upheavals. Accordingly, Egyptian media and press redacted new lexical items and revived lexical terminologies from the past. Michel concluded that "the language of revolution, the idioms, and idiomodes of the Arab Spring, provide critical socio and politico-linguistic contexts that contribute to a fuller understanding of the overall regional situation and the localized iterations of the Arab revolutionary moment" (2013, p. 118). Michel (2013) also argued that language acts as the carrier of the revolutionary desires, feelings, identities, and ideologies. "per-locutionary and illocutionary slogans, phrases, terms, and both literary and linguistic devices" (p.120) serve as the instruments and the weapons of activists, journalists, poets, and writers as well. She illustrated that during the Arab Spring, media websites tried to offer the most accurate lexical terminologies that express the people's desires for dignity, socio-political reforms, and human rights. The coined terminologies during the Arab Spring have been spread through media and social website, such as "the pages of Al-Jazeera, CNN, Al-Arabiyya, AlHayat, the New York Times, and countless RSS, Twitter, and Facebook feeds". Hence, the language of the Arab Spring "verbalizes a set of attitudes and ideologies," which emanated from a sense of faith and a desire to make the country better.

Generally, this study focuses on the lexical innovation and semantic extension from 2011 till 2015 in the Egyptian newspapers' opinion articles. From 2011 to 2015, Egypt has gone through critical political conflicts, two revolutions, two parliaments, three presidents, Morsi, Mansour and El-Sisi, and

it seems to be four by counting Mubarak and different political and religious ideologies such as liberalism, brotherhood, Salafists, pro-anti revolution, etc. Thus, it is hypothesized that the political restlessness during this period influenced the language production. Moreover, lexical change, particularly during the Egyptian uprising, is a considerable topic.

1.3. Research questions

Q1: To what extent did political change influence the process of lexical creation from 2010 to 2015?

Q2: What are the strategies used in lexical creation in the press language?

1.4. Important definitions and operational definitions:

There are certain concepts that will be used in this study, and it is important to define these concepts. In this study, the process of lexical creation refers to **either the process of coining new lexical items or expressions, or the process of reviving old lexical items and expression either by semantic extension or not.**

Another concept worth defining is “derivation” – a word formation process in which the words are “derived by the superimposition of template patterns” (Holes, 2004). Therefore, set of lexicons are constructed that are similar “structurally and semantically” to the root.

Compounding is defined as the process of combining words together to denote one semantic reference. The components of this combination cannot be separated. As defined by Roman compound lexical items are “terms coined by resorting to a ‘freezing’ of syntactic structures are complex units, encompassing two

words at least. All terms of this type feature a binary structure of two smaller components, a basis and an extension (Roman 1999, 2001), each of which may in turn eventually be analyzed into two smaller components, and so on” (as cited in Dichy, 2011).

Semantic extension is defined as the extension of the semantic meaning of the word in a contextual usage to express multiple word senses that have not been not realized before. As reported by Esseesy (2011) “human cognition facilitates the extension of meaning through one or more of the creative cognitive mechanisms, such as metaphor and metonymy, and socially motivated mechanisms, such as euphemism and conventionalization of meaning” (P.2).

Metaphor is defined as a “linguistic unit to which an associated image is added generally to make it more vivid and increase its expressive power” (Yousif, 2010, P.320).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The process of coining words is to overcome “notional gaps”. Every language has its own unique rules to create new words which differ from one language to another.

2.1 Lexical innovation

The formation of new words is rule-governed by their acceptance as a part of the language. Badawii (2004) mentioned that MSA is responsive to the social demands. It expresses concepts from other languages and adapts the imported terminologies to its morphological system. For more clarification, foreign words are assimilated to the root pattern system of the morphology in the Arabic language. A native speaker is able to understand and use a new word without having a previous knowledge of how it is constructed. As mentioned by Adams (2016): “the ability to make and understand new words is obviously as much a part of our linguistic competence as the ability to make and understand new sentences” (p.6).

Fromkin (1978) demonstrates that the lexical change and semantic extension are types of language change which occur by "addition of new words, the "borrowing" of words from another language, the loss of the words and the shift in the meaning of the word over time". Social, political and technical variables have implication on lexical change. Other approaches have been suggested for the creation of Arabic terminology. Earlier, Hamzaoui (1965) and the Scientific Academy of Damascus have provided four methods for Arabic terminology creation; *istinbaat* (borrowing), *ishtiqaaq* (derivation), *naht* (blending), and *taʿrīb* (Arabization) and they listed them by preferences in language development.

Yousif (2010) studied Arabic lexical change (used interchangeably with terminological innovation) and adaptation. He investigated how Arabic language, recently, mobilizes toward lexical change in order to accommodate the scientific and technical evolutions. He concluded that Arabic terminology deals with these kinds of changes by "abbreviated terms, alphanumerical combinations, mixed units as

well as units created by metaphor, metonymy, and analogy".

Arabic is a Semitic language in which “derivational morphology” is considered a significant process to create new words. Native language speakers of Arabic utilize roots and patterns since the root is three consonants “from which actual words are derived by the superimposition of template patterns” (Holes, 2004, p...). Therefore, new lexicons of similar structures and semantics to MSA root system are developed. The significance of Der was highlighted by some linguists, such as Dubyan (1993) and Khalil (1979) since Der is a remarkable process of word formation to coin new lexicons in order to express new meanings. Dev. is also preferred by Arab academies as a word formation process (Ferrando, 2011).

Der leads to the development of the language because it provides the language with many vocabulary and terms. Khalil’s (1979) gives examples from the root slm; it is possible to coin salim, yusalim, salima, salman, sallma, salama, salīm ,etc.. These examples illustrate that the change occurs by adding prefixes or vowels or both. Moreover, A meaning of a word is closely related to the meaning of the root slm. Khalil (1979) sets three main rules and restrictions for Der,

1. The root and the pattern should share the same three consonants.
2. The consonants should be in the same order as the root.
3. There should be an amount of equivalency between the pattern and the root.

Furthermore, Der helps in identifying the foreign terms which are not originally Arabic, but rather are borrowed from another language. For example, the term *الفردوس* /*firdaūs* is borrowed Is borrowed from Persian, hence it has no Arabic root as *firdas* (Khalīl, 1978). In contemporary Arabic, it is found that there is a tendency to innovate new patterns which have new meanings. Al-aqtash highlights this

tendency to innovate new patterns which have new meanings. He gave an example of the pattern *فعلنة*, which has frequently been used recently. He states that *يفعلنة* is a new pattern that entails the meaning of “change or alteration”.

Due to modernization, new lexical items have been introduced to facilitate communication. These coined lexical items provide semantic references that language users were previously not familiar with. This led to the innovation of new strategies of word formation such as compounding (Khalil, 1979). Classic linguists and Arabic academies defined compounding as:

"المركب المزجي ضم كلمتين إحداهما إلى الأخرى، وجعلها اسما واحدا، إعرابا وبناء"

" Compounding is joining two words together which becomes one; either syntactically or grammatically”.

- (في أصول اللغة، 1975، ص52)

Ferrando (2011) maintains that compounding is not favored by Arab academies. However, in contemporary Arabic, the compounding strategy is utilized in the innovation of new expression by adding two words together or adding a particle to a word to in order to create one word and to give a new semantic meaning. As defined by Roman (1999;2001), compound lexical items are “terms coined by resorting to a ‘freezing’ of syntactic structures are complex units, encompassing two words at least. All terms of this type feature a binary structure of two smaller components, a basis and an extension (Roman 1999, 2001), each of which may in turn eventually be analyzed into two smaller components, and so on” (as cited in Dichy, 2011, p.31). Moreover, Khalil (1979) perfectly illustrated these words, *مجلس* *maglis* *i]’-]iyūx* Senate and *كاتم الأسرار* *kātīm al-ʔsrār* which was a profession at

the army, as compound nouns. Ashtiany (1993) considered compounding as a word formation process in MSA because of the escalated tendency of newspaper to use compounds. She gives examples of frequently used compounds from newspaper, e.g., رد فعل [rad fiʿl which means “reaction”] and رأسمالية [raʾsmāliya which means capitalism]. Taha (1981) suggested various strategies that were adopted by journalists in creating new compound terms, such as literal translation as in الاشتراكية الدولية/ al-ʿiʿtirākiyya ad-dawliyya “socialist international” and القطة السمان/ al-qīṭaṭ as-simān “the fat cats”. She added that compounding provides translation of the idea as السوق الأوروبية المشتركة/ as-sūq al-ʿūrūbiyya al-muʿtaraka “European common market”. Hence, compounding was used in the process of translation through literal translation or as translation of the idea was significant during that period of time.

Although there are compound nouns in Arabic as previously mentioned, the rules of compound noun formation in Arabic is still vague unlike English language. Ben (2007) expressed his opinion about this issue saying that “from my years of experience, I have been able to observe firsthand the way which is linking of two words or even more may result in the formation of compound structure” (p.24). It is not deniable that the difference between compound noun and noun phrase continues to be a very “controversial” topic in Arabic linguistic studies (Ben, 2007). This is because there is no certain rule to follow. Recently, compounding caught the attention of modern linguists since Arabic language is challenged by the essential needs to coin lexical patterns which denote new meanings. Thus, researchers such as Khalil (1979); El-mouloudi (1980); Dubyan (1990); El-esawy (2002); Dichy (2011), and Edzard (2011) attempted to deduce some rules and regulations that control the process of compounding. El-mouloudi (1986), Ditchy (2011), and Edzard (2011) observed that compounding is a noun-noun relation (idafa). As reported by Edzard

(2011), idafa can function as compound noun. According to El-esawy (2002), compounding as a word formation process does not exist in Arabic language and genitive phrase is utilized in Arabic instead. One of the most common types is the compound unit created from noun and adjectival modifier. This syntactic relation is also highlighted by Dichy (2011) who analyzed the technical terminology coined by Arab speaker. He concluded that the relationship between the components of the compound noun may be “e.g. coordination, *ḍahāb wa ʿiyyāb* ‘round trip’; however, the most frequent one is “subordination”. One of this subordination types is “attributive noun-and-adjective relation” e.g., *tūl mawgī* ‘wave length’.

The significant impact of western languages on the language of newspaper is undeniable. In the 19th centuries, the Egyptian press started to report news from western news agencies (Hassan 1976). Effat (2011) stated that the press always is keen to update language to meet the social, economic, political and technological developments. He also indicated that translation and metaphor play a major role in enriching the language. Holes (2004) added that the process of borrowing new words occurred as a need resulted from the development of Arabic language. Holes (2004) gave many examples of borrowing that appeared even in classical Arabic texts. For example; the word *صراط* / *ṣirāṭ* “a way or a path” from Latin *strata* appears in the *fātiḥa*, the opening surah of the Quran. He adds other Greek borrowings such as; *قسطاس* / *qistās* “balance” and large number of Persian ones such as; *زنجبیل* / *Zanjabīl* “ginger” *استبرق* / *ʿistabraq* “silk” and *فردوس* / *firdaws* “paradise”.

In fact, thousands of words and structures are incorporated in the Arabic language through coining, Arabizing and borrowing word formation processes. However, in the Arabic language the foreign words should be assimilated to the root

patterns system of Arabic morphology. A native speaker is able to understand and use a new word without having a previous knowledge of how it is constructed. Thus, Arabized or translated loan lexical items are added to MSA and adapted to the language derivational system. In agreement with Kanun (1983), Al-Qahtani (2000) confirms that Arabized lexical items are used frequently, particularly in scientific field. However, 15% of the words are foreign words not Arabized. He added that the lexical items coined by using derivation formation process are more frequent than the lexical items innovated by using compounding process. Al-Qahtani (2000) depended on a corpus analysis of 1,068,236 words from the Saudi newspapers. On the other hand, Abdellah (2003) argued that in the present time, Arabization is not always recommended as a straightforward strategy for finding the equivalents. So therefore, people try their linguistic abilities and invent new words that represent, to a satisfactory degree, the original foreign term. The invented words by native speakers sometimes become so powerful that the Arabic academies for language eloquence in Egypt, Syria and Iraq accept them and add them to their occasional lists of new words.

2.2 Sociopolitical variable:

Language is a mirror of the society as it is the key instrument of the daily communication in the society; accordingly, language changes with the social change. Sociolinguistic variation is the investigation of how the language varies and changes in a speech community because of the influence of some factors such as social, political, economic. This study focuses on the political variable significant impact on the language change. Ferri (2010) and Milles (2011) have proved that socio-political

and economic variables have a significant impact on the language change. The interaction between the social and the political changes is direct and dominates the development of media language (Conboy, 2010).

Milles (2011) investigated the idea of lexical change in the name of feminism. Part of the change includes the coined word to spread the message of feminism. For example, the movement created the pronoun *hen* "a gender-neutral generic pronoun," which is used among LGBT people and in feminist communities." She added that "the interest in feminist language planning among official language-planning bodies has also intensified in the last few years. The Language Council of Sweden prepared a new official language policy for the country, which included the goal to minimize sexist tendencies in official Swedish. The council also produced a guide to gender-neutral language" (Milles, 2011, p. 21). Therefore, the new political reform tends to change the language, the mean of communication, to be "a democratic tool" for all genders equally.

Ferri (2011) indicated that socio-political and economic variables have a direct and indirect impact not only on the spoken languages, but also in the way of perceiving the language. He added: "globalization and ever-increasing contact across the world result in small communities come out of their isolation and seek interaction with the wider world. As a result, small, isolated languages are dropped in favor of languages spoken by much larger populations." (p.49). The term "institutional racism" was coined by an unknown author in 1999; the author argues that the phrase "institutional racism" was created by a black American activist in 1960s; however, in 1999 the term was used again in reference to the failure of London Policemen to charge the killer of a young black boy. The word usage was increased in the press by

300 percent more than before.

Because of the change of circumstances and political status, Taha (1980) concluded that words and expressions innovated by media functionally reflect the political and economic situation in the society. Thus, some lexical items were created while others vanished, and their meanings became not applicable. Revolutions and words are born side by side because revolution starts up new values, new ethics, new traditions, and some political reforms. Through the revolutionary history in Egypt, many lexical items came up with every revolution (Khalil, 1978). Khalil (1978) and Taha (1980) counted the following:

- Orabi revolution caused the innovation of words like *المصريون* / al-maṣriyyūn “Egyptians”, and *الفلاحون* / al-falāḥūn “farmers”. (Khalil, 1978)
- The Egyptian revolution of 1952 put an end to the meaning of some lexical items such as *برنس* / brins “prince” (Khalil, 1978)
- *الأمن الغذائي* / al-ʔam al-ʔiḏāʔī “food security”, *الكوماندوز* / al-kūmāndūz “commandos and *التطبيع* / at-taṭbīʕ “normalization” are lexical items that were created during Sadat regime and after the war 1973 (Taha, 1981).

Youssef (2013) demonstrated how newspapers portrayed Muslim Brotherhood from June 2012 until July 2013 through tracing the linguistic reference change that occurred in referring to MB. The results indicated that the change of the political ideology of the newspaper influenced the terminology used to denote MB. In addition, journalists “purposefully” created linguistic patterns to “encode” specific political ideology, statues, and situation. Taha (2016) shaded the light on the negative evaluation linked to Morsi. She found that that journalists created pseudo-title to refer

to Morsi after his removal from office in which the most frequent linguistic patterns are *الرئيس المعزول محمد مرسي* / ar-raʔīs al-maʔzūl moḥamad morsī “the ousted president Mohamed Morsi” and *المعزول* / almaʔzūl “the ousted”. She indicated that “pseudo-titles provide concise descriptive information about the referent.” (P.10).

2.3. Language and media

“MSA is the official Arabic variety for the entire Arab world; it is used in international organizations and in many wide-ranging world-wide media” (El-essawy, 2002, p.3). As previously mentioned, the press plays a significant role in innovation of new lexicons and phrases, many of the news report in the Arab world are issued in the form of literal translation; especially, from French and English media. Hence, journalists produce everyday coined phrases in order to be more practical without having to wait for the Arab academies (Holes, 2004). However, studies that have been conducted in Modern Standard Arabic recently have ignored the lexical change and lexical expansion that occur in the media language. El-mouloudi (1986) stated that the idea that journalists, translators, and individual writers witness language as a developmental means of communication which should change to meet various developments.

Badawi (1973- 2012) divided Egyptian contemporary Arabic to five levels “Classical Arabic,” “Modern Standard Arabic,” “colloquial of intellectuals,” “colloquial of the literate,” and last “colloquial of illiterate”. The media language is not only restricted to MSA, but also represents the other language levels because language mirrors the society while the newspaper mirrors the language and its development (Badawi, 2012). As reported by Imam (1972), media language does not trigger only the logic, but rather the social feelings and conscious. Therefore,

journalists attempt to choose direct and realistic language in reporting an event.

It is noted that journalists play a significant role in reducing the gap between ECA and MSA which lead to the development of the language in terms of reporting the political events linguistically in a simple, comprehensive, expressive and communicative way (Abdel Fattah, 1996; Badawi 2012). Thus, media language tends to modernize and simplify MSA to be flexible, comprehensible and expressive among educated and uneducated people (Hamza, 1961; Abu-Lughod, 1963; Abdelfattah, 1996). The first United Nations Arab Human Development in 2002 reported that lack of knowledge, the deficiency of freedom, and the high levels of illiteracy are the major problems in the Arab countries. It was reported in 2003 that these problems were becoming more serious (Shaaban, 2011). Thus, Abu-Loghud (1963) pointed out that the effort of media to downscale the complexity of language used is very notable, so it is found that there is no difficulty in understanding. With the high level of illiteracy, the media policy reacts with the social needs significantly and develops MSA to be simple and comprehensible. Journalists select and create lexical items, structures and lexical items which the reader is familiar with.

One of the major advantages of media language is the expansion of lexical meaning and innovation to an extent that journalists have significant impact on the recent development of Arabic language (Abulleil, 2008). Taha (1981) investigated the coined lexical item in the newspaper headlines and the development of lexical usage of the words. According to her study, newspapers are a helpful source for the enrichment of MSA as the language is very "responsive to modern society needs". Additionally, she argued that the coined terms are not only used in MSA but also, they spread to involve the colloquial speech. Taha (1980) suggested that translation

also played a significant role in lexical enrichment because journalists use the literal translation of the lexical items, and translation of the idea itself. What is more, she illustrated that the newspaper's editors "use several expressions to meet the required consideration for the coined expression".

El-esawy (2002) in her corpus based study divided 816 lexical items according to word formation process. She extracted the lexical items from political articles in *Al-Ahram* newspaper since she concluded that political jargon is more subjected to language change due to the influence of news agency reports which circulate coinages all over the world.

Abu-Loghod (1963) referred to the newspaper tendency to assimilate ECA and MSA in writing deliberately. In his opinion, journalists aim to lower the MSA complexity level to facilitate the comprehension of individuals from all educational levels. In the same way, Journalists put into consideration the readers' comprehensive comprehension. As previously mentioned, they develop and simplify the language used. Thus, there is no need for explanation or paraphrasing of the language. For this purpose, it is found that journalistic writings entail lexical items and expressions that are found in readers' daily social communications. In the modern era, media is the communicative medium which takes the linguistic risk to create new linguistic features, styles and structures (Abdelfattah, 1996).

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1. The study

This study aims to primarily investigate the productivity and expression of lexical items in the media language in Egypt from 2010 to 2015 and to denote, as well, how the Egyptian political situation has influenced this productivity. Therefore, the independent variable is the political situation, whereas the creation of lexical items is the dependent variable. Furthermore, the second question in this research discusses the frequent strategies used in word formation. The language used as corpus material for this research is well-used modern standard variety.

3.2 Sources of data and tools

The data is extracted from the analysis of opinion columns in two Egyptian newspapers from 2010 to 2015. Newsom and Wollert (1988) points out that the opinion articles include evaluations on actions, event and public controversial issue. In these articles, the writer expresses the public opinion and his own opinion as well. Basically, the data is selected from *Al-Ahram* and *Al-Shorouk* newspapers. Data was collected from *Al-Ahram* microfiche in the library of the American University in Cairo, and *Al-Shorouk online archive*. The opinion column articles, which are taken into consideration in this study, are those tackle the political stance in Egypt. Some tools are relied on in this study are:

- 1- Arabic corpus and International Corpus of Arabic (ICA)
- 2- Maajim.com is one of the biggest electronic Arabic- Arabic dictionaries. It includes the best and most comprehensive dictionaries in the Arabic language, all together in

one place. It entails the recent editions of all these dictionaries لسان العرب /lisān al-ʿarab, تاج العروس /tāg al-ʿarūs, مختار الصحاح /muxtār al-ṣaḥāḥ, المعجم الوسيط /al-muʿjam al-wasīt, الصحاح في اللغة /al-ṣaḥāḥ fi l-luġa, معجم العربية المعاصرة /muʿjam al-ʿarabiyya al-muʿaṣira.

- 3- *Hanswher* dictionary (1976) is a dictionary of modern written Arabic. It arranges the lexicons according to Arabic root order.

3.3 Procedures for data collection

The researcher adopted agenda setting to select the data. Agenda setting is defined as a collective process in which the government, mass media, and the public are influenced together in identifying the key issues and events that should be considered by the researcher (Severin & Tankard, 2010). Agenda setting theory is developed by Max McCombs and Donald Shaw in 1968 in their study of the presidential elections in America. Furthermore, many studies in mass communication have used agenda setting. These studies have investigated the relationship between media views and politics, society, culture, and economy. And until now it is a relevant theory in data collection (McCombs, 2005). This theory is convenient to my study because first I hypothesized a relationship between political situation and media language production; hence, most coined lexical items have probably been developed to represent those prominent events. Additionally, the data is selected from 2010 to 2015 which is a long period of time. Agenda settings theory helps in limiting the sample and get more representing data. The research relied mainly on “Egypt profile - Timeline” article in the selection of the newspaper issues in order to find the key events during 2010 to 2015. This article is published by BBC to preview chronologically the dates of the issues report the prominent events in Egypt from circa 7000 BC and it is always updated.

The sample analyzed 50 issues from the *Alahram* and *Al-Shorouk* newspapers. The data is

retrieved deliberately from the columns that introduced only the political issues in Egypt. First all the opinion columns in the selected issues were scanned. During this process, the lexical items were selected intuitively and the new and the revived lexical items were added to the data. Some considerations were regarded in the data selection such as the simplicity, the accuracy, the clarity and the concision of the new items and expressions.

After that, all the driven lexical items were checked whether they used before or not in *Al-Shorouk* column Egypt (2010) subcorpus, *Al-Masry Al-youm* (2010) subcorpus and *Al-Ahram* (1990) sub corpus in Arabic corpus. By using *Al-Ahram* sub corpus and ICA, the extracted lexical items during 2010 were consulted. Next, the lexical items that were extracted from 2011 to 2015 were checked in *Al-Shorouk* column Egypt 2010 sub corpus and *Al-Masry Al-Youm* 2010. Finally, the vocabulary items and expressions were filtered so that the lexical items that had been used before with the same meaning were dismissed.

The data included 160 lexical items. 6 lexical items were excluded because they did not follow the previous mentioned considerations. Among the 160 patterns, 133 are coined and the other 21 words are revived lexical items.

3.4 Data analysis and procedures:

To answer the first question:

First, after data collection and filtration, lexical items provide a basis for comparison between lexical items produced every year and the development of the political stances and social feelings. Adding to this, some questions were taken into account while comparing:

- 1- How do journalists linguistically name and refer to persons and events?
- 2- Is there a change in naming persons, objects, or events linguistically? And why?
- 3- Is there specific characteristics, qualities or features attributed to lexical items?

To answer the second question:

The most common strategies of lexical creation were elicited from the investigated data. The researcher adopted an inductive approach to find the ways and the strategies which were used in lexical production e.g. compounding, literal translation, semantic extension, borrowing and derivation. Inductive research “involves the search for pattern from observation and the development of explanations – theories – for those patterns through series of hypotheses” (Bernard, 2011, p.7). This approach was used before by AlGorn (2012) in classifying his data in the result section. This study took the following steps:

First, all the collected data were classified according to the word creation strategy. Second, the lexical items which have extended semantic meaning were checked in maajim website to find out if this meaning has previously used or not. Third, newly derived lexical items were consulted in *Hanswpher* dictionary (1979). This helped identify the relation between the meaning of the root and the meaning of the new pattern. Finally, the rest of the data was analyzed

according to its structures, meanings and linguistic functions. Hence, the new strategies of word formation were induced.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The first part of the analysis in this study is an investigation of the media linguistic patterns. These patterns represent certain phenomena and highlight social mood since the choice of words in a particular context enables “greater understanding” (Baker, 2006). The linguistic choices of press language demonstrate the social stance since the journalistic response mirrors the socio-political stance which is “vital,” according to Brindle (2015). Such choices are relevant reflections of the public comprehension and participation in socio-political incidents. Studying the innovated referential terms used by newspapers from 2010 to 2015 provides an insight into the political stance within the Egyptian society.

4.1. The influence of politics on word formation

The first question in this study investigates the impact of the dynamic political situation in Egypt and the language used in newspapers which reflects this dynamism. As a result of the political restlessness in the Middle East generally and in Egypt specifically, the newspapers competed to report the political struggle through the innovation of simple, concrete and accurate interpretational terms which enable the readers to comprehend and react to the new political stance. Thus, the journalists developed relevant lexis to meet the socio-political needs by adopting various strategies. These strategies will be discussed in depth later in section 4.2.

The data analysis displays more than one lexical item that describes the political movements and protests. This is shown in the following table:

Table (1): The referential terms of the revolution

| | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| Revolutionary powers | Al-quwā al- القوى الثورية θawriyya |
| March of millions | مليونية millyūniyya |
| Rebelling powers | Al-quwā al- القوى الإحتجاجية ʔiḥtizāziyya |
| Uprising movement | Al-ḥirāk al- الحراك الثوري θawrī |
| People's movement | Al-ḥarāk al- الحراك الشعبي šaʕbī |
| Voices of protests | Al-ʔaṣwāt al- الأصوات الإحتجاجية ʔiḥtizāziyya |
| The people's powers popular forces | Al-quwā al- القوى الشعبية šaʕbiyya |
| Epic of the revolution | Al-malḥamaal- الملممة الثورية θawriyya |

In the above-mentioned table, the sense of the lexical patterns is very powerful as they reflect the determination and persistence of the revolution. The press texts are influenced by the revolutionary state that spread out across Egypt. Consequently, distinguished lexical items were created to align with the revolutionary ideas and spirits. Adding to that, the lexical items expressed the feelings and opinions of the street. These findings demonstrate that the journalists took social feelings into consideration since they select linguistic patterns associated with specific political assessments. In accordance with Youssef (2013), “the most predominant theme was the revolution which was used in the two newspapers to give authority and draw a positive image of self and a negative image of other” (P.86).

Furthermore, the impact of the political situation on the language of the press is evident to the change of the lexical items which illustrate the same reference. Another example is the development of the referential terms, from 2010 to 2015, regarding the

Muslim Brotherhood (MB). In 2010, media utilized terms such as

Table (2): Referential terms represent of MB in 2010

| | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Banned Muslim Brotherhood group | zamāṣat al-ḥiwān al-جماعة الإخوان المحظورة mahzūra |
| The banned group | Al-zamāṣa al-جماعة المحظورة mahzūra |
| The brotherhood | Al-الإخوان ḥiwān |

Before and during 2010, MB was a banned group; although, it was considered as the largest tolerated Islamist opposition group. During Mubarak’s regime (an Egyptian former president), MB suffered from political persecution and mass arrest. However, it was not deprived completely from taking part in the political life – it was represented in the parliament as an independent party.

After the January 25 Revolution, the political status and social acceptance of the MB, after being banned, became both socially and politically legalized. Due to this, they dominantly gained the majority of seats in the Parliament in 2011. Afterwards, Mohammed Morsi, MB member, was nominated for the presidential elections and won. As a result, the lexical items which were utilized by the journalists to denote MB were replaced by other ones appropriate to their new political stance. In this case, the referential terms describe MB reflect neutral or positive evaluation.

Table (3): Referential terms denote MB post revolution

| | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| The religious wing | At-tayyar ad-dīnī | التيار الديني |
| Freedom and liberty young members | šabāb al-ḥuriyya wal-ḥadāla | شباب الحرية والعدالة- ḥa |
| MB young members | šabāb al-ḥixwān | شباب الإخوان |
| Freedom and liberty party | hizb al-ḥuriyya wal-ḥadāla | حزب الحرية والعدالة- ḥadāla |

By the end of 2012, some oppositional movements such as *tamarud* launched against the policy of Morsi and MB because MB was accused of monopolizing the power and prosecuting Christians, liberals and minorities. Therefore, large crowd protests began on June 30, 2013 against Morsi and MB. These protests ended with toppling the former president, Mohammed Morsi. Likewise, the social and political rejection of the MB led to change in the referential lexical items that denote MB as well. For more clarification, the lexical items displaying the MB were replaced by other lexical patterns to show negative assessment. For example,

Table (4): Referential terms representing MB post 30 June revolution

| | | |
|--|---------------------------------|--|
| Terroristic group | zamāḥat al-ḥirhābiyya | الجماعة الإرهابية |
| MB terrorist organization | zamāḥat al-ḥixwān al-ḥirhābiyya | جماعة الإخوان الإرهابية- ḥirhābiyy |
| Supporters of the ousted president (Morsi) | ḥanšār al-maḥzūl | أنصار المعزول |
| Radical Fascism organization | tanẓīm al-fāšiya at-takfirīyya | تنظيم الفاشية التكفيرية- takfirīyya |
| MB militants | Milišyāt al-ḥixwān | ميليشيات الإخوان |

The previous referential terms indicate that MB was accused of most of terroristic accidents that occurred in the country after the 30 June revolution. Consequently, MB was declared to be as a terrorist, extremist, radical and fascist organization. The results of this study agree with Youssef (2013) in terms of the media choices to express the social and political refusal of MB. Moreover, the journalists purposefully created linguistic patterns to signify specific political ideology, statues, and situation.

The development of the lexical patterns referring to the Egyptian ex-president Mohammed Morsi were very significant as well. There is a notable change in the words denoting him before and after July 2013. During his regime, journalists referred to him as follows:

Table (5): Referential terms of Muhammed Morsi before toppling

| | | |
|--|--------------------------|-------------------|
| President Morsi | Ar-raʔīs mursī | الرئيس مرسي |
| Doctor Mohammed Morsi | Ad-duktur Muhammad mursī | الدكتور محمد مرسي |
| First civilian president | ʔawwal raʔīs madanī | أول رئيس مدني |
| President elect | Ar-raʔīs al-muntaʔab | الرئيس المنتخب |
| President who came as the result of the revolution | Raʔīs aθ-θawra | رئيس الثورة |

The lexical items in the previous share the same semantic field. The lexical items show the optimistic and peaceful spirit that spread out across the country after the establishment of the first presidential election after January 25th Revolution. Along with the elections, the winner was a civilian president not military. However, the political division intensified between Morsi, Salafists, liberal groups and

Christians. The initiatives of the journalists to create new lexical items were significant since they attempt to accurately describe Morsi's political stance. Indeed, With the deterioration of the political situation, terms were replaced; although, the reference of the terms is still the same (Morsi).

Table (6): Referential terms of Morsi after being toppled

| | | |
|----------------------|--------------|----------------------------|
| President of the MB | Raʿīs | الرئيس الإخواني ʔixwānī |
| The ousted president | Ar-raʿīs al- | الرئيس المعزول maʿzūl |

The results represented in table (6) are consistent with Youssef (2013) and Taha (2016). Thus, the lexical items adopted by the journalists to refer to Morsi are varied according to the political change. In the same way, the referential terms label Mubarak and his regime.

Table (7): Referential terms of Mubarak's regime pre 25th revolution

| | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|
| National democratic party | Al-ḥizb al-waṭanī ad- | الحزب الوطني الديمقراطي- dimuqrāṭī |
| Mubarak regime | hukumit mubārak | حكومة مبارك |

Table (7) shows the terms that express the regime before the revolution. Post the 25th revolution and the toppling of the ex-president Mubarak and the dismissal of the parliament, new lexical items were coined to represent the same regime. In alignment with the political dynamism, these lexical items represent the political and social negative attitude toward this regime.

Table (8): Referential terms of Mubarak's regime post 25th revolution

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| National Dismantled party | Al-ḥizb al-waṭanī al- | الحزب الوطني المنحل munḥal |
| The regime of the toppled president | ḥukūmat al-maḥlūf | حكومة المخلوع |

| | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| Old regime | An-niẓām al-bāʿid | النظام البائد |
| Tyranny regime | An-niẓām aṭ-ṭāʿiyya | النظام الطاغية |
| Figures of corruption | Rumūz al-fasād | رموز الفساد |
| Former regime figures | Rumūz an-niẓām as-sābiq | رموز النظام السابق |

These lexical items are shown in Table (8) which represents a reasonable description of Mubarak's regime and its tyranny and dictatorship before 2011 revolution.

Likewise, in the data, the variation in the terms used to represent the revolutionists is very evident. This is because of the running political situations and the conflict of the political ideologies. Precedingly, the representative lexical terms depicting protestors show positive judgment, such as

Table (9): Referential terms of the protestors during the revolution

| | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| Tahrir square protesters | ʔabnāʔ al-mīdān | أبناء الميدان |
| Angry Friday protestors | Ṫuwwār al-Ṭaḍab | ثوار الغضب |
| Tahrir square young protestors | šabāb al-mīdān | شباب الميدان |
| Political activists | Nuṣaṭāʔ siyāsiyyīn | نشطاء سياسيين |

Yet, the political conflict was potentially intensified. other referential terms were used to illustrate the protestors.

Table (10): Negative referential terms of the protestors

| | | |
|---|----------------|------------|
| Agents | Ṣumalāʔ | عملاء |
| Traitors | Xawana | خونة |
| Agenda (used as an adjective to refer to the protestor as a traitors who implement a hidden agenda for instability) | ʔazenda | أجندة |
| Fifth column | ṭabūr ḫāmis | طابور خامس |
| A small group creeped among the protestors | Qilla mundassa | قطة مندسة |

The previously mentioned lexical items in table (10) carry negative attitude toward the protestors. It is revealed that the change in the political situation and political views are reported linguistically in the press. Therefore, lexical items, either carry positive or negative attitude, shared the same semantic field.

It is possible to draw a general conclusion through media discourse that the newspaper writings include evaluative language or, in other words, language of affect and judgment depending on the political stance. The linguistic units which demonstrated the revolution implied powerful spirit and emotions. they denote the sense of struggling, freedom, insistence, strength etc. Additionally, the linguistic patterns which describe MB, Morsi, Mubarak regime and the revolutionists are varied since they identified different political views at different times. Consequently, “particular language usage results in a specific interpretational pattern for the comprehension of social issues, relations and identities” (Habermass, 1999, as cited in Brindle, 2015, P.3). As noticed, the linguistic items are judgmental and indicate positive or negative assessment about specific political group because they are influenced by the socio-political mood in Egypt during this period.

Although media represent a significant source for coining and producing new lexical items, the lexical items manipulation was affected by the political change. The rapid and continuous socio-political change need updated media contributions. As previously shown, *الحزب المنحل* / Al-ḥizb al-munḥal “The dismantled party” has been replaced with *الحزب الوطني الديمقراطي* / Al-ḥizb al-waṭanī ad-dimuqrāṭī “National Democratic Party” and the later faded away. Another example is *شباب الحرية والعدالة* / šabāb al-ḥuriyya wal-ʿadāla “Freedom and liberty young members” which has disappeared and replaced with *شباب جماعة الإخوان الإرهابية* / šabāb jamāʿat al-ʿixwān al-

ʔirhābiyya “young members MB terrorist organization”. The results provide additional support to Taha (1981) and Youssef (2013) observations that the journalists “purposefully” create linguistic patterns to “encode” specific political ideology, statues, and situation. For example, حزب الكنبه / ḥizb al-kanaba “sofa party”, المجلس العسكري / Al-maʔlis al-ʔaskarī “SCAF”, الإعلان الدستوري / Al-ʔiʔlān ad-dustūrī “Constitutional declaration” have vanished with the disappearance of the reference. On the contrary, داعش / dāʔiʃ “ISIS” is still used in the press. To sum up, the previous findings confirm that the coined lexical items are classified into three types. First, lexical items which are replaced by other. Second, other terms that are no longer relevant. Last, some other terms have extended to meet the current socio-political pressure. Generally, many lexical items have completely disappeared, while new lexical items have come in to enrich MSA.

4.2. Strategies of word formation

The second research question aims to investigate the common strategies used by journalists recently to contribute in introducing new lexical items to keep up with the consistently changing events. With the social change, language develops and also strategies as shown in khalil (1979), Taha (1981), and Yousif (2010) studies. The society cannot be adequate in using the lexicons only with its fixed meanings because words, in any language, are much less than the social and intellectual experiences. Thus, this might cause the limitation in the expansion of language. That is why language users find out new trends and strategies to innovate new coined contextual vocabulary and expression. Data investigation gives insights into the idea of linguistic innovations. The political uprisings provoke the journalists to innovate new lexical items to describe these changes. So therefore, MSA is responsive to the

contemporary sociopolitical demand. Adding to this, the journalistic texts imply various strategies to coin considerable numbers of lexical items either by derivation of new patterns from the same root or adding two words together to give new connotations or extend the semantics of vocabulary.

4.2.1. Compounding in the press language

It is intriguing to see, in the results, that the journalists have used compounding, mostly as a word-formation process, on a large scale. For example, المجلس العسكري / al-maglish al-ḡaskarī “SCAF”, كشوف العذرية / Kuṣūf al-ḡuḏriyya “virginity tests”, قانون مباشرة الحقوق السياسية “Law of monitoring political rights”. As previously mentioned, compounding is not well defined in Arabic. Data analysis indicates that compounding is the most salient process in word formation used by the journalists. Thus, in the light of the press language analysis the linguistic structures, features, functions of compounding in Modern Arabic will be illustrated in the few next paragraphs.

From the data investigation analysis, compound noun is divided into two sections; two words compound and multi words compound. The first section of compound noun (two words compound) has two types of grammatical structures. The relation between the components of the compound is either noun -adjective modifier, as referred to by Dichy (2011), or with another noun in an idafa construction (annexation), as pointed out by Edzard (2011). The first type (Noun-Adjective structure) has various morpho-syntactic structure. e.g. (i) **Noun + Nisba adjective modifier**

Table (11): Compounding modified by Nisba

| | | |
|------------------------|-------------|----------------|
| Enforced disappearance | اختفاء قسري | ḡiḡtifāʔ qasrī |
|------------------------|-------------|----------------|

| | | |
|--|--------------------------|------------------|
| Judicial arrest | Aḍ-ḍabṭiyya al-qaḍāʿiyya | الضبطية القضائية |
| Political modernity | ḥadāṭha syāsiyya | حدثة سياسية |
| Parliament electoral roll | Qāʿima ʿintiḫābiyya | قائمة إنتخابية |
| Security chaos | ʿinfilāt ʿamnī | انفلات أمني |
| International organization (Turkey and Qatar) | At-tanzīm ad-dawlī | التنظيم الدولي |
| Arab Spring | Ar-rabīʿ al-ṣarabī | الربيع العربي |
| Constituent assembly | Maʿlis at-taʿsīs | المجلس التأسيسي |

Or (ii) **Noun + Passive Participle (PP)**, for example

Table (12): Compounding modified with PP:

| | | |
|--|------------|-------------------------|
| Supporters of the ousted president (Morsi) | ʿanṣār al- | أنصار المعزول maʿzūl |
| Temporary president | Raʿīs | رئيس مؤقت muʿaqqat |

Or (iii) **noun + other forms of adjectival modifier**

Table (13): Compounding modified with other forms of adjectives:

| | | |
|--|--------------------|---------------------------|
| The white coup (N+ adj.) | Al-ʿinqilāb al- | الانقلاب الأبيض ʿabyaḍ |
| The deep state (N+ AF) | Ad-dawla al-ṣamīqa | الدولة العميقة |
| A small group crept among the protestor (N+ AP) | Qilla mundassa | قلة مندسة |

As shown in tables (11), (12), and (13), the adjectives which subordinate the nouns, have various morpho-syntactic structures. These structures are either nisba adjective modifier, PP adjective modifier or other forms of adjectival modifier such as AP and Augmentative form. The other syntactic form of compound noun in the journalistic texts is idafa compound. The second part of idafa compound has two noun patterns. e.g. (I) **Noun + proper name, place or time**

Table (14): idafa compound modified with a proper noun

| | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Salmi new proposed constitution | وثيقة السلمى- Waṭīqat as-silmī |
| Port said massacre | مذبحة بورسعيد maḍbaḥit Port-Said |
| 25 th January revolution | ثورة 25 يناير ṭawrit 25 yanāyir |
| 30 June revolution | ثورة 30 يونيو ṭawrit 30 yunyū |

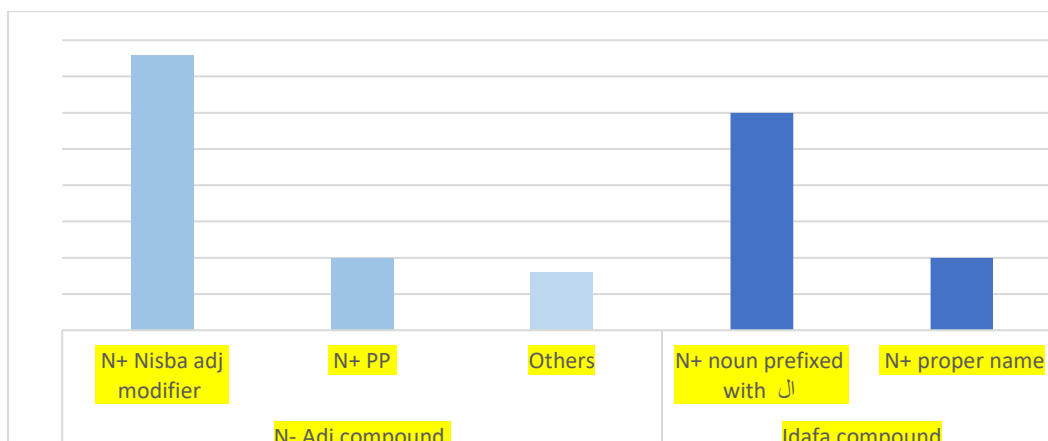
(II) Noun+ noun prefixed with ال

Table (15): Idafa compound modified with a definite noun

| | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| Jihad al-nikah/ marriage jihad | جهاد النكاح zihād an-nikāḥ |
| Eye sniper | قناص العيون Qannās al-ʿuyūn |
| Rescue front | جبهة الإنقاذ zabhat al-ʾinqāḍ |
| Post revolution parliament | برلمان الثورة Barlamān aṭ-ṭawra |
| Candidate of the revolution | مرشح الثورة muraʿiḥ a-ṭawra |
| Think tanks | بيوت الخبرة biyūt al-xibra |
| The voter who elected Morsi (MB candidate) to defeat Shafiq (old regime candidate) | عاصري الليمون ʿāṣirī al-laymūn |
| Sofa party | حزب الكنبه ḥizb al-kanaba |

The second type (Idafa compound) is represented in tables (14) and (15). This type is consistent with the results of El-mouloudi (1986) and Ditchy (2011) Edzard (2011). They found that compounding is noun-noun in a construct relation (idafa)”. In table (13), the noun is modified by a proper noun as السلمى/ al-silmī and بورسعيد/ būrṣaʿīd. Whereas, the examples displayed in table (15) consists of a noun followed by definite noun (morphologically augmented by ال).

Fig. (1): percentage of the usage of compounds



The above figure (1) shows that the number of the Noun- adjective structure compounds represents more than half of the total number of compound nouns. The most common one is the nisba adjective as it represents two thirds of the total number of noun- adjective structures. Whereas, the other one third represents nouns subordinated by PP, and rarely AP and augmentative form. Furthermore, the data apparently shows that the using of the definite noun (morphologically augmented by ال) is almost two thirds of the whole type (idafa compound). The previous results of both types of the compounding represent different conclusion from what reported by El-mouloudi (1986). While he stated that the idafa compound is the most prominent relation. On the contrary, the data in this study shows that the first type (noun and adjective structure) is the most salient one than idafa compounds.

The second section of compound noun (multi nouns compounds) is presented in the following table:

Table (16): Multi words compound

| | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Law of monitoring political rights | Qānūn mubāšarīt al-ḥuqūq as-siyāsiyya قانون مباشرة الحقوق السياسية |
| President of limited power | ʔīs maḥdud aš-ṣalāḥiyyāt رئيس محدود الصلاحيات |

| | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Social media | mawāqif at-tawāṣul al- ʔiṣtimāfi | مواقع التواصل الاجتماعي |
| Four wheels drive | ʕarabāt ad-dafʕ ar-rubāʕī | عربات الدفع الرباعي |
| National Rescue Front | ʕabhat al-ʔinqāḏ al-watanī | جبهة الإنقاذ الوطني |

The analysis of the data shows that the writers used compounding process to represent two main linguistic functions. The following table represents these linguistic functions regarding the morphosyntactic structures that were previously mentioned.

Table (17): The linguistic functions of compound noun

| Types of Linguistic Function | Specific Reference | | General Reference | |
|---|-------------------------------|---|------------------------------|---|
| 1-Noun adjectival modifier A- N+ nisba | SCAF | المجلس العسكري Al-maʕlis al- ʕaskarī | Transitional justice | عدالة انتقالية ʕadāla ʔintiṕāliyya |
| | NDP | الحزب الوطني الديموقراطي Al-ḥizb al- waṭanī ad- dimuqrāṭī | Moderate parties | أحزاب وسطية ʔḥzāb wasatīyya |
| | Arab Spring | الربيع العربي Ar-rabiʕ al- ʕarabī | Political agreement | توافق سياسي Tawāfuq siyāsī |
| | International organization | التنظيم الدولي ¹ At-tanzīm ad- dawī | Parliament electoral roll | قائمة إنتخابية ² Qāʔima ʔintiḫābiyya |
| | | | Security chaos | انفلات أمني ʔinfilāt ʔamnī |
| B- N+PP | The ousted president | الرئيس المعزول Ar-raʔīs al- maʕzūl | | |

¹ The term refers to “Turkey and Qatar” as an international organization

² I know that قائمة إنتخابية is a specific reference; however, it is changeable.

| | | | | |
|---|--|---|--|---|
| | Temporary president | رئيس مؤقت ³ Raʿīs muʿaqqat | | |
| | Supporters of the ousted president (Morsi) | أنصار المعزول ʿanṣār al-maʿzūl | | |
| C- N+AP | | | A small group crept among the protestors | قلة مندسة Qilla mundassa |
| D- N+ Adj | | | The white coup | الانقلاب الأبيض Al-ʿinqilāb al-ʿabyad |
| 2- idafa compound A- N+ prop er name | Salmi new proposed constitution | وثيقة السلمى Waṯīqat as-silmī | The protestors | شباب الميدان ṣabāb al-maīdān |
| | Port said massacre | مذبحة بورسعيد maḍbaḥit Port-Said | Mubarak's regime | دولة مبارك Daūlit mubārak |
| | The battle of the camel | موقعة الجمل Mawqīʿat aḥ-ẓamal | | |
| | Mubarak supporters | أبناء مبارك ʿabnāʾ mubārak | | |
| | 25th of January revolution | ثورة 25 يناير ḥawrit 25 yanāyir | | |
| B- N+ definite N | Sofa party | حزب الكنبة ḥizb al-kanaba | Think tanks | بيوت الخبرة biyūt al-xibra |
| | Eye sniper | قناص العيون Qannās al-ʿuyūn | The fundamental concept of crime in International Criminal Law | مبدأ الإختصاص الجنائي العالمي Mabdaʿ al-ʿijṭisāṣ al-ʿālamī |
| | Rescue front | جبهة الإنقاذ ḡabhat al-ʿinqāḍ | | |
| | Figures of corruption | رموز النظام السابق Rumūz an-nizām as-sābiq | | |
| | Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam | سد النهضة Sad an-naḥḍa | | |

³ The term refers to Adly Mansour

Table (17) shows that journalists tend to use compounding to express a specific reference “a specific group of people, day, or event” or a general reference. The previous table indicates also that there is more tendency of using noun-adjective compound to create mostly general terms (except for compound generated from N+PP as it refers to specific reference; yet, it is not used excessively). On the contrary, the *idafa* compound is adopted to express frequently specific references. The data revealed that more than half of the noun- adjective compounds refer to general terms. Whereas, the lexical patterns which have specific references have the largest percent of the *idafa* compounds. The data investigation shows that literal translations and metaphor are found in compound nouns.

Table (18): Literal translation and metaphor

| Literal translation | | Metaphor | |
|--|---|-------------------------|--|
| The fundamental concept of crime in International Criminal Law | مبدأ الاختصاص الجنائي العالمي Mabdaʔ al-ʔixtiṣāṣ al-ʔināʔi al-ʔālamī | Angry Friday protestors | ثوار الغضب ʔuwwār al-ʔaḍab |
| Forced displacement | تهجير قسري tahzīr qasrī | The white coup | الإنقلاب الأبيض Al-ʔinqilāb al-ʔabyaḍ |
| Political modernity | حادثة سياسية ḥadāḥa siyāsiyya | Sofa party | حزب الكنبه ḥizb al-kanaba |
| The deep State | الدولة العميقة Ad-dawla al-ʔamīqa | Arab Spring | الربيع العربي Ar-rabiʔ al-ʔarabiʔ |

Table (18) shows that media uses literal translation and metaphor in the form of compound nouns. The data gives indications about the development in the newspapers referential since journalists recently use literal translation and metaphoric expressions moderately. Because media vocabulary incorporates contextual meaning to reflect Egypt's political dynamism, the journalists tended to create new descriptive terms other than borrowing or translating. The journalists combined words to form one unit or one term having figurative meaning to denote a concrete reference during specific time. Most of these metaphors disappeared and they are no longer used in press.

Furthermore, the investigation of the data revealed some features for compounding process on the syntactic, morphosyntactic and semantic levels. The compound noun is created from two-word unit or multi- words unit.

In compound noun, it is not possible to change neither morphological pattern nor the organization of the lexical item. Any change in the syntactic form implies a change in the meaning as well, unlike noun phrase. For more clarification, the compound noun الإعلان الدستوري / Al-ʔiʔlān ad-dustūrī “the constitutional declaration” is no longer a compound term if it changed to be إعلان الدستور / ʔiʔlān ad-dustūr “the declaration of the constitution”, but it is a noun phrase. إعلان دستوري is a term which has a specific reference as mentioned before. Another example, the term جبهة الإنقاذ / ʔabhat al-ʔinqāḏ al-waṭanī “National Front rescue”. If it is changed to be جبهة إنقاذ وطنية / ʔabha al-ʔinqāḏiyya waṭaniyya “a front for national rescue”, it will no longer includes the same sense and reference. Thus, compound noun is a frozen

lexical item in which it is not possible to change neither the grammatical form of its components nor the organization.

Some of the compound terms follow the rules of pluralization and definiteness of Arabic syntax. Provided that, the semantic meaning of the term still the same and not deviated. In the case of pluralization, the first part of a compound noun admits the pluralization procedures: suffixation or broken plural. For instance, the pluralized form of *جسر جوي* / *zīsr ẓawwī* “air bridge” is *جسور جوية* / *ẓisūr ẓawwiyya* “air bridges” in which the head only is pluralized while the complement is inflected by an agreement. Another example is *جماعات تكفيرية* / *ẓamāfāt takfiriyya* “takfiri organizations”. The suffix *ات* modifies the head of the compound unit.

In the case of definiteness and indefiniteness, both parts of the compound noun are either marked by the prefixing of “ال” or not prefixed at all, such as

Table (19): Compounds prefixed by *ال*

| | | |
|------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| Field hospital | المستشفى الميداني Al-mustašfā al-maydānī | مستشفى ميداني Mustašfā maydānī |
| Protesting voices | الأصوات الاحتجاجية Al-ʔašwāt al-ʔiḥtiẓāziyya | أصوات احتجاجية ʔašwāt ʔiḥtiẓāziyya |
| Enforced disappearance | الإختفاء القسري Al-ʔiḥtifāʔ al-qasrī | إختفاء قسري ʔiḥtifāʔ qasrī |

Definite and indefiniteness rule is limited to noun-adjective compound term. It is necessary to mention that these morpho-syntactic rules can be applied mostly on terms that have general semantic references as *قائمة انتخابية* and *جماعة تكفيرية*. However, the term *المجلس العسكري* / *al-maǧlis al-ʔaskarī* “SCAF” cannot be pluralized *المجالس العسكرية* / *al-maǧālis al-ʔaskariyya* “The military councils” or to be indefinite *مجلس عسكري* / *maǧlis ʔaskarī*. Although it is syntactically and morphologically correct, the

semantic reference is deviated. In the case of a specific linguistic reference, the pluralization, the definiteness, and indefinite morphosyntactic rules most probably are not most probably applicable.

It is necessary to mention that in journalistic political texts, the tendency to use compound nouns is obvious. Al-Qahtani (2000) and El-esawy (2002) maintained that derivation word formation process is frequently utilized by journalists to create new words. On the contrary, investigation of the data in this research reveals that compounding is significantly frequent in journalistic texts not derivation. In the creation process of a compound noun, journalists favor the authentic Arabic MSA lexical items in coining new lexical items rather than loan, Arabized or borrowed patterns. This outcome is contrary to Hassan (1976) and Kanun's (1983) results who highlight the contribution of translation to the press language. The journalists are no longer use literal translation in their writings. Because the events started and happened in Egypt as previously mentioned so the domain is "socio-political". Accordingly, there was no need to Arabization or derivation as in reporting scientific events, for example.

4.2.2. Derivation

As clearly noticed, the political writings include DER as a word formation process. The journalists used derivation by generating lexical items from nouns. As shown in the next tables:

Table(20): Derivation of nisba adjectives

| | | |
|------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| Referendum | استفتائي ʔistiftāʔi | استفتاء ʔistiftāʔ |
|------------|------------------------|----------------------|

| | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|
| March of millions | مليونية Millyūniyya | مليون millyūn |
|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|

Nisba patterns are created by adding *مليونية* or *مليون* to the noun to form adjectives as in *استفتاءي* which is derived from *استفتاء* “referendum” and *مليونية*. In journalistic writings, the innovation does not involve lexical items only, but also derivational patterns. As represented below:

Table (21): Derivation from proper noun

| | | |
|-------|-------------------|-----------------|
| فعللة | أخونة ʔaxwana | إخوان ʔixwān |
| فعلنة | عكشنة ʕakʃana | عكاشة ʕukāʃa |
| ISIS | داعشي dāʕiʃī | داعش dāʕiʃ |
| Hamas | حمساوي ħamsāwī | حماس amāsh |

As shown in the previous table, another used derivational pattern is *فعلنة*/ *faʕlana*. From the contextual meaning, *فعلنة* is categorized as a new pattern which implies the meaning of “alter and ranked as”; for instance, the term *عكشنة* / *ʕakʃana* or *عكشنة الإعلام* / *ʕakʃanit al-ʔiʔlām* is derived from the noun *عكاشة* *ʕukāʃa* as shown in the table which means “the alternation happens in the media which is like *ʕukasha* style”. The results are consistent with Al-aqtash (n.d) who stated that the meaning of *faʕlana* is a change. Hence,

The data shows that another pattern of derivation *المصدر الصناعي* “artificial masder” which is used by journalists. As shown in the data, the word *داعشية* / *daʕiʃiyya* “ISISi-sm” as a concept is an artificial masder which is derived by adding suffix *ية* -

yya to داعش/ daʕiʃ “ISIS”. The term داعش/ daʕiʃ (ISIS) is very frequent in the press since 2012. Acronyms of the term are formed from الدولة الإسلامية في العراق والشام/ ad-dawla al-ʔislāmiyya fi al-ʕirāq wa aʃ-ʃām. As a matter of fact, this term is an acronym of a literal translated phrase “Islamic State in Iraq and Levant” or “Islamic State in Iraq and Syria”. In foreign broadcasting, they use the acronym ISIS; yet, Egyptian journalists try to avoid the confusion to occur. On one hand, the transliteration of the letters إيسيس in Egypt is the Pope of the church, as pronounced in ECA. On the other hand, إيزيس Isis, phonological transcript, is the name of a goddess from the polytheistic pantheon of Egypt, according to Wikipedia. Since Arabic does not have the system of capitalization, upper and lower- letters, newspaper writers translate the phrase “Islamic State in Iraq and Levant” to الدولة الإسلامية في العراق والشام and then created the term داعش/ daʕiʃ from the initial components of the phrase. This lexis is created on an existing model of linguistic pattern فاعل/ faʕil. This term is no longer considered as an acronym; nonetheless, it is a proper noun which is adapted to the Arabic inflectional and derivational systems. Hence, nisba adjective داعشي/ daʕiʃi is derived from it by adding ي/ ya and artificial masdar also by augmented by the suffix ية/ yya.

The derived adjective حمساوي/ ḥamsāwī “pro-Hamas group” does not follow a pattern but it is a borrowed template from spoken Arabic. However, it is quite common in media to use this pattern in adjective formation as in رابعاوي/ rabʕawī “pro-Rabaa' Al-Adawiya sit-in ” and سيسيواي/ sīsāwī “pro-Sisi”. Here comes a question; why the writer does not follow the linguistic rule of nisba formation. I believe that Journalistic writing put into consideration the reader’s understanding and the link that the reader draws between the word and its reference. That is why they avoid the terms that may lead to confusion and they coin lexical items that are easily

comprehended and remembered. This explains the inversion of letters sequence in *احمساوي* instead of *احماسي* as *احماسي* has another different connotation that might cause confusion.

In addition to derivation from nouns, journalists derive lexical items from verbs as shown in the following table. However, it is not as frequent as the derivation from nouns.

Table (22) Derivation from verbs

| | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------|
| افتعل ʔiftaʕal | اعتاش ʔiʕtāʕ To live upon | عاش ʕāʕ To live |
| تفعيلة tafʕīla | تغريدة (اسم مرة) tayrīda Tweet | غرد ɣarrad To tweet |

Here, the most remarkable observation is that the semantic progression is not only applied to the lexeme, but the extension occurs to the whole stem reference, for example, *غرد- يغرد- تغريدة* “to tweet”. According to Maajim website, *غرد* means literally the birds singing or metaphorically nice voice. After 2011, press literally translates “tweet” to *غرد*. As defined in Oxford dictionary, tweet is “make a post on the social media application Twitter”. Afterward, the journalists coin by using the DER process the lexicons *مغرد* “tweet” and *تغريدة* “a post”.

4.3. Discussion

To sum up, the events in Egypt were escalating rapidly. Accordingly, the journalists tried to portray the events in a simple and familiar way. This study demonstrated three major observations. First, the innovated lexical items are contextual and limited to events during a specific period of time. Therefore, the appropriateness of the lexical items is varied from time to another. Secondly, the

language used is influenced by the social and political conscious and feelings. The findings corroborate the ideas of Effat (2011), Badawi (2012); and Conboy (2010) in which media language significantly serve social and political need. Socially, the media is the main linguistic communicative medium that depicts the running events in Egypt; hence, the journalists regard the general levels of reader's comprehension. Thus, it is observed a tendency to lower the complexity of MSA structures and styles to be more flexible to keep up with the social needs. Furthermore, structures and features of the innovated lexical items have to be familiar to the reader. Thus, the journalists seek simplicity, comprehensibility, familiarity and widespread factors. For example, newspapers coined *لجنة الخمسين* / *lagnit al-xamsīn* "The Committee of the Fifty" not *اللجنة الخمسينية* *al-lagna al-xamīniyya* as well as *المجلس العسكري* / *Al-maʒlis al-ʕaskarī* not *المجلس الأعلى للقوات المسلحة* / *Al-maʒlis al-ʔaʕla lil qowāt al-musalaḥa* "The Supreme Council of Armed Force". They tend to simplify and shorten lexical items that contain enough descriptive information.

Finally, in accordance with (Ashtiany, 1993), compounding is recently found to be the most prominent word formation process used in newspapers language. Before, Arabs used compounding in terms of translation; for example, the fat cats which translated to *القطط السمان*, common European markets "السوق الأوروبية المشتركة", and instability *عدم الاستقرار*. It is observed that journalists mostly used authentic Arabic lexical items to describe references not borrowed or translated. Probably, because of the impact of translation, journalists developed a new style for coining lexical items to keep up with the socio-political needs. Adding to that, on the linguistic level, the qualifier; adjective or noun; which attributes the noun modifies the meaning. Moreover, the qualifier adds more information to the noun. The word *اختفاء* / *ʔixṭifāʔ* "disappearance" is vague and needs more paraphrase and explanation. As mentioned

in the literature review, the journalists target the reader general understanding without the need to add more details or explanations (Abdelfattah, 1996). Thus, اختفاء قسري / ?ixtifa? qasrī “enforced disappearance” restricts the meaning to a specific reference and gives an accurate description about the reference. In accordance to Abu-Lughod (1963), Abdel Fattah (1996), and Badawi (2012), the results indicate that the newspaper language tends to shrink the gap between MSA and ECA. This introduce an elevated form ECA to be used among the native speakers.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

This study traces the lexical change that occurred in MWA as an effect of the socio-political factor through analyzing media discourse. This chapter is a sum up of the results. It also includes some suggestions for further research, the limitations and delimitations of my study. Moreover, it sheds the light on the pedagogical implications of teaching Arabic as a foreign language. The data in this study were retrieved from the opinion columns in *Al-Shorouk* and *Al-Ahram* newspapers from 2010 to 2015. The study discussed two research questions. First, to what extent does the socio-political variable influence media lexical choice and innovation? Second, what are the most common strategies used by journalists in lexical creation? The analysis of the data through media discourse gave insights into some patterns of

lexical use and lexical change. In this study, media language is the dependent variable, which is influenced by politics as an independent variable. By the beginning of the 'Arab spring' and the political unrest in Egypt, there has been an urgent need to neologize MSA lexical units in order to describe the running events.

As observed through media discourse, the lexical development and change were impacted by the socio-political pressure in which the lexical units carry semantic attitudes towards their references. For instance, the assessment of some terms changed to denote the same reference depending on the political situation. For example, the terms refer to Mubarak's regime pre-and post 25th January revolution. It is displayed in the previous chapter that lexical patterns that carry a positive attitude have been replaced by other patterns implying negative evaluations and vice versa. This replacement has depended on the time and political situation, such as referential lexical items depict the MB in the press. Accordingly, accurate comprehensive results have been obtained to prove the impact of the political factor on lexical development in MSA. Another finding is that the data indicates that media has introduced lexical items to represent the revolution and the protesters. These lexical items reflected the spirit of persistence and power of the protestors.

The most considerable result emerged from the data is that perhaps the large variety of lexical items used in this particular period were not all added to the dictionaries. Despite the existing large number of lexical units, some of them faded away with the political change while others were replaced. Furthermore, other lexis' meaning changed entirely. Thus, recording these lexical items is fundamental not only to trace a change, but also to document these lexical patterns. To sum up, a lexical item is a fundamental element to develop the reader's understanding of the

events. Hence, the socio-political variable directly influences media word choice, lexical development, and lexical innovation. Moreover, media includes evaluative language as a result of the political pressure.

Compound is a lexical innovation process in MWA which is commonly used by journalists. This result contradicts with some researchers' contributions and confirmed by others. As revealed in chapter 4, compound noun is a frozen complex unit that denotes a specific reference or concept. Syntactically, compounding is constructed from either a noun combined with an adjectival modifier or idafa. Regarding lexical functions, compound nouns either refers to specific reference or general ones. The noun- adjective compounds are frequently denoting general reference; however, idafa compounds express more specific references. Furthermore, journalists created not only newly derived lexical items but also new derivational patterns. It is evident that journalist did not develop any lexicon that might result in confusion for the reader. While coining, they regard the reader's general comprehension, familiarity and the widespread of the words. Thus, the words are coined to be simple, accurate and concrete; as well as, not to overlap with any other lexicon. It has been noted that journalists' interests in Arabization as a word formation process almost not like before. Whereas they use literal translation but in very limited incidents.

This study showed considerable findings in the issue of compounding in MSA. Accordingly, the results in this study are promising and should be validated by a larger sample size. More broadly, the research is also needed to determine the most common lexical innovation strategies used MSA and whether compounding process is most common as in media or not. The further of this research also will focus on

ECA, regarding language use and development, on social media during the same mentioned period. One of the delimitation of the study is that the study has not taken into consideration the other sections of the newspaper which also may include some coined lexical items and expressions

5.2 Pedagogical implications:

The ongoing political developments in the Middle East increase the importance of media language; thus, Arabic media language is very demanding among Arabic language learners. Press language includes features that develop and enhances the basis of the Arabic learner's communicative skills (Ashtiany, 1993) as it raises student cultural awareness. As explored by Blatchford (1973), daily newspapers provide insights into the social and political progress in the society which is a vital resource for the student to explore the culture and ongoing events; as well as to ease the process of adaptation.

Moreover, the student should be familiar with the common ongoing media terminology. In language classroom, newspapers enable the student to grow and recycle the vocabulary in a consistent context (Blatchford, 1973). Therefore, there is a demanding need for media vocabulary; especially because language dictionaries do not give much attention to deal with media contemporary vocabulary (Kendall, 2005). As highlighted in this study, the newspaper is involved with many linguistic innovations to express the new concepts. Some students are eager to learn about this dynamic period in Egypt, especially students who study political science. Hence, my suggested implications target language textbook authors and AFL teachers.

In media class, a learner guesses the meaning of a terminology by the literal translation process which is “a hit and miss process” especially when translating from

English to Arabic (Kendall, 2005). By giving examples from my data المجلس العسكري/ al-maglis al-ʿaskarī is translated as “Supreme Council of Armed Force”; however, since the learners are not aware of the political situation, they might translate it as “military council”. To avoid this kind of misleading, teachers should provide the learners with background information for media lexical items. Another example is the lexicon غرد/ yarrad “to tweet,” if the learners consult a dictionary to figure out its meaning, they will find “to sing” or “to chirp”. Additionally, it would be hard for learners to understand unless they have a background information about the reference.

Initially, there is a greater need recently than before for upgrading media textbooks. Thus, this study is an attempt to help authors of media language textbooks as it documents most of the coined contemporary political terminologies from 2010 to 2015. Additionally, the study raises the teacher awareness towards lexical coinage and gives background information about the lexical items during a particular period. In the preparation stage, the AFL teachers should give the learners a suitable support to “become more aware of the environment” (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978).

Zhang (2008) highlighted that both second language teachers and learners should be aware not only of the lexical meaning but also, they should master “pragmatic functions” which is a big challenge. In AFL classroom, the teacher should go beyond linguistic meaning and grammar to develop the student’s pragmatic competence. By the end, the learners should comprehend the writers’ viewpoints (Youssef, 2013). This research gives insights into language attitude used in media discourse. In vocabulary teaching, the AFL teacher should raise the students’ critical thinking and pragmatic competence to be aware of the lexical usage and pragmatic

function in addition to the denotation meaning of the vocabulary. The teacher should provide the learners with appropriate tasks that develop their communicative skills and culture awareness.

Moreover, dictionaries and language textbooks give only literal information about lexical items; however, they neglect the lexical semantic attitude (Wang & Wang, 2005 (as cited in Zhang, 2009)). This issue can mislead the Second Language Learner. I suggest that the authors of Arabic media textbooks provide, in addition to the literal meanings, insights into the lexical assessment during the mentioned phase, 2010- 2015, to enable the SLL to raise his/her pragmatic and communicative competence. This develop the SLL towards near native competence and to be highly proficient in acquiring the Arabic language.

APPENDIX

| | |
|--|--------------------------|
| 1- SCAF | 1. المجلس العسكري |
| 2- Constituent Assembly | 2. المجلس التأسيسي |
| 3- Constitutional announcement | 3. الإعلان الدستوري |
| 4- Constituent Assembly. | 4. جمعية تأسيسية |
| 5- National Democratic Party | 5. حزب قومي ديموقراطي |
| 6- International organization (Turkry and Qatar) | 6. التنظيم الدولي |
| 7- the 2nd Field Army | 7. الجيش الميداني الثاني |
| 8- forced displacement | 8. تهجير قسري |
| 9- Static people | 9. شعوب استاتيكية |
| 10- The coup tendency | 10. النزعة الانقلابية |
| 11- Party abidance | 11. الالتزام الحزبي |
| 12- Political modernity | 12. حداثة سياسية |
| 13- Economic dependency | 13. تبعية إقتصادية |
| 14- Sponge movement | 14. الحركة الإسفنجية |
| 15- particularity of civilizations | 15. خصوصية حضارية |
| 16- the voices of protest | 16. الأصوات الاحتجاجية |
| 17- Takfivist ideology. | 17. فكر تكفيري |
| 18- Judicial arrest | 18. الضبطية القضائية |
| 19- Uprising movement | 19. حراك ثوري |
| 20- Filed hospital | 20. مستشفى ميداني |
| 21- Protest movement | 21. حراك احتجاجي |
| 22- A duty to elect | 22. واجب انتخابي |
| 23- The Islamic system of governance | 23. حكم اسلامي |

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| 24- Enforced disappearance. | 24. اختفاء قسري |
| 25- Moderate parties (neither Islamic nor liberal) | 25. أحزاب وسطية |
| 26- Political consensus | 26. توافق سياسي |
| 27- Temporary judicial decisions | 27. قرار قضائي مؤقت |
| 28- The takfiri groups | 28. جماعات تكفيرية |
| 29- A peaceful transition | 29. تحول سلمي |
| 30- Takfiri dialogue | 30. خطاب تكفيري |
| 31- Jihad troop | 31. جيوش جهادية |
| 32- National front | 32. جبهة وطنية |
| 33- Political isolation | 33. العزل السياسي |
| 34- Random voting (the voter is able to vote at any poll station) | 34. تصويت عشوائي |
| 35- Advocacy barracks | 35. تكتلات دعوية |
| 36- Territorial disputes | 36. نزاعات إقليمية |
| 37- Parliament electoral roll | 37. قائمة إنتخابية |
| 38- Consensual" Constitution. | 38. دستور توافقي |
| 39- Transitional justice | 39. عدالة انتقالية |
| 40- Security chaos | 40. انفلات أمني |
| 41- Ghostly organization | 41. منظمات شبحية |
| 42- Arab Spring | 42. الربيع العربي |
| 43- The ousted president (Morsi) | 43. الرئيس المعزول |
| 44- The toppled president (Mubarak) | 44. الرئيس المخلوع |
| 45- The dismantled party | 45. الحزب المنحل |
| 46- Interim president (Adly Mansour) | 46. رئيس مؤقت |
| | 47. أنصار المعزول |

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| 47- Supporters of the ousted president (Morsi) | 48. رئيس محدود الصلاحيات |
| 48- limited powers to the president | 49. الانقلاب الأبيض |
| 49- The white coup | 50. الدولة العميقة |
| 50- The deep state | 51. الإرهاب المعاصر |
| 51- The contemporary terrorism | 52. الكتلة السوداء |
| 52- The black block | 53. القائمة السوداء |
| 53- The black list (list of pro Mubarak celebrities) | 54. الانقلاب الناعم |
| 54- The soft coup | 55. دولة المرشد |
| 55- MB leader regime | 56. وثيقة السلمي |
| 56- Salmi new proposed constitution | 57. مذبحه بورسعيد |
| 57- Port said massacre | 58. شباب الميدان |
| 58- Young protestors at Tahrir square | 59. مذبحه سيناء |
| 59- Sinai massacre | 60. أنصار بيت المقدس |
| 60- Pro bayt al-maqdis organization | 61. لجنة الخمسين |
| 61- The Committee of the Fifty | 62. موقعة الجمل |
| 62- The battle of the camel | 63. ثورة 25 يناير |
| 63- 25th January revolution | 64. ثورة 30 يونيو |
| 64- 30 June revolution | 65. قرن غزال |
| 65- Antler velvet | 66. دولة مبارك |
| 66- Mubarak's regime | 67. دولة 25 يناير |
| 67- 25th January Revolution regime | 68. صناع الثورة |
| 68- The makers of the revolution | 69. مواطن الانكشاف |
| 69- The vulnerabilities | 70. قوات مكافحة الإرهاب |
| 70- Counter-terrorism forces | 71. كشوف العذرية |
| | 72. أهداف الثورة (عيش، حرية، عدالة إجتماعية) |

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| 71- Virginity tests | |
| 72- Goals of the Revolution (bread, freedom, social justice) | 73. ثوار الغضب |
| 73- Angry Friday protestors | 74. برلمان الثورة |
| 74- The parliament after the 25th revolution | 75. نكاح الجهاد |
| 75- Jihad al-nikah | 76. مرشح الثورة |
| 76- The 25th Revolution candidate (Morsi) | 77. قناص العيون |
| 77- Eye sniper | 78. جبهة الإنقاذ |
| 78- Rescue front | 79. رموز النظام السابق |
| 79- The figureheads of the previous regime | 80. مشروع الدستور |
| 80- The draft constitution | 81. خلية الأزمة |
| 81- Crisis cell | 82. سد النهضة |
| 82- The Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam | 83. خرائط الألم |
| 83- Pain maps | 84. بيوت الخبرة |
| 84- Think tanks | 85. شبكات المصالح الخاصة |
| 85- Networking for special interest groups | 86. مواقع التواصل الاجتماعي |
| 86- Social media | 87. مزيفي الوعي |
| 87- The counterfeit of the awareness (media) | 88. حكومة كفاءات |
| 88- Efficient government | 89. غلمان الشوارع |
| 89- Street boys | 90. سياحة العري |
| | 91. سياسة النفس القصير |
| | 92. عاصري الليمون |

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| 90- Tourism of nudity | |
| 91- Policy of short term | |
| 92- The voter who elected Morsi (MB candidate) to defeat Shafiq (old regime candidate) | 93. حزب الكنبه |
| | 94. جمعة الغضب |
| | 95. جمعة قنهار |
| 93- Sofa Party | 96. غزو الصناديق |
| 94- Angry Friday | |
| 95- Qandahar Friday uprising | |
| 96- Invasion of the voting booth (refer to the success of the islamist to promote for yes to the draft of the constitution in 2011) | 97. قانون العزل السياسي |
| | 98. قانون إفساد الحياة السياسية |
| | 99. قانون مباشرة الحياة السياسية |
| 97- Political isolation law | 100. لجنة حقوق السكن |
| 98- Law of ruining the political career | |
| 99- Law of monitoring political rights | 101. عربات الدفع الرباعي |
| 100- The Commission on residence Rights | 102. أدوات التعبئة الإلكترونية |
| 101- The four-wheel drive vehicles | 103. مبدأ الإختصاص الحزبي |
| 102- Tools of electronic mobilization | 104. يوم التنحي |
| 103- principle of party jurisdiction. | 105. حكومة إنقاذ وطني |
| 104- The day the step down of Mubarak | 106. مجلس حكم انتقالي |
| 105- National front rescue government | 107. أجندة |
| 106- Interim Governing Council | |

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| 5. A ballot | 5- بطاقة إنتخابية |
| 6. NDP | 6- الحزب الوطني الديمقراطي |
| 7. Social justice | 7- عدالة إجتماعية |
| 8. Curfew | 8- حظر تجوال |
| 9. Military trial | 9- محاكمة عسكرية |
| 10. Martial laws | 10- أحكام عرفية |
| 11. Military justice | 11- قضاء عسكري |
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| 14. Strategist | 14- خبير إستراتيجي |
| 15. Counterrevolution | 15- ثورة مضادة |
| 16. Revolutionary Courts | 16- محاكمات ثورية |
| 17. Revolutionary legitimacy | 17- شرعية ثورية |
| 18. Transitional period | 18- مرحلة انتقالية |
| 19. Fifth column | 19- طابور خامس |
| 20. Forestall the revolution | 20- إجهاض الثورة |

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