KENYAN NEWSPAPER DISCOURSE:
AN INVESTIGATION IN TYPOLOGY AND IDEOLOGY

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree of Masters of Arts in Linguistics and African Languages at the University of Nairobi.

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DECLARATION

This dissertation is my original work and has not been submitted for examination in any other University.

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This dissertation has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors:

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This work is dedicated to the memory of Mr. Evanson Mbugua Mwaura
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Although it seems merely an academic convention to say so, we insist that none of those mentioned should be held responsible for the lapses of fact, analysis, taste or theory which no doubt abound in this work either now or in the future.
ABSTRACT

In this dissertation, we subject samples of three sub-varieties of newspaper language - that is, news-reporting, editorials and news-analysis - to a stylistic and then a discourse analysis. Texts are examined mainly at the levels of grammar, vocabulary and graphemics. The aim is to provide a descriptively adequate account of newspaper language and subject the same to a critical discourse analysis to explicate the ideological underpinnings present in newspaper language. This accounts for the title of this dissertation in terms of the twin aim of typology and ideology.

The first aspect of this study then is based on a stylistic analysis which recognises the centrality not only of news report but also that of interpretive journalism, here represented by editorials and news-analysis, in the definition of the modern newspaper. This dynamism on the part of the press demands new investigations in the study of style among other areas to keep abreast of the developments. The process here consists in analysis of each sub-variety which is then compared with the other sub-varieties to note all the stylistically significant information.

After the stylistic analysis, each section is subjected to a critical discourse analysis. This takes place in each sub-variety after a stylistic analysis to highlight ideology inherent in the basis of a sub-variety (what we also refer to as the generic basis of a sub-variety) and that of particular sample texts in the appendix.

This dissertation then is organised in a way that it starts with a general introduction which spells out the background history of the press in Kenya, then states the aim of the study and statement of the problem before looking at the literature review. We then state the conceptual framework to the study, the scope, the hypotheses and methodology to be used.

In chapter two we discuss the theoretical issues in the twofold areas of stylistics and critical discourse analysis. Here, the various concepts of style are discussed and our position stated before looking at the theoretical tenets of critical discourse analysis and the methodological principles.
The third and fourth chapters deal with the analysis of news reporting, editorial and news analysis respectively. Chapter five offers summary and conclusion of this work. Immediately after this we attach appendix for the demonstration of some aspects that could not be covered within the respective chapters and as sample texts.
## List of Symbols and Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S P C A</td>
<td>a type of sentence structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Predicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Complement</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Adverbial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KT</td>
<td>Kenya Times Newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>Sunday Times Newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DN</td>
<td>The Daily Nation Newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN</td>
<td>The Sunday Nation Newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDA</td>
<td>Critical Discourse Analysis of Critical Linguistics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

1.0 General Introduction to the Study

1.1.0 Background information

In this introduction, our aim is to provide a brief history of the print media in Kenya as a preamble to the purpose of this dissertation. Pioneering newspapers can be traced to the coastal town of Mombasa starting from the late 1890’s to early 1900’s. This was the period when missionaries, traders, explorers and settlers were arriving in East Africa. Indeed the origin of newspapers is associated with both this group [missionaries, traders, settlers] and the subsequent colonial government in Kenya. Due to their shared interest and racial uniformity, the pioneer editors and journalist gave expression to the views and opinions of the settler community and disregarded the views and opinions of other races such as Indians (mainly merchants and labourers) and Africans. [see Abuoga, (1988)]

The neglect of other racial groups by the pioneering press in Kenya led to the growth of newspapers to fill this vacuum. Publications emerged on a distinct racial basis as seen in an “Indian Press”, “African press” etc [ibid]. Thus these papers might be regarded as an “alternative press” for other communities which articulated their aspirations, views, opinions etc that were earlier ignored by the mainstream European press. This pattern of development of the print media continued until the turbulent times of pre-independence days when a state of Emergency was declared and most publications by Africans and Indians either being banned or heavily censored [ibid].

The print media then, was divided along racial lines during the pre-independence period. These racial differences were sharply reflective of ideological positions/differences since the two issues were intimately intertwined. However, with the prospects of independence becoming real, the ideological differences superseded racial consideration. Hence the interests for which newspapers groups stood for became less discernable and more subtle. In fact, it becomes almost impossible to take ownership or race as the sole criteria to be used in identifying interests represented.
Arising out of this situation, and as one of the examples of the above, was the launch of the Nation group of newspapers by the Aga Khan, in 1960. The Aga Khan is the head of the Ismaili religious community worldwide. The Nation “allied itself with the nationalist course and was therefore seen as responsive to majority’s aspiration” [Magayu (n.d.;16]. The company has since, in 1978, been renamed Nation Printers and Publishers limited. On the company’s political ideology

.....[it] pursues their proper role as an independent Newspaper, to inform the readers, to report truthfully and accurately, to comment honestly, freely and as competently as it can and support the government in its efforts to further Kenya’s social and economic development.

The company presently, has five newspapers in the market. The Daily Nation, Sunday Nation, Taifa Leo, Taifa Jumapili and the EastAfrican.

The mainstream print media in Kenya is dominated by foreign ownership as seen in The Standard Ltd then owned by Lonhro East Africa and the Nation Group owned by the Aga Khan. This situation was cited by the government, as one of the reasons why it ventured into the newspaper industry. Another reason cited was that because of their foreign ownership (i.e, Daily Nation and the Standard), these newspapers had failed to articulate aspirations of Kenyans. Thus in 1983, the government and ruling party KANU bought over an existing paper The Nairobi Times to publish Kenya Times Group of Newspaper [Magayu (n.d;16]. Three newspapers are published by this company namely The Kenya Times, Sunday Times and Kenya Leo.

For the purposes of our research, we shall focus on two newspaper from each of the newspaper groups viz Nation Printers and Publishers Limited producers of Daily Nation and Sunday Nation, Kenya Times Group of Newspaper producers of Kenya Times and Sunday Times. These newspapers will be taken as being representation of the language of the Kenya Print media which is broadly the object of our study.
AIMS OF THE STUDY AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The aims of this study are two fold: First, it aims to investigate the variety of English language associated with newspaper writing, also called journalese. This is purely stylistic in nature and aims at providing a descriptively adequate account of the Kenyan press language.

The second aim of this study is to investigate the differences within newspaper language using the critical linguistics approach. These differences are at the level of linguistics and which reveal ideological position upheld by the two newspapers that will be studied.

There are many varieties of English language and what we ordinary mean by “English” is actually a common core realized in different forms of the language [see Quirk R et al 1973: 1-9]. Six kinds of varieties are usually isolated and these may be based on: Region, and hence regional variation also called “dialects”; variation according to education and racial standing; variation based on subject matter also referred to as ‘register’; variation according to medium that is whether written of spoken; variation according to attitude towards learner, subject or to the purpose of communication so that we can have either formal or informal; and finally variation according to interference, that is, the trace left by someone’s native language upon the foreign language he has acquired.

For the purpose of our research, we shall focus on variety according to subject matter or “registers”. The following definition has been proposed for register(s):

...a linguistic category, a property relating to a given text, in terms of the formal, phonological or graphological or substantial features to similar texts in comparable situation.

[Ellis and Ure, 1966:2]

Registers that have been isolated include the language of legal document also called “legalese”, the language of government or official document also called “officialese”, the language of newspapers referred to as “journalese”. etc
Newspaper language as a type of register is what this study will specifically address. We aim to provide a stylistic analysis that will meet descriptive adequacy in the sense of Chomsky (1965) based on the Kenyan newspaper language. Most studies on newspaper language are not based on the Kenyan context (viz Crystal D et al 1969) and where based [Mzee, 1980] the works focus on newspapers using swahili language. Other studies carried out on stylistics target aspects of newspaper language such as advertisement or aspects of such media as television [viz Mbaabuu, M 1996] and mostly not at graduate level. Some other shorter works based on newspaper language are found in the project unit of students of the School of Journalism but which do not take a purely linguistic viewpoint as their basis of research/analysis [viz Ryeyamuma (1990), Mbugua W. (1988]. This study seeks therefore to fill this knowledge gap.

However, even with a descriptively adequate account of newspaper language, a lingering feeling of incompleteness remains. This may partly be caused by the prescriptive nature implied by stylistic descriptions of registers and which may suggest a uniformity of all newspapers as in this case. This is in itself misleading because individuals and groups in society often cite differences within the same register (newspaper language) in a given context. Hence the stylistician is under pressure to make his/her study more responsive to society’s needs. One attempt towards, this goal is what is referred to as critical linguistics or (critical discourse analysis) which, as Kress (1995:1-2) says,

".... [like all forms of discourse Analysis] take texts to be the proper domain of linguistics theory and description;...share(s) an interest in the understanding of extending text - rather than focus on constituents of texts - socially or at least contextually situated, and in providing accounts of texts which draw on features of the context - social, cultural, - to provide explanatory categories for the description of the characteristics of texts...[CDA differs from DA] precisely in it’s aim to provide a critical dimension in it’s theoretical and descriptive accounts of texts."

N.B: Information in brackets added
Although the sentiments to make stylistics more responsive to societal needs is not new [see Kitsao, 1975], the use of critical linguistics as a method of analysis has not, to the best of our knowledge, been applied to the Kenyan newspapers or any text as such. Indeed, the two pronged approach - stylistics and critical linguistics - to text analysis aims at bridging this knowledge gap in which task it is among the pioneering efforts. Hence CDA is more responsive to societal demands of relevance because although operating here as a background to the study, the ‘angle of attack’ of CDA is fundamentally different from forms of textual analysis founded on the notion of an autonomous linguistic system. In CDA the idea of autonomy makes no sense... [because CDA] works from the social to the linguistic, or better, sees the linguistic as within the social. [Kress, 1990:6]

1.3.0 RATIONALE FOR CHOICE OF THE PROBLEM

Most linguistic theories in stylistics, and indeed in most aspects of language, are based in Western Europe and America. Hence there is need to study local materials using these theories first so as to validate or falsify their claims and secondly for the sake of their own intrinsic value. Thus the choice of Kenya Newspaper language can be seen to serve this aim.

Basing of a study on a media such as newspapers is also significant in another sense. The present age of humanity is often styled a “communication age” or an “information age” - where these two terms are taken as synonymous [Walter, 1996]. Thus newspapers constitute a major component of the modes in which communication in the media is carried out in the modern world. Further when the CDA approach is applied to such material, it helps to illuminate the fact that

...newspapers are not impartial mirrors of the world around us from which we get a supply of factual information...they(newspaper ) are constructed by people...who necessarily have attitudes, interests, viewpoints etc which are reflected in the choice of style ....[Jank, n.d]
Such a study therefore has clear implications in educational or pedagogical circles where it serves a utilitarian function in language learning [see Halliday et al 1964 and Carl James et al, 1991]. In society at large, CDA is seen as an effort to create “critical readers who resist the power of print and do not believe everything they read...[who] start from a point of strategic doubt and weigh texts against their own ideas and values as well as those of others...[Jank, n,d].

This way, social problems in society like inequality, class differences, sexism, racism, power etc are illuminatated and this way “we have the design for the key that can disrupt, disclose and challenge mechanisms involved” Van Dik, (1985:7). This way, CDA hopes to bring about “change not only to he discursive practices...[but] through them, to the socio-political practice and structures also “[Kress, 1990:2]. Thus critical linguists hope to have an “emancipatory function” in society.

1.4.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.4.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON STYLISTICS

Studies in stylistics do not seem to have been accorded a lot of attention especially at postgraduate level, at least by the University of Nairobi records. However, there are a few that have been undertaken beginning with Kitsao (1975) whose work focuses on literary texts in kiswahili. This work can be regarded as pioneering in this area. Another study here is that by Kazungu E K (1982) who also analyses some swahili literary texts. The third thesis and which is more closely related to our work is that by Mzee (1980) on swahili registers such as legalese and journalesse. At undergraduate level, the few stylistics based dissertations focus on aspects such as advertisement (Mbaabu, 1996) and other areas that are not media based.

At the level of discourse analysis, Karanja L(1993) has done some work on KBC TV discussion programmes and Kiai A, W(1996) on Radio broadcast programmes for farmers. Other works have been done, again not based on media but to the best of our knowledge not in our area. In addition, the critical discourse analysis approach has not been used in the analysis of works whether literary or otherwise. This means that there is a knowledge gap in this area which we intend to contribute knowledge on.
Studies on the media are however numerous, especially by students of the school of Journalism who are required to submit a dissertation by the end of their course. Many of these do not however focus on language issues and when they do it may not be from a strictly linguistic point of view. An exception here would probably be the work by Rweyamu, C. and T. Majale (1990) titled “Language usage and Abusage in the press”. However, this work focuses on “mistakes” in the use of English in the local dailies.

Lecturers in the school of Journalism do occasionally present papers on the media generally. A few of these focus on the issue of language in the press viz Magayu M, (n,d) and (1993) which have been helpful for our study. Other works here include Okigbo (1990) and Kibisu (1993).

This work breaks with tradition (departmental level) in two senses: First by focusing on English language as used in the Kenyan press as opposed to the British or American press with their concomitant labels of British or American English. Secondly, by a conceptual approach that brings together a stylistic and discourse analysis approach in the analysis of newspaper language.

1.4.2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THEORETICAL ISSUES

Many studies undertaken in the area of stylistics have mostly been based on literary works. This has, among other factors, led to the situation where stylistics is equated with the study of literary works.

Attempts to clarify this anomaly include Hough (1969) who prefers to view stylistics as an area of interface between linguistics and literature. This work (ibid) provided, together with Spencer, et al (1964), useful background information on the study of style in addition to placing it (style) in a linguistic perspective.

If Hough (1969) and Spencer et al (1964) provided introductory information of style, then Crystal D(1969) proved indispensable in concretizing both the concept and practice of stylistics. This work (ibid) develops a linguistic approach to the study of style and in fact goes ahead to offer sample analysis of types of texts that are not necessarily literary. Of importance to us is the analysis on newspaper language which focuses mostly on news reporting.
News reporting is one section of any newspaper's organization (what we shall refer to here as sub-varieties). Unlike the focus of the study in Crystal (1969), we shall go further and analyses two other sub-varieties of newspaper language viz Editorials, and News Analysis. This is of importance in a dynamic institution like the media (including press) whose present role is not only to inform or report the news:

... it is the job of a newspapers to interpret and explain the news, as well as report it.

[Freebon, 1993:165]

Hence the scope of newspaper language has evolved to include areas previously thought not to be central to a newspaper. Thus the need for new investigations to reflect this reality.

Other main texts on Stylistics used in this work are by Leech (1969), Leech and Short (1981) which although biased towards literary language have a similar framework to that of Crystal (1969). The focus on literary language rather than being a hindrance was actually crucial in our work because it helped reinforce the notion of style permeating all types of texts. In deed, samples of newspaper language reflected this fact, which was also corroborated from the field of journalism in what is termed “New journalism”.

The background to this study is a form of discourse analysis known as critical linguistics or critical discourse analysis (henceforth CDA). The main proponents of this approach and who have provided the main texts we work on include Fowler, R (1990) and Fairclorugh (1989), (1992). Those works especially tied the area of stylistics and CDA and also provided for approaches to analysis. Other works/writer associated here include Kress G(1990), Van Dijk T.A(1985) and Mey, J L (1979). These writers provided the main theoretical tenets of CDA and some have samples of analysis which has been invaluable in this work.

1.5.0 CONCEPTUAL APPROACH

The title of this sub-section is used in place of the more conventional “Theoretical Framework” to try and capture the fact that what we are using are not fully fledged theories. We borrow more from approaches than from theories and since several approaches are used, we prefer to
call the combined output “conceptual”. The first part of our approach is stylistic, and our main source is Crystal, D et al (1969). This approach to stylistic analysis is organized around what the authors call “levels of analysis” and it has four parts to it:

- phonetics/graphetic level
- phonological/graphological level
- Grammar and Vocabulary level
- Semantics level

To reinforce this approach, we borrow from Leech (1969) and Leech, G et al (1981). Here, we incorporate a level of analysis called “figures of Speech” and split into “grammatical” and “Lexical categories” what Crystal D (1969) calls “grammar and vocabulary level”. At the same time, we briefly comment in our analysis the other two levels of analysis proposed by Crystal D viz phonetic/graphetic level and phonological level. However, these last two levels shall be mentioned when found to be relevant to a particular sub-variety and when they occur at the “figures of speech categories”. Thus our approach will mainly be organized along the following areas:

- Grammatical categories
- Lexical categories
- Figures of Speech categories

The second part of our approach is critical discourse analysis, and the main source for our reference is Fowler (1991). Critical linguistics (also called critical discourse analysis) is basically a kind of textual and stylistic analysis first concretized in the work of Fowler, R et al (1979) in which it’s (CDA) aim is stated as,

... to examine the relationship between language and meanings, which influence thought and reflect ideological assumptions in discourses such as newspaper headlines, regulations, advertisements... it argues that no discourse is “neutral”, “transparent” or “innocent”. [Wales 1989:116]

To explicate ideological assumptions of discourse, CDA analyses the following areas of linguistic constructions:
Note: That the Semantic level of analysis, although not explicitly set aside in our approach, is still addressed by such categories like lexical structures, transitivity and modality/speech acts to some extent. Syntactic transformations in CDA are tackled under Grammatical categories.

Through such a conceptual approach, this study aims not only to provide a descriptively adequate account of newspaper language, but also to make such a study "more responsive and responsible to pressing social issues..." [Kress, 1990]

1.6.0 SCOPE AND LIMITATION

The scope and limitations of this research revolves around two broad areas. The first is what may be termed as the theoretical viewpoint in stylistics where Crystal D et al (1969) was our main source. Of the four levels that are identified for analysis, we shall omit the phonological/graphological level. By dropping this level we don’t intend to imply that they are irrelevant to our study but that they may be too involving and beyond our scope. However, a few aspects of the phonological level may be addressed under the broader category of "figures of speech" whenever it so merits.

The second broad area of scope and limitation is the source of our data, that is, newspapers. Limitation here is again further divided into two. First, our research will focus on two newspapers out of a possible large number in the market. It is on the basis of these two newspapers - Daily Nation and Kenya Times - that we will characterize Kenyan newspaper language. In addition, these two newspapers will also be used to explore their ideological perspective. This is out of a wider choice available using the same criteria of ownership, that was used in selecting them.
Newspapers are, secondly made up of numerous sections or sub-varieties (Crystal 1969:173). It would be beyond the scope of this work both in time and space to address all these sub-sections. We shall therefore restrict our scope to three sub-varieties of newspaper language viz News-reporting, News Analysis and Editorials. Taking these as representing the central role newspapers, we proceed to characterize Kenyan journalesse on this basis. These sub-varieties are further considered significant in revealing ideological biases of newspaper in general.

1.7.0 HYPOTHESES TO BE TESTED

Newspaper language, especially as represented by the three sub-varieties chosen here has a certain level of uniformity. These characteristics features of Newspaper language transcend the differences of ownership, target audience etc that individual newspapers may have. However, our hypothesis is that such uniformity can only hold at the level of formal linguistics features: That functionally, newspaper make use of language in very different ways. To investigate our hypotheses, we choose to use the critical discourse analysis together with a stylistic analysis.

1.8.0 METHODOLOGY

Data collection for this research is library based. Past copies of newspapers are randomly sampled especially on the stylistics part. Data will be collected from copies of Daily Nation, the Sunday Nation, the Kenya Times and a similar number of the Sunday Times. These newspapers have mainly been selected from March and April editions of 1996. Data collection is arranged according to the levels/categories earlier mentioned in the conceptual approach. This process shall proceed from one sub-variety then to the next from the different papers. This will facilitate comparison at the description level of formal features. For critical discourse analysis, data will mostly be based on the same sample newspapers but will occasionally quote or explain with reference to other newspaper articles over the same period of 1996. The data here will be subsumed under the levels/categories isolated for stylistic analysis.
Data analysis for the stylistic description is based on the levels of linguistic organisation of each sub-variety. The patterns that emerge will be computed to reflect frequencies which will be the basis of comparison. A “synthesis of the information made available in terms of quantitative based descriptive statements” will then be attempted [Crystal, 1969]. This way, a description of linguistic features characteristic of “journalese” will be achieved. On the critical discourse analysis, data analysis shall proceed from some of the categories mentioned in stylistics. Each newspaper will be analysed differently but whenever possible the same event shall used for purpose of comparison. This information will then be compiled to highlight both the similarities and the differences.

Notes:

1. Fairclough (1992) argues that vocabulary can be investigated in many ways and that it is limited value to think of a language as having a vocabulary documented in ‘the’ dictionary.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0.0 Stylistics and Critical Discourse Analysis

This chapter is mainly on theoretical literature on our area of study. It is divided into two main sections. The first section deals with the subject of stylistics. This subject is first discussed from a mainly literary point of view, and then from a purely linguistic viewpoint. The second section of this chapter deals with the background against which our study of stylistics will be evaluated. This is the area of critical discourse analysis or critical linguistics. We trace it’s disciplinary origin and discuss it’s analytical framework.

2.1.0 STYLISTICS AND STYLE

Stylistics can be said to be the study of “style” - a derivation of which it is. Style is a term frequently used in stylistics and any study of stylistics must therefore begin with the understanding of the concept of style. The term “style” is very slippery to define since it has been used by many people to mean different things as reflected in the multiplicity of definitions available. These definitions can however be traced to two main influences in the study of style: First, that of literary criticism and secondly, that of linguistics. This dichotomy has been used to classify definitions of style to two main categories: Those that are subjective/impressionistic and, those that are objective/verifiable, respectively [see Mzee, 1980]

Numerically, the subjective category of definitions by far outnumber those of the objective kind. This partly reflects the historical fact of literary dominance on the study of style, sometimes traced to Greece for classical origins [see Indangasi; 1988]. Linguistic study of style, also called the objective category, is traced to the Prague linguistic circle. This classification of style into subjective and objective categories has been controversial, tempting some scholars such as Wales, [1989] to distinguish between linguistic stylistics and literary stylistics.
However, as we shall argue later on in this work, it may be prudent to set aside such divisions and instead focus on the fact that style ultimately revolves around a common phenomena: language use. This position is further supported by observations to the effect that the study of style is a “meeting ground” of literature and linguistics [Leech, 1969:5]. We shall discuss the concept of style from a general literary viewpoint before looking at it from a purely linguistic perspective.

2.1.1 **Style as Manner of expression**

At its simplest, style refers to the manner of expression in writing and speaking, just like there is a manner of doing things like walking, playing tennis or even painting. According to the *Oxford Advanced learners dictionary* [1989] style is,

...a manner of writing or speaking, especially contrasted with what is actually written or said. [emphasis added] In this sense, style has evaluative connotations whereby it is used to refer to the effectiveness or otherwise of a mode of expression.

The basis of this view seems to be value judgements on the overall effect of language on ourselves. This is seen in such aphorism as Jonathan Swift’s “proper words in proper places”. Focusing mostly on literary style, this view of style as McArthur (1992) observes, has it’s origins in classical rhetoric in which three ways of speaking/writing were prescriptively delimited; high or grand style, the middle style, and the plain or low styles. Here then, style, can be “evaluated, prescribed and proscribed” McArthur [1992:993]. The value judgements on which style is evaluated here, have as their basis such criteria as social, cultural and psychological considerations which are not very clear. However, McArthur (ibid:993) notes that they

...appear to involve a mixture of criteria associated with status [usually educational, often social, sometimes economic], ability [in such matters as selection, structure, clarity, delivery] and aesthetics [in such matters as balance, elegance, and euphony]...literary and other critics of the use of language generally agree that “good style” is difficult to describe and by no means a matter of general agreement, yet there is often something on which wide agreement is possible, with regard to the style and success of a writer or speaker........
Such a conception of style therefore doesn’t have an explicit method of evaluating a text since value judgements may vary not only from culture to culture but also from period to period even within the same culture.

2.1.12 Style as language habits

One implication of view of style as manner of expression is that of style as language habits. This conception of style has two sides to it. First, style is seen as the manifestation of individual characteristics in language use. This view is sometimes considered separately by such proponents as Buffon [1971] who holds that “style is the man”. Others like Murray [1966:49] see style as “that personal idiosyncrasy of expression by which we recognize a writer” and “as a technique of exposition”. The central thesis here is that no two people will have the same style, whether in writing, playing tennis or painting. Thus, by close observation of a writer’s consistent language use, his language habits and even his personality may be revealed. This view of style was very popular especially in literary criticism where it has been used to settle questions of disputed authorship. Biblical scholars have used a similar approach to settle questions/disputes of authorship of some gospels in the Holy Bible.

A second view of style as language habits is that associated with groups as opposed to individuals. Hendrick (1976) observes that there are two types of group style each associated with a different conception of stylistics: one that is sociolinguistic and one that is literary. The literary groupal style is “a variant of the more common conception in which individual style is regarded as manifested in written literary discourse” [Hendrik, 1976:103]. This is the sense in which the following definition by Crystal (1969:10) sees style to,

...refer to some or all of the language habits shared by a group of people at one time or over a period of time as when we talk about the style of Augustan poets.

Indeed, the literary history of continental Europe is replete with such classifications based on periods, generations, movements etc. such as the Renaissance, Romance, Victorian novelists etc.
Closely allied to the notion of groups characteristics is the classification of literary works on a larger scale into genres. Basically, this view is tantamount to variation in language use according context or some other domains of a larger or smaller nature. For instances, even within the same field of literary works, we have prose, poetry and drama. Further, a genre such as drama also distinguishes between comic and tragic drama.

2.1.13 Style as seen in term of norms and deviations

Style as seen in terms of norms and deviations is a significant view in stylistics. This view holds that texts reveal different patterns of ‘deviation” and ‘foregrounding”, the two features that characterize and uniquely define literary language/discourse. Although used to mean the same thing here, the two terms are actually distinct from each other because

.....in most cases, deviation is an essential condition for fore-grounding [Kazungu, 1982:10]

Deviation implies general departure from certain expected ways of doing things or norms. This is reflected in the numerous definitions available viz Kazungu (1982), Cluysenar (1976), McArthur (1992), etc. All these definitions emphasize contravention of some rules of the language resulting in ‘abnormal’ or ‘ungrammatical” writing or speech. This emphasis may wrongly imply that style is deviant in the sense of ‘abnormal’ only.

In fact, as Todorov (1971) observes, deviation is able to assume a wider context than merely “linguistic transgression of norm”. He argues that style may be contextual [as in the use of informal language in a formal context] or statistical [determined by frequency of particular usages]. Enkvist (1971) captures the essence of this differentiation when he suggests two categories of deviation:

a) deviance connected with poetic language
b) deviance defined in terms of the use of a stock of non-deviant rules in specific ways like using one rule very often and another rarely or never
We are in agreement with Enkvist when he points out that linguists have concentrated more on type (a) deviance which they have termed "ungrammatical", "ill-formed" or 'highly marked'.

Some studies have tended to associated deviance with literature so much that they see the former as "the central distinction of literary language... it is a consciously willed deviation from the ordinary language" Levine (1979). Whether such preoccupations with what constitutes literary language are useful or not will be discussed later. What is of immediate importance here is the observation that deviation assumes meaning when seen from the perspective of it's motive, or function in a text. The "function" is inevitably linked to the question of interpretation and it's evaluation by the reader.

2.1.14 **Style as Foregrounding**

Foregrounding has it's classical origins in the pre-war Prague school of linguistics who seem to have borrowed the term from Gestalt psychologists (Kitsao, 1975). The term was first used by Mukarouvsy (1970:42) who sees it as the "intentional violation of the norm of standard language" and which is the mark of "literariness". Two observations from this definition is that first, foregrounding is equated with deviation; and secondly that foregrounding is what makes literary language unique and different from other kinds of writing.

However, and unlike Mukarouvsy, Halliday (1971) describes foregrounding as prominence that is motivated; the term itself being defined as

... a general name for linguistic highlighting whereby some features of language of text stand out in some way.

This definition is more representative because it is not confined to the concept deviation. Halliday (ibid) goes ahead to isolate three processes that bring about prominence. Of these, the negative process is the only one that constitutes departure from a norm. The other two, positive and statistical processes, establish prominence for instance either by regular rhyming patterns or insistence on particular syntactic patterns among other methods. Such prominence is revealed by close intra-textual examination by the analyst/stylistician.
According to Prague school linguists, the purpose of foregrounding is aesthetic or non-utilitarian as opposed to the utilitarian function of non-literary language. Foregrounding then is purposed "to impress the reader" and to "create active approach to the reader", Konzenkova, (1972). This view is opposed by some scholars viz Cluysenaar (1976), Widdowson (1975), Kazungu (1982) who basically argue that any piece of language is both representational and expressive. Thus literary language is seen as being both artistic and communicative.

Foregrounding, like deviation, should then be seen from the perspective of communication (see Kazungu 1982). This is because it is assumed to be deliberate and purposeful, hence it is motivated and thus sets the reader thinking about the intentions of the writer who uses it.

2.1.15 Deviation and literary style

Deviation, as we saw in 2.1.2, has sometimes been said to be the central distinction that sets literary language use apart from other forms of usages. However, numerous opinions have negated this view including Mukarovsky (1970) who sees "foregrounding" instead as the defining character of literary works. Another dissenting view is that of Nowottony (1978) who holds that the main difference between literary and non-literary language is that the former is more highly structured. Fowler (1966:10) argues that the whole question of what constitutes literary language should be abandoned because;

... it is unlikely that any formal features, or sets of features, can be found, the presence or absence of which will unequivocally identify literature. Put another way, there is probably no absolute formal distinction between literature and non-literature; neither of these two categories is formally homogenous. This conclusion must be of prime importance to the linguist, for it relieves him of the necessity to make special assumptions about the nature of literary language.

Further, the distinction between the utilitarian and non-utilitarian (aesthetic) functions of language may have to be cancelled. This is because, as Widdowson (1975) argues, any piece of language use (literary or not) is not only an exemplification of linguistic categories but also a piece of communication. Thus language is unavoidably dual, that is, it is both representational
and expressive. This seems to be the import of Leech's (1981:17) position that,

... however plausible the concept of stylistic embellishment appears ... the elaboration of form inevitably brings an elaboration of meaning.

These two conclusions in light of literary language versus non-literary language are significant for this study. This is because they free us to use any facet of conception of style that may otherwise be deemed strictly "literary". These conclusions are also important in the sense that they take a monistic view of style as opposed to the dualistic notion.

2.1.16 Style as choice

The concept of style as choice has been postulated by both linguists and literary scholars. However, the concept of style as choice has been used to mean different things by different people. For our purposes, we shall delimit two senses in which the concept of 'style as choice' is used.

The first sense is what has been termed a dualist view. Basically, the dualist holds that there can be different ways of conveying the same content. These are the choices of "manner" rather than "matter" and hence "it is in these choices that style resides" [Leech, 1981:15-19]. Other scholars who subscribe to this view include Warburg (1959) and Hockett (1958) who argue that two utterance in the same language which convey approximately the same information, but which differ in their linguistic structure, can be said to differ in style.

Contrastively, the concept of style as choice under a monist perspective holds that "any alteration of form entails a change of content" [Leech, 1981:20]. This view acknowledges that selection of some features/items is partly influenced by the demands of setting but adds that to a greater extent stylistic choices involve variation of meaning:

.....if a writer chooses "steed" instead of "horse" or "loot" instead of "money", what subtleties of connotation are involved in the selection from a stock of apparent synonyms? [Wales, 989,436: Emphasis added].
Wales (bid) goes further and points out that to most people, stylistic variational value or meaning is what distinguishes propositions that on a deep level express the “same” meaning.

Upto this point we have concerned ourselves with style as seen from a literary viewpoint. It is worth noting that most studies here had as their aim criticism of works of art. This task proceeded by appealing to such things as the writer’s own feeling, moral judgements or abstract aesthetic properties, all of which rest on some value judgements. Halliday (1967) finds fault with this method of analysis because “the critic makes up his mind in advance and then supports his claims by citing selected aspects of the text”. This observation is the basis for literary stylistics being termed “subjective” or even “impressionistic”.

The linguistic study of style on the other hand, disregards value judgements and proceeds from a methodologically superior position. This is because a linguistic study entails “not just the study of the language but the study of the language utilizing the concepts and methods of modern linguistics” [Fowler, 1986:2]. He goes further to point out that linguistic description is technically superior because it is “explicit, systematic and comprehensive”. As a result, the linguistic approach to style has the advantage of being more objective and hence given to scientific enquiry as compared to literary stylistics.

However, regardless of the superiority of methodology, the analyst who chooses to ignore the insights of literary stylistics does a great disservice to his task. This is because, although linguistic stylistics aims at describing a text so as to give a general picture of it, the tasks which follow from this (i.e. interpretation and evaluation) are not the exclusive preserve of literary critics. Indeed, as Kitsao (1975:22) maintains

.... there would be nothing wrong in attempting an evaluation so long as the basis of evaluation is made more explicit.

Thus the goal of stylistic studies of text should not be confined to the study of formal features of text for their own sake. Such studies should instead show their (formal features) “practical significance for the interpretation of text” [Wales, 1989:438]
2.1.2 Linguistics and Style

Any study of style in linguistic must first distinguish two major approaches in the study of the discipline. These approaches are what have been termed “Formalism” and “Functionalism”. Both are different in approach and basic assumption about language.

2.1.21. The Concept of Style in Formalist Linguistics

The formalist approach to linguistic studies has enjoyed much prominence since the early 70’s and has in fact, contributed greatly to our knowledge of the phenomenon language. Formalism is also referred to as ‘Generative grammar’ and was first expounded in Chomsky (1965). This theory studies language as an autonomous system which emphasizes grammatical forms and propositional meanings of sentences. It aims to capture the internalised knowledge about a language’s system that enables users (ideal speakers) to construct and interpret an infinite number of grammatically correct sentences. Seen from Chomsky (1965) the grammar consists of a Base and a Transformational component. The base generates deep structures which enter the semantics component where they (deep structure) receive semantic interpretation. These semantically interpreted deep structures are then mapped by Transformational rules onto surface structures that are given phonetic interpretation in the phonological component. This is the basic arrangement of the theory as seen in the following comments on the recent developments within generative grammars:

....these modifications suggests that, rather than a rapid succession of radically different models, there has been one model of grammar that is continually subject to critical assessments.... [Riemsdijk, 1986:17] NB: Emphasis added

The formalist or generative approach to language study has led to what is sometimes referred to as Formalist stylistics. This approach to the study of style relies heavily on purely formal linguistics criteria in identifying stylistic patterns [see Wales, 1989]: ‘Style’ is seen here as belonging to the domain of “performance” as opposed to “competence” since it is a surface
structure phenomenon. Thus style is considered not as part of the grammar but as a deviation from it. This position on style in generative grammar has been controversial.

For instance, it has been argued by among others Mzee (1980) that comprehension of stylistically marked features is an integral part of native speaker’s mastery of his language (and hence competence). He argues further that while it may not be possible to formalize this ability in terms of explicit rules, this aspect of competence is often demonstrated where native speakers, are able to perceive stylistic effects and nuances where a non-native speaker does not! Similar, criticism is availed by Hendricks (1976:45) who argues for a reformulation of the concept of style so that it should not"be regarded as ancillary to grammar [and] designed to account for aspects that cannot be incorporated into the systematic description of language". In addition to this marginalization of style, Malla (1974) finds fault with the tendency of generative grammar to confine style entirely to each specific formal rule of grammar.

However, and in spite of all the criticism, generative grammar offers some transformational processes that are significant in our study of style. Variations in syntactic structures, (i.e transformations) that are useful in stylistics include the passive transformation, deletions, nominalisation etc. The importance of these and other transformational becomes clear when their functional motivation can be found.

2.1.22 The Concept of Style in Functional Linguistics

The Functionalist approach to linguistic studies developed as a reaction by scholars opposed to Generative grammars, [see Okoth, 1986] These scholars aimed to expose the theoretical misconceptions and practical shortcomings of generative grammars which, they felt, made the theory reach a dead end. The main proponents of Functionalism include Dik (1978) and (1980) and Halliday (1985). Functional grammar emphasize the study of the pragmatic function of language in it's communicative contexts.
During the infancy of this theory, some scholars like Halliday came up with the concept of style in terms of registers. This view is closely allied with what we earlier discussed under "groupal characteristics" of language habits. This view proceeds from the contention that language is a heterogenous phenomenon which is accounted for by correlating instances of actual language use with social situations, thereby giving language a function or purpose. This concept of style is both stylistic and sociolinguistic since it accounts for differences in language use in professions and hence such labels like legalese, journalesed, officialese, religious register etc.

The functionalist view of language therefore treats language as multi-functional and holds that "it is part of our competence as speakers not only to know how to produce utterances but also how to use them in different situations of our social life [Wales, 1989: 195]. In terms of models, Functional grammar regards 'pragmatics as the all encompassing framework within which semantics and syntax must be studied" [DIK, 1980]. This aspect of Functional grammar is significant to the concept of style because it means that style is here considered as central to the grammar. It also emphasizes language use in it's communicative context as the criteria on which grammar should be based because "a natural language is first and foremost ..... an instrument of social interaction" DIK(1980]. The study of style from a functional perspective has been referred to as functional stylistics and it is concerned with the study of linguistic features of utterances that correlate with the non-verbal context of the speech activity.

In conclusion, we may summarize the various conceptions of style by observing that a linguistic view of style must begin with the conviction that all speech events have style. This is because all language is used in specific communication situations. The tasks of stylistics then can broadly fall within three parameters as suggested by Malla (1974):

(i) the study of language units beyond the sentence
(ii) the study of message types
(iii) the study of language variation in terms of choice, deviations or simply conventionalized as well as functional variations.
For the purpose of our study, we will not be detained by fidelity to a specific view of style but will instead attempt to explicate all stylistically relevant information from the corpus (newspapers) by reference to any and all persuasions that will be beneficial.

Indeed such an approach is reflective of our position that differing schools or approaches need not necessarily be treated as conflicting. Instead, there could be a lot to be gained by treating such approaches as complementing each other since each has a fair share of both weaknesses and strengths. Such an approach is consonant with recent scholarly pursuits:

... central to this development has been a growing concern in all intellectual pursuit in recent years for integrating the formal and the informal, the structured and unstructured... it is a question... of reorienting some of the principle theoretical tenets of structuralist Linguistics especially the dichotomous relations between; langua and parole, diachronic and synchronic, form and meaning, objectivity and subjectivity, etc.

[Birch and O'Toole, 1988:3-4. NB: Emphasis added]

Other scholars viz Fairclough (1992:2) see such synthesis operating in the larger domain of the social sciences. Lamenting the hitherto domination of linguistics by formalistic and cognitive paradigms and the isolation of language studies from other social sciences, he writes

... these positions and attitudes are now changing. Boundaries between social sciences are weakening, and a greater diversity of theory and practice is developing within disciplines. And these changes have been accompanied by a “linguistic turn” in social theory, which has resulted in language being accorded a more central role within social phenomenon NB: Emphasis added]

2.2.0 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Critical discourse analysis is also referred to as critical linguistics. In this study critical discourse analysis [henceforth CDA] operates as the background against which our stylistics analysis will be evaluated. This is an attempt to make our stylistics analysis more “responsible and responsive to questions of social equity” Kress, [1990:91]. Such an endeavour is in keeping
with recent developments in linguistics which have increasingly turned towards the study of
function as seen in such areas as pragmatics, speech act theory and in discourse analysis.
Thus critical discourse analysis (CDA) is closely related to the functionalist view of grammar.
In essence however, CDA is a kind of textual and stylistic analysis first concretized in the works
of Kress and Hodge (1979) and Fowler et al (1979). In the latter work, the aim of the
approach is stated as
....to examine the relationship between language and meanings, which influence thought
and reflect ideological assumptions in discourses such as newspaper headlines,
regulations, advertisement [Wales, 1989:229-230]

CDA is related to functional linguistics in two main ways: First by the fact that it rejects the
treatment of language systems as autonomous and independent of “use”, or the separation of
“meaning” from “style”. Secondly, it supports Halliday’s view of the grammar of language as
systems of “options” amongst which speakers make “selection” according to social
circumstances [see Fairclough, 192:26]

In fact, some scholars trace the disciplinary origin of CDA to the broad distinction of
functionalism as opposed to formalism viz Fairclough (1989), (1992). It is seen as an outgrown
of the Prague school and Systemic grammar of Halliday developed in the 1970’s.
The distinguishing factor is the emphasis on the pragmatic function of language in a
communication context (Blaker, 1979:131). This way, linguistics research is placed firmly
among the social sciences. A second source or disciplinary origin of CDA often cited is the
principle of linguistic determinism of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. For critical linguistics,
determination is seen as working within language;
.....it is part of ....critical linguistics to investigate the way social patterns of language, in
politics and journalism for example, can influence thought and determine particular non-
neutral, world-views [Wales, 1989:230].

Language here is seen to influence and is also influenced by the social institutions.
The influence that language can exert in society and vice versa is enormous.
Therefore, the domain of enquiry of CDA is necessarily limited as follows:

- the reproduction of sexism and racism through discourse; the legitimization of power;
- the manufacture of consent; the role of politics, education and the media; the discursive reproduction of dominance relation between groups; the imbalances in international communication and information [Kress, 1990:1]

These phenomena are held to be found in the most unremarkable and everyday text, and not only in text that declare special status in some way.

CDA as a theoretical approach to language study is theoretically eclectic in nature. This is because it borrows from several approaches that we shall briefly highlight. These approaches contribute something to CDA but they also have some limitation from a critical perspective. These approaches include what is often termed mainstream linguistics (already discussed), sociolinguistics, pragmatics, cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence, conversational and discourse analysis.

The contribution of sociolinguistics to CDA can be traced to the fact that sociolinguistics is close to, and in fact developed partly under the influence of disciplines outside linguistics viz anthropology and sociology. The aim of sociolinguistics is to establish a relationship between language and society. While this is a useful contribution to CDA, sociolinguistics is seen to have a limitation from a critical perspective because it does not look for deeper causal relationship between language and society. Fairclough (1989:8) puts it thus:

...the sociolinguist focuses on the simple existence of facts without attending to the social conditions which made them so and the social conditions for their potential change, the notion that the sociolinguist herself might somehow effect the facts hardly seems to arise...

He goes further to argue that in fact the sociolinguist tendency to describe conventions in terms of what the “appropriate” linguistic forms are for a given social situation, does seem to legitimize “the facts” and even their underlying power relations.
Critical linguistics also borrows from pragmatics, which as a science of language use is associated with analytical philosophy, particularly with the work of Austin and Searle on “Speech Acts”. The resources of Pragmatics that have been borrowed into CDA include Speech act analysis, conversational implicature and presuppositional structure. On the whole, pragmatics holds that discourse is a social practice because as Fowler (1986:70) points out

- a piece of language in real use is more than a text put together by to the basic conventions...it reflects the whole complex process of people interacting with one another within the structure of social forces.

The main shortcoming of pragmatics in a critical perspective is its “individualism”. Action is hereby seen “atomistically as emanating wholly from the individual” who has so acted to achieve “individual goals”. Such a perspective thus “understates the extent to which people are caught up in, are constrained by and indeed derive their individual identities from social conventions,” Fairclough, [1989:9]. In addition, pragmatics assumes interaction is between individuals who have equal control over the co-operative interaction. This idealized view is contrary to CDA which sees a sociological order moulded in social struggles based in inequalities of power [ibid:10]

Another source from which critical linguistics has benefited is the area of cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence. Like pragmatics, these areas of study have been concerned with the discrepancies which exist between what is said and what is meant, and with how people work out what is meant from what is said. Detailed investigations of the processes of comprehension involved have been undertaken and from a critical linguistics perspective, the most significant result here is the emphasis on the active nature of comprehension [Fairclough 1989:10]. That is, one does not simply “decode” an utterance but rather arrives at an interpretation through an active process of matching features of utterance at various levels with representations stored in one’s long term memory. Thus comprehension is the outcome of this interaction. However, little attention has been given to the social origins or significance of the representation’s stored in one’s long term memory. This is an anomaly from a critical perspective which argues that such representation’s “are socially determined and ideologically shaped, though their ‘common sense’
and automatic character typically disguises this factor" [Fairclough, 1989:11].

The last area that is beneficial to CDA is conversational analysis and Discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is cross-disciplinary in nature and hence very close to critical linguistics. In fact, CDA is seen more as an approach to discourse analysis than as a separate discipline by among others Fairclough (1992). Conversational analysis aims to show that social structures are present and are produced in every day action and are not just a property of abstract societal macro-structure. Ironically, and in spite of such realizations, conversational analysis has been reluctant in making connections between such "micro" structures of conversation and the "macro" structures of societal institutions. Consequently, it gives an implausible image of conversation as a skilled social practice existing in a social vacuum - a limitation which critical linguistics aims to correct.

In conclusion, critical linguistics then should be understood not as just another approach to language study that complements those mentioned by highlighting their limitations, but as an entirely alternative orientation to the study of language. This is demonstrated by the fact that it’s goals are different from the other disciplines that “confluence” to critical linguistics. Unlike these disciplines, CDA “makes use of all the approaches referred to, but attempts to go beyond them " in providing what, Fairclough (1989:14) encapsulates as "a synthesis of necessary theoretical concepts and analytical frameworks for doing critical analyses”.

2.2.1 ANALYTICAL TOOLS IN CRITICAL LINGUISTICS

Critical linguistics maintains that texts such as news structures are always under pressure of social circumstances of communication which, as Fowler (1991:66) says,

... embodies values and beliefs; that representation of experience, of events and concepts, is patterned by the medium so inevitably that the notion of “representation” carries within it the qualification of representation from a specific ideological point of view; that values or ideology differ systematically in different forms of expression, as for example in characteristically different choices of words and grammatical phrasing found in the press...
Such an outlook is more in line with what we termed a functionalist approach such as the Systematical Functional grammar associated with Halliday (1993), Pragmatics and the cross-disciplinary trends in Discourse analysis. Thus CDA develops the analytic framework of these disciplines and although more inclined to functionalism, some concepts associated with formalism are also productively employed. Thus as mentioned previously, CDA is eclectic in both theory and approach. However, such an approach illuminates much about language that has hitherto been ignored. The analytic framework of CDA has its basis in the functional linguistics of Halliday and especially the three functions that language is said to perform simultaneously. These are the “ideational”, the “interpersonal” and the “textual” functions.

The ideational function consists of the referential or representational role of language, that is, the expression of experience, perception etc. The “interpersonal” function includes the expression of feelings appealing to or even trying to influence each other etc. “Textual” function is basically that of language making reference to itself in creation of text. Critical linguistics finds such a formulation unsatisfactory because it deals with language as though it were a matter of individual free will. This way the formulation understates the “whole dynamic of interaction through language [which] is subject to social determination” [Fowler, 1991:69]. For purposes of analysis then, the three functions are considered sets of social options which provide a scheme of classifying linguistic structures. Thus as Fowler [ibid] observes,

... the positive consequence of a functional classification, from our point of view, is that all particular sub-headings, the details of syntax, vocabulary etc are conceived of functionally: not merely as formally different kinds of structures, but as kinds of structures which are as they are because they do particular jobs.

In addition, these functions enable us to predict by theory what types of linguistic constructions will be invaluable for critical linguistics: in this case the ‘Ideational’ and ‘Interpersonal’ functions. This is because like CDA, they are concerned mainly with the ordering of experience and with the “mediation” of social relationships and values.
2.2.12 **Transitivity**

Transitivity is part of the ideational function and it is a basic and powerful semantic concept in Halliday. In terms of CDA, it is an essential tool for the analysis of representation. As used here, the term differs from the sense in which it is used in traditional grammar. In Halliday (1971) transitivity is the foundation of representation because it has “the facility to analyse the same event in different ways...” Halliday contends that if we see something, it is perceptually all of a piece or whole but that when we talk of it, we must analyses it as a semantic configuration. That is, we must represent it as one particular *structure* of meaning since,

... transitivity makes options available, [hence] we are always suppressing some possibilities, so the choice we make - better, the choice made by the discourse - indicates our point of view, [what] is ideologically significant [Fowler, 1991:71].

Transitivity analysis revolves around three elements. First, what has been termed ‘predicate’ to refer to the event or state of affairs described by the clause - actions, processes, states. The second element of transitivity is the role of participants. These are basically nouns and noun phrases that attend to the predicate - agent, patient, result, object. The third and final element of transitivity is termed circumstances. This basically consists of expressions indicating the time and place of the event described in the clause.

2.2.13 **Some syntactic transformations of the clause**

The clause is here treated as a basic syntactic unit. Syntactic analysis is concerned with position and sequence of elements, rather than their propositional meanings and functions. This does not necessarily imply that syntactic re-ordering is non-significant. In fact, syntax provides for alternative phrasings that go with alternative values as argued all along. The notion of ‘transformation’ expresses the concept of syntactic variation, especially passive and nominal. Passive transformations has the effect of interchanging the position of agent and patient for which functional motivations are numerous. For instance, the passive focuses more on the patient than on agent. Nominalization is a syntactic transformation that makes predicates (verbs and adjectives) be realized as nouns e.g “Allegation” from “allege”, “development” from “develop”,

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etc Fowler et al (1979) hold that nominalization is inherently “mystificatory”, that is, it permits habits of concealment, particularly in the area of power relations and a writer’s attitude.

2.2.14 **Lexical structures**

Vocabulary or lexis is a major determinant of Ideational structure in Hallidays linguistic theory. The vocabulary of a language amounts to a map of the objects, concepts, processes and relationships about which the culture needs to communicate. For the critical linguist, it is a basic task to note the terms that habitually occur, what segments of the society’s world enjoy attention in the discourse under study. This is because categorization by vocabulary is central to the reproduction of ideology especially in newspapers and particularly is the basis of discriminatory practice when dealing with disadvantaged groups [see Fowler, 1991]. The other lexical processes of importance here include “re-lexicalization” which is the promotion of a new term where it is claimed a new concept is at issue: “over-lexicalization” is the second lexical process. This is the existence of an excess of quasi-synonymous terms for entities and ideas that are a particular pre-occupation or problem in the culture’s discourse.

2.2.15 **Interpersonal Elements: Modality**

The boundary between the interpersonal function and the ideational function is very slippery since as Fowler (1991:85) notes,

....it is the essence of representation that it is always...from some ideological point of view, as managed through the inevitable structuring force of transitivity and lexical categorization: On the other hand, the interpersonal practices always have some attachment to make, and often work by implied proposition or presupposition.

Modality is informally used here to refer to a “comment” or “attitude” defined as per the source of the text and, explicit or implicit in the linguistic stance taken by the writer. Four types of modality are distinguished in critical linguistics, namely “Truth”, “Obligation” “Permission” and “Desirability”. All these are clearly reflected in modal auxiliaries.
2.2.16 **Interpersonal Elements: Speech Acts**

The Speech Act theory as developed by Austin and Searle emphasises that language is not only a channel of communicating ideas and facts, but is also a practice, a mode of action. The essence of speech acts is the realization that many utterances do not communicate information, but are equivalent to action eg. when someone says “I apologise...’I promise, etc such utterances spoken/written under appropriate condition and conventions actually constitutes the performance of an action. The “appropriate conditions and conventions” are what Austin term felicity conditions (sincerity condition) that a speech act must satisfy for it to be successful. These conditions show that speech acts are embedded and intertwined with the system of conventions that constitute a social and political world. Consequently, speech act analysis offers critical linguists a direct “entry point” into some practices through which society’s ideas and rules are constructed.

**NOTES:**

1. This view of style is also propounded in the works of Leo Spitzer whose approach, called “expressive stylistics” was mainly concerned with the revelation of the “soul” or personality of the writer (See McArthur, 1992). Studies in sociolinguistics apparently borrowed this notion and applied it universally and to all kind of language uses so that every individual speaker is said to have an “idiolect”. This refers to the speech habits of an individual in a speech community, as distinct from those of a group of people (i.e dialect). Whether borrowed of shared, the basis of this views of language are closely related.

2. Group styles, Hendrick (1976) argues, is both a sociolinguistic and a literary concept. In sociolinguistics, group style involves categories such as informal, formal, intimate, etc He goes further to refer to group styles as “functional varieties” of language, and their investigation functional stylistics.
3. See 2.2.2 on style as seen in terms of registers under a purely linguistic perspective later on.

4. This position is as opposed to "dualism" where in dualism the choice of expression is equivalent to style. The dualist holds that there can be different ways of conveying the same content and hence style is a writer's "way of putting things". On the contrary, the monoist maintains that any alternation of form entails change of content [see Leech, 1981].

NB: The monoist position is consonant with that of critical linguistics which provides the background to this study. Critical linguistics holds that whenever choice is available, it opens up possibilities of different interpretations [see Fowler, 1991].

5. Formalist or generative grammars take the form of a set of rules that specify the structure, interpretation, and pronunciation of sentences that native speakers of the language are considered to accept as belonging to the language. It is therefore regarded as representing the native speakers' competence in or knowledge of their language [see McAuthur, 1992].

6. The term "formalist stylistics" was proposed by Taylor and Toolan (1984) and it is based on generative stylistic models which rely on the study of formal features as contrasted with study of their functions.

7. "Style" in generative grammar is deviationist in that it is a departure from "normal" usage: what is termed "highly marked". This aspect of markedness has led to notions of core grammar and periphery which, as explained by Riemsdijk et al (1986), was a reaction against the extent of idealization acceptable in generative grammars. This grammar (in general) emphasizes on idealization and abstraction to the extent that some ask: "Has the price of this considerable level of abstraction perhaps become too high?" This follows the stubbornness and increase in number of forms of data that do not conform to the main theoretical principles. But the answer maintained to the question is "no", because these "unassailable residue of odd facts, exceptions and quirky constructions" may be accommodated by a theory of markedness - a periphery that accommodates the exceptional or marked properties, as opposed to a core which determines
the general principles or properties of grammar. [see Riemsjik et 1986:175-6].

These representations are prototypes for a diverse collection of things - the shapes of words, the grammatical forms of sentences, the properties of the types of persons or objects, the expected sequence of events in particular situation types, etc some of these are linguistic in nature while some are not.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0.0. NEWS-REPORTING

Mass communication as an object of study has increasingly been subjected to systematic study through the mass media themselves - press, T.V, radio, etc. As McQuial (1987) observes, this situation reflects the increased importance of the media institution in society. In addition, this increased attention on the media lends credence to social theorists' contention that the present age of humanity is a 'communication age' or "information age." Communication is often understood as "the exchange of meaning between individuals through a common system of symbols [New Encyclopedia Britannica, 1987, vi;312]. The communication we deal with here is of course specifically human verbal and therefore consists of what Walter (1996:5) terms "interaction between conscious human being". Human communication is mostly achieved in and through language.

This realization may be the motivation behind what has been termed as the 'linguistic turn" in social theory [Fairclough, 1992:2]. This proposition is partly reflective of the position that language is essentially a social phenomena to be studied in its communicative context. In our study, the "communication context" is the press media whose importance derives partly from the fact that

......newspaper are probably the most accessible and widely-read kind of writing...a convenient way of keeping informed...are relatively cheap, easy to get hold of and are up-to-date [Janks, n.d]

A newspaper is defined as 'a publication issued at close, regular intervals, especially on a daily or weekly basis...it has large sheets and columns of text, usually interspersed with photographs, and commonly contains not only news but also comments, features and advertisements' [McArthur, 1992:691]. Thus newspapers are made up of numerous different sections which makes them very eclectic from a stylistic point of view. But for purposes of our study, our scope is delimited to three sub-sections or what we term sub-varieties, that is, news analysis, editorial and news reporting.
The present chapter deals with news-reporting. This sub-variety is considered to be the central function of newspapers because it informs [see Crystal, 1969]. Indeed the other main sub-varieties of newspaper language - editorial, news analysis, commentaries - normally derive their subject matter from what first appears in the news reports. This informing function is actually inherited from the newspaper's, (as genre) main precursor - the newsletters, which were primarily concerned with transmitting news with a relevance for international trade and commerce [see McQuail, 1987] Some scholars [vis Crystal, 1969] have even used news-reporting as the sole basis of characterizing newspaper language.

3.1.0 **Headlines in news reporting**

News reporting, as we have already observed, serves one of the central functions of newspapers, that is, to inform. Most, in fact all, news reports are usually accompanied by a headline to each story. This points to the interrelatedness of headlines and news reports. This relationship is so intimate that we consider it a flaw to attempt an analysis of the sub-variety of news-reporting divorced from their headlines. As Mzee (1980), observes, headlines in news-reporting are an integral part of what he calls the 'macrostructure' of news-reporting. However, at the level of style, headlines are so different as to form a separate variety all together!

This “separateness” and importance of headlines, is further reinforced by the fact that in newsrooms of most publications, headlines are written not by the reporters who write the story but by senior editors. It is not unusual for headlines - and sometimes lead stories - to be written through specialized co-operation between many people. Headlines then are a very important feature of newspapers whose complexity needs careful attention and consideration.

Commenting on the complex function of news headlines, Crystal (1969:174) writes

...[they] have to contain a clear, succinct and if possible intriguing message...to kindle the spark of interest in the potential reader, who, on average, is a person whose eye moves swiftly down a page and stops when something catches his attention.
The overriding function of headlines then is to attract the potential readers by giving as much information as possible in the most interesting manner. In order to achieve this aim, several techniques are usually employed, some that are purely linguistic and others that are not exactly linguistic in nature - what we term “quasi-linguistic devices”

3.1.1 **Quasi-Linguistic devices**

The main feature here is what may be termed graphemics or graphology. According to Wales (1989), graphology/graphemics refers to the study of written symbols or letters in a language system. It also embraces the study of other features associated with written or graphic medium such as punctuation, paragraphing, spacing, etc. In newspaper headlines, graphetic variation is significant in defining it’s distinctive usage.

It is through graphetic and graphological variation that headlines act as attention getting devices. All headline are usually of a bigger [length, boldness] typeface than that used in the body of news story. For instance, out of our data on headlines, all had the characteristics boldness and use of typeface bigger than that used in the main story. In both the *Kenya Times* and the *Daily nation* the main or lead headlines had the following characteristics:

The *Kenya Times* (henceforth *KT*) had an average main headlines of type sizes ranging from 2.4 cm to 3.1 cm. *Daily Nation* (henceforth *DN*) had an average type sizes ranging in size from 1.5 cm to 2.5 cm in it’s main headlines. However, despite the difference between type sizes in the dailies, the main point here is that the headlines had used bigger types than that used in the body of the news story.

Another distinctive characteristic of headlines at the graphetic level is that the choice of type sizes used seems to follow an importance scale. That is, the bigger the type used in a newspaper, the more important the news story is considered by the particular newspaper. For instance, in our sample headlines, the biggest type size used was in the *KT* of 12th March, 1996, which was 3.5 cm big. The headline was based on a prominent political leader’s comments on the sensitive question of minorities in Kenya.
Most major headlines in both KT and DN are what are referred to as “banners” in the journalistic parlance. These type of headlines cover or stretch across several columns of a page. However a slight difference of usage here is that all major headlines in Kenya Times are in full capital while in the DN only the first are capitaized letters of the first word and the initial letter nouns. Full capitalization in both dailies was also used for abbreviation of societies names, titles like LSK (Law Society of Kenya), ASK (Agricultural Society of Kenya), UN (United Nations), PC (Provincial Commissioner), MP (Member of Parliament), V-P (Vice President) etc. Such usage seem tailored to save space, and be it is effective in this task.

Another technique meant to achieve conciseness is the usage in both dailies of complimentary smaller headlines. These are referred to as “Tag line or Kicker” in the journalistic technical terminology. These tag-lines use smaller type size and are normally underlined by a single bold line either above or below the main headline. In our sample data, all cases of tag lines in the Daily Nation had been underlined, whereas those of Kenya Times were either underlined or used colour contrasts for highlighting. These colour contrasts were used 6 times out of the 13 occurrences of tag line headlines from a sample of 20 newspaper copies of Kenya Times.

Most main news items were continued elsewhere in the inside pages of newspapers. Hence, the continued stories were also given headlines for ease of reference and continuity. These “second” headlines are technically called “jump heads” - a term that we find convenient to use. Two patterns emerged concerning the relationship of the main headlines and the “jump heads”. In the KT the tendency was to repeat the main headline in the jump head so that the two are one and the same. On the other hand, the DN had a tendency of rewording or sometimes re-phrasing the main headline in it’s jump head.

Headlines in newspapers therefore are generally graphologically highlighted by among other things the type size used. Although these headlines differ in type size amongst themselves, they are however always bigger than the type used in the news stories. This is more clearly illustrated when we consider that most news stories use type sizes ranging from 0.15 mm to 0.3 mm as contrasted to headlines that are normally upwards of 1 cm. Graphetic variation is then an important device in attention getting.
important device in attention getting.

3.1.2 Linguistic devices

Linguistic techniques are also used in conjunction with the quasi-linguistic devices to create interest and perform other functions of headlines. These linguistics techniques will be discussed under the levels of organisation of language which, for our purposes, will mainly be at the level of grammar. Grammar is here used to refer specifically to the words, phrases and clauses of which sentences are composed. In this sense then, grammar can be split up into syntax (the structure of clauses and sentences) and morphology (word structure).

3.1.21 Word typology

Under word structure, we first investigate word typology and complexity in headlines. Using the orthographic word count out of a sample of about 80 news-reporting headlines, the most preferred headline words/lexical items were 5 letters long. This average length of word in headlines also pointed to a preference of the shorter word as compared to their longer synonyms. For instance, the following words were very frequent (left column) out of a possible alternative among those on the right hand column:

| poll | elections, voting |
| varsity | University, University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University etc. |
| says no | declines, prohibits |
| says/vows | declares, announces, promises |
| boss | chairman, leader of, secretary general, official |
| name | appoints, nominates, selects |

Headline length was also looked at from the perspective of words per main headline. Out of a sample of about 40 headlines, the average length of headlines was approximately 5 words. This is similar for both Daily Nation and Kenya Times, again pointing towards the premium placed on brevity.
the short form of words mentioned above. First is the tendency to have words in the headline that stimulate some emotional response or that are emotionally laden. This "emotive" element is mostly the active verb form and is underlined in the following illustration:

- Kenya in aids breakthrough
- Patients flock trial centre
- Moi reveals boycott plan
- Lunch date sparks speculation
- Matiba, Raila woo each other
- Strike paralyses bank operations
- Murder, chaos in Ford-K poll
- Erickson snatches rally lead
- Furore over Kirwa statement intensifies

According to Roget's Thesaurus [1978, 3rd ed: 141] the word "breakthrough" also means "break, rapture, break open, crack open, break into etc" All these are very forceful and conjure up images that are vivid. "Flock" is the equivalent of "teem with, overflow with, abound with, throng with etc" again as associative and vivid as the earlier example.

The second characteristic of headlines is their usage of idiomatic expressions. This may more readily fall under the level of analysis called "figures of speech" but we look at it here under vocabulary with the same effect. The most popular type of idiomatic expressions is the use of phrasal verbs. From our sampling, the following examples were present:

- Kirwa: Govt may push for new law
- Party branch kicks out Kirwa
- Air controllers strike fizzes out
- MP's sent fleeing as chaos hit Fork-K polls
- Daewood team bows out
- Kuria threatens to call in police

The usage of phrasal verbs is widespread in news headlines. Such phrasal verbs, as McArthur
(1992:772) observes, derive primarily from verbs of movement and action (such as go, put, take) and adverbial particles of direction and location (such as up, off, down). The base verbs are mainly monosyllabic. These combinations are used both literally and figuratively. Most phrasal verbs are “informal, emotive and slangy” [ibid] especially when compared with other verb forms that can serve to substitute them:

- bow out - withdraw
- sent fleeing - escape
- push for - try to obtain something by putting pressure
- fizzes out - end in a disappointing way

The characteristics mentioned above make phrasal verbs suitable for newspaper language and hence their numerosity.

Closely related to phrasal verbs but slightly different is the occurrence of some words in particular environments that can either be termed collocation or prepositional verbs. At the surface they are similar to phrasal verbs but their meaning is more associative than the rigid meaning of phrasal verbs. In headlines sampled, the following cases illustrate this:

- MPs now rail at land-grabbing
- Union election marred by heckling

Some of these forms are in fact derived out of their usage and because they involve an action verb and an adverbial, they are very vigorous in describing an action.

3.1.22 Tense

Tense is a category in the grammar of verb phrase expressing relations of time. In English language, tense is indicated by some slight morphological forms. For example, the past tense is realized by addition to a base form of -(e)d,[t]/d/,[id]/, on majority of verb forms or by vowel change in irregular verbs. The correlation between tense and time is not straight-forward since there are only two tenses in English; but three temporal dimensions - past, present and future.
The use of tense in news headlines is stylistically “marked”. Most headlines below have an overtly marked present tense form:

- Kuria threatens to call in police
- Erickson snatches lead
- Moi raises sh. 8 m for church
- Mbithi refuses Moi’s job offer
- Moi names head of EA secretariat
- Moi reveals boycott plan
- Kamotho invites Shikuku
- Makinon wins safari rally
- Bishop Ndingi attends security meeting

All the verbs in the above headlines have their verbal element in the present tense as marked by S/. However, they all have a past tense reference, that is, past tense is implied in all of them. The use of this tense gives the news story a sense of “immediacy” or what English (1968) terms a “today angle” to make past events interesting. This kind of tense use is called “historic present” and it’s aim is to create a more dramatic or immediate effect and hence enhances interest in readers.

Future tense reference in news headlines is conventional. The infinite is used to mark a future tense reference in place of modal auxiliary like “will” or “shall” which occur infrequently. This is demonstrated in the following examples:

- Pressmen asked to be factual
- man to hang for violent robbery
- Moi to flag off the safari rally cars
- Envoy to UN now to head Arusha office

The future tense reference is not commonly used in the media, at least not as widespread as the historic present.
3.1.23 **Sentence typology**

Sentence typology and structure falls under the grammar of syntax. The sentence is a very common term in grammar, but is not easily defined. However, it is usually taken as the largest unit of grammatical analysis: the others being clause, phrase, word and morpheme. It is usually distinguished from the clause because they both contain a subject and a predicate. But unlike clauses, sentences can stand on their own as independent units. Traditionally therefore, sentences are said to contain “a complete thought” or “a distinct proposition” [Wales, 1989:418]. Sentences may also contain more than one clause; either one or more subordinate clause (hence a complex declarative sentence) or a co-ordinate clause (hence compound sentence) or both (mixed sentences).

From the foregoing a complete sentence therefore has a subject and a predicate. Predicate refers to a major constituent of the sentence other than the subject and in English is realized by a verb(phrase) with or without a following object and other elements such as an adverbial. Thus our analysis of sentence structures consists of the subject (S), a predicate (P), an optional complement (C) and an adverbial (A) and our analysis follows this structure.

A number of headlines in our data fall under what is termed a simple sentence structure. That is a sentence that has a single main clause or containing a subject and predicate. The following examples illustrate this point:

- World champ/ hits girl
- Party branch/ kicks out Kirwa
- Record Sh 2b hashish /seized
- Holiday-makers / stranded
- Company/ sacks striking worker
- robbers / escape with cash
- Five/ are charged

This SP(C) structure is occasionally reversed to allow a CPS structure although this is not very common.
The use of punctuation in news headlines is our next item of study. The special usage is most noticeable in the absence of the period as the visual mark that formally indicates "completeness" of thought" in the sense of a sentence. Based on our data, headlines waived the use of the period although expressing a complete proposition. The following headlines illustrate this:

- Envoy to UN now to head Arusha office
- Praise and barbs for parties leaders
- Wako orders fresh Julie Ward probe
- Minister says former PS was arrogant
- Aids drug not a miracle cure
- UK imposes visa rule on Kenyans
- Kuria picked as Ford-K umpire
- Makinen wins safari rally
- Bishop Ndingi attends security meeting
- Three thugs carrying bullets vests arrested

N.B. see section 3.1.1 for more on punctuation but from graphemics point of view.

Another unusual usage common in headlines is where sentences are "incomplete" or elliptical. This is the omission of part of an utterance or grammatical structure, which can be readily understood in the context [Wales, 1989:138-9]. The elements that are omitted usually are grammatical categories like articles, auxiliaries etc. Examples include:

- Opposition parties dying - Kamotho
- Matiba alliance illegal - Kibaki
- Kibaki, Shikuku deadwood, says wa Nyoike
- Matiba threat cheap - Kibaki

These four headlines omit the auxiliary verbs 'are", "is", "are", and "is" respectively. Also omitted are conjunctions like "and" but which are replaced by use of the comma. Some examples here include:

- Matiba, Raila meet key envoys
- Mbithi moved, Dalmas sacked
- Now Matiba vows Asians, Whites must go
Another rarely used or omitted formal feature of grammar is the determiner but which may here be subsumed under articles. However, the sense of number is never lost even when omitted.

Elided or ellipted elements usually constitute given information or may be redundant in context hence elision is used to focus on new or more important information. As Wales (1989:139) notes, use of ellipses does give an illusion or suggestion of quick succession of thought, action etc. an important feature in headlines.

From our examples on ellipses, another feature of punctuation that is commonly used is the use of the dash. In newspaper headlines, it is regularly used in place of such verbs as say, vows, said, declared etc. For instance, of the 4 headlines earlier cited as examples, of ellipted sentences, only one overtly uses the verb “says” but which is implied whenever the dash occurs. In this sense also, the dash may be seen as replacing an omitted verb (ellipses) that attributes a statement to an overt agent. It therefore, may be seen both as a case of ellipses or of special use of the dash punctuation mark.

A third interpretation of the use of the dash has to do with tense. It is mostly used in place of explicitly marked present tense forms like vows, says etc. This is closely related to what we earlier discussed under tense modification concerning the tendency of headlines to have a “today” perspective. This aspect is reinforced by the common practice of having headlines in direct speech that is then attributed to some source by use of means like the dash, an overt lexical verb etc. The following examples illustrate this pattern:

- I will fight expulsion move, vows Kirwa
- DP is dying, says Ngengi
- Now Matiba vows, Asians, Whites must go
- Shikuku not in Ford A ___ Matiba
- I have no aids cure, says Obel
- Matiba threat cheap ___ Kibaki
- Opposition parties dying ___ Kamotho
- Uk imposes visa rule on Kenyans

‘Bogus refugees to blame’
The use of direct quotations is also worth noting. Headlines that are verbatim comments are usually not enclosed in quotation marks as in conventional grammar. In a few cases however, direct quotation marks are used - here, the practice again is to use a single, rather than double quotation marks. An important observation on the usage of quotations from our samples is that they serve two functions. First, they are used to mark off a direct statement or utterance whose source is not overtly indicated as in:

- "Bogus refugees to blame"
- Aids drug 'not a miracle cure'

A second function of quotation is to highlight some aspect in the headline. In the following two examples, it seems to serve as an emphasis focus:

- New anti-aids drug - 'Pearl Omega'
- Aids drug 'not a miracle cure'
- Police release rape suspect after 'deal'

Thus in this way quotations are used to draw and focus attention on particular aspects of headlines. Some scholars [viz Crystal and Davy 1969] suggest that use of quotations gives a sense of immediacy to story thereby adding extra interest and variety. In addition, they go ahead to argue that this creates great impression of what they term "verisimilitude" - a likeness to truth by taking one into confidence.

3.1.3 The Global structure of News-reports

We use the above title to try and capture the oneness of a news reports as a body with a head and other parts to it. Indeed we find the term well representative of the "wholistic" nature of a new report in the sense of a biological function - that is, where each part contributes to a single entity's overall character.
This notion has been referred to as the “macrostructure” by Mzee (1980) who, like us, also borrowed the term from Van Dijk (1977). The basic sense of these terms is that they refer to different kinds of formal and semantic structure of whole texts or discourses.

On the structure of news-reporting, it is a common practice among both journalists and linguists to liken the global structure of news-reporting to a pyramid. This pyramid metaphor explains the base as consisting of the headline and the first paragraph, as the subsequent paragraphs “thin out” towards the tip. This invented pyramid is the journalistic interpretation of the pyramid metaphor and which differs from linguists like Mzee (1980) who sees the apex of the pyramid as the headline and the introductory paragraphs, so that the subsequent paragraphs build up a more detailed base of the pyramid. This difference in interpretation of the pyramid metaphor is neither correct or incorrect because for us it really depends on the perspective one is using. That is, from the point of view of news gathering or processing, the structure is more inclined to be like that of Mzee (1980), while from a news presentation perspective the structure follows the journalistic interpretation!

Because in this study we are concerned with presentation of news-reports, we will endeavour to describe it as it is and do not wish to take sides in this issue.

3.1.31 The first paragraph

The first paragraph of news report is also called the “lead” or “intro” and it is considered very important. This importance at a graphetic level is underscored by the fact that it is usually set in bold typeface. The typeface size is bolder than that used in the subsequent paragraphs. It therefore serves as an attention getting device in a similar manner as that of headlines. Of all the main news-stories of both Kenya Times and Daily Nation this pattern emerged.

The second aspect that marks the importance of this introductory paragraph is the fact that it summarizes the whole news story. That is, it summarizes the main points of a story. Indeed, most headlines are written from or are based on this introductory paragraph.
While showing the proper relationship between facts of the story, the lead paragraph is also meant to add vigour and vitality to the news story.

In the sample extracts, the first paragraph demonstrates this correlation. The texts are taken from both the Kenya Times and Daily Nation and are in Appendix one attached to this work.

However, there are other patterns that are followed in the news stories. Some different systems may start with a quotation from the direct speech of someone, or may describe the circumstances before the main lead in what is sometimes referred to as the delayed lead. These other patterns are however, not very widespread in usage.

3.1.32 The Second Paragraph

Mzee (1980) has identified two reasons which he says make the second paragraph important for newspaper identification in kiswahili:

a) that it begins with a subordinate clause in most cases
b) that it spells the circumstances during which information in the introductory paragraph was made.

Of the two elements, only the second one seems to be prevalent in our data of news-stories. In fact, out of the 4 samples texts cited, this is demonstrated. However, this seems to bring to mind the traditional techniques of writing commonly used by journalists meant to include as much information in possible in the lead. This is the “Five W’s and an H” formulae. All events, whether in speeches, interviews, activities can be reduced to this formulae:

who where
what why
when how

Thus, the second paragraph seems to answer questions in the right hand column while the first paragraph is tailored for the left hand column. This formulae is the traditional journalistic practice and is mainly preserved for news stories only, especially in the lead.
This is in line with the invented pyramid structure we discussed in section 3.2.0

In general then news stories have the following type of representation:

- Theme X - lead
- More on theme x - body
- Secondary material

In terms of importance of the information available from the formulae, the “who-what-when” elements are considered as the main part of information that constitutes the lead. But even among these, the elements differ in importance as seen in the comments of Evans (1972:85) who says that “the wise reporter...should concentrate the hard news intros (lead) on effects rather than origins, in what happened rather than how, when or where”. The other elements “when-why-how” are important but to a lesser extent and hence mostly occur in the second paragraph. The rest is normally filling in the details of the lead, background to the lead and other information that can be considered “secondary material”.

3.1.33 Sentence typology

To explicate the nature of sentence typology in news-reporting, several criteria will be used. To start with, we attempt a sentence length measure based on orthographic word count. The average sentence length based on our sample data averaged 23 words for Daily Nation and 25 words for Kenya Times. Taking a wholistic approach then, the approximate sentence length is 24 words.

Sentences can also be classified on the basis of their structure features being co-related with their functions or illocutionary force. In this regard, most sentences in news reporting have the structure of subject, predicate with or without a compliment and adverbial. This is what we will refer to as the SP (C) (A) structure. It is mostly used in making statements and is called the declarative sentence type. This type of sentence is the most widespread in use within the sub-variety of news-reporting in the sample texts in the appendix.

Beyond sentences level, we attempt to look at the structure of paragraphs in news-reporting.
The data revealed that for the Daily Nation most paragraphs had an average of between one to two sentences per paragraph. This average and the technique of one-sentence per paragraph seems to be aimed at enhancing readability, and such criteria have been used as one of the distinguishing features of a tabloid newspaper. As for the Kenya Times only two introductory paragraphs had one sentence consistently in the data. On average, paragraph length by sentence count in KT was 1.528 while in Daily Nation it was 1.737. Thus, the average of both papers is 1.6 and this implies a preoccupation with conciseness of information given. That is, since a paragraph contains a single idea or thought, and in newspapers each paragraph is about one-sentence long, it means that a lot of editing and summary of an idea goes into the making of the paragraph.

3.1.3.4 Figures of Speech

In news-reporting a few figures of speech will be normally found. Among these the most frequently used are phrasal verbs which are essentially a combination of a verb and an adverbial particle. As we noted earlier, they mostly derive from verbs of movement and adverbial particles of direction and location. Thus the figurative use of phrasal verbs is here seen as a semantic scheme. The usage of phrasal verbs is widespread in news-reporting whether such use is literal or figurative. They help to add vigour to a news report thereby making it more interesting. In the sample news texts that are appendixed, this will be demonstrated.

3.2.0 Critical Discourse analysis in news reports

3.2.1 Syntactic Transformations and Transitivity analysis

The sub-variety of news-reporting is supposed to be a factual and impartial report of events. Indeed this is the dominant belief held even by some practising journalists who further hold that it is only in the editorial column that a newspaper is expected to express its opinions or even to take sides on issues [Fowler, 1991].

However, our position in critical discourse analysis is as Kress (1990:4) says that “texts are the
result of the actions of socially situated speakers and writers operating with relative degree of possibilities of choice are always within structurings of power or domination.” These meaningful choices especially seen at the level of headlines in newspapers.

To explicate these ideologically significant choices in headlines, we approach them from the syntactic level in what we earlier referred to as “syntactic transformations of the clause”. The conventional sentence structure is the SP(C)(A) which corresponds to an obligatory subject and predicate, and an optional complement and or adverbial. Just as implied in the abbreviation, the subject position is usually reserved for left-most slot of a sentence, followed by the predicate which consists of an obligatory verb (phrase) and an optional object. This type of structure is the most widespread in newspapers:

- UK imposes visa rule on Kenyans
- Okullu launches new lobby group
- Strike paralyses bank operations
- Society rejects Aids drug

Both *Daily Nation* and especially *Kenya Times* make use of SP constructions in their headlines.

However, this structure is often disrupted or re-written in what is referred to as passive transformation. As a syntactic concept, it means that the conventional subject position is occupied by an object while the object position may or may not be occupied by the subject. This type of transformation is also quite prevalent in newspaper headlines - especially in the *DN*. Examples include:

- Mbithi moved, Dalmas sacked
- UK imposes visa role on Kenyans
- “Bogus refugees to blame”
- Opposition chiefs ejected from rally
- Heroin seized, two suspend arrested at airport
- 38 killed during cross border raid
- 38 killed at border raid
- Students killed in horror crash
Lonely Mandela granted divorce
Former mayor gunned down
Three thugs carrying bullet vests arrested

It is usually argued that the active and passive forms share the same propositional meaning except, of course, for differing in syntactic ordering and minor lexical items. Thus, from a purely syntactic point of view, only the position of the elements change; subject interchanging with object (basically the switching of two noun phrases). But this is significant because “subject” is what the sentence is about, and when the “object” occupies the subject position, it becomes what the sentences is above i.e. it is thematized” (Palmer, 1987:86). He goes ahead to define thematization as “the placing of certain noun phrase in subject position for the purpose of prominence”. Hence it (object) becomes what is being talked about.

Opposition chief ejected from rally
38 killed during cross border raid
38 killed at border raid
Three thugs carrying bullets vests arrested
Former mayor gunned down
Heroin seized, two arrested at airport

Of these headlines, both DN and KT have an equal number that we shall discuss shortly.

Editors and journalist commenting on prevalence of passive headlines say that they are used to save space and to immediately establish the topic. Further, the passive are used where agency is immaterial, unknown or predictable from the context. However, this explanation is not usually adequate especially given that active headlines are generally the norm in headlines.

The full importance of passive transformation becomes clear when we apply transitivity analysis. Transitivity in critical discourse analysis and in functional approach to language is a semantic concept involving the ideational function. It analyses passive syntactic transformation from a semantic perspective and in fact, the two are inter-linked closely. Transitivity analysis proceeds from the premise that despite claims of same propositional meanings for active-passive structures, there must be a functional motivation for passivisation. As we have mentioned,
Passivisation focuses attention on the patient, and also allows the subject to be deleted.

These syntactic positions correspond to semantic concepts: agents for subject, patient for object while the predicate is either a process, an action or a state. The changes in focus then are here seen as change of focus on agent (actor) or patient (receiver). The choice that is made is essentially a choice of representation of an event, and this carries with it ideological underpinnings. To illustrate to this we focus on earlier example that re-appears below:

- Opposition chief ejected from rally

This passive construction can be re-written in the active form to read:

- Armed police eject opposition chief from rally, or
- Police eject opposition chief from rally

The active alternatives focus on the police and their action and this would be the basis of the story or representation. That is, the story would be talking about the police and this with a particular emphasis on their action. But by placing “Opposition chiefs” in the subject position, emphasis is on the patient and the representation or story is hence about the opposition chiefs and their predicament. Thus with the choice of focus on either subject (agent) or patient, so does the representation shift. This headline is got from Daily Nation and its main perspective here is to highlight the plight of the 3 leaders. The situation coming soon after they met the President in what the Daily Nation termed a “historic meeting”.

At the meeting, it is reported that the leaders discussed the issue of being allowed to hold political rallies without interference from the administrative wing of the government. The newspaper perhaps doubts the sincerity or commitment to the discussion by the government hence highlighting the opposition leaders predicament.

Similar substitution reveals the underlying ideologies for some of the headlines cited. For instance, below is an example of the passive headline and it’s probable active form:

- Heroin seized, two suspects arrested at airport (passive)
- Police arrest two, seize heroin at airport (active)

This active form would focus on the arresting agent (police, custom officials) and the story might as well focus on their gallantry. However, by choosing the passive form, the focus of representation is the seizure of heroin.
This is ideologically significant both globally and locally especially because Kenya is reputed to be a major drug transit route. This may be the reason the paper chose to highlight the drug seizure.

A third case study would be these two headlines reported in the different papers:

- Former mayor gunned down
- Three thugs carrying bullet vests arrested

The first backgrounds, the agency in sentence because the personality shot is prominent. In a way it focuses on insecurity in the city and country at large by dealing with a specific incidence. The second headline focuses on the thugs’ armed sophistication and it may be geared towards the outcry by citizens on insecurity., both headlines focus on highlighting insecurity and this is ideologically significant in the Kenyan content

3.2.12 **Speech act analysis**

Speech act analysis is also important in explicating ideologies at work in society. These speech acts are common in headlines as the following sample shows:

**Daily Nation:**

- Members reject LSK accounts
- Court says no to Matiba meeting
- Wako orders fresh Julie Ward probe
- UK imposes visa rule on Kenya
- Party branch kicks out Kirwa
- I will fight explosion more, vows Kirwa
- Moi says no to ‘black box’

**Kenya Times:**

- Moi reveals boycott plan
- Now Matiba vows Asian, Whites must go
- President declares war on drugs trafficking
Leaders condemn new lobby group
Kanu HQs warns against lobby group
Moi quashes teachers dismissal
Party branch acts on Kirwa
Council boss lashes at Matiba for racial remark

Here, the agent to whom a speech act is attributed is presented as having the power to accomplish it - what are referee to as felicity conditions and which must be met. In this relation, the speech act reflect the distribution of power among individuals, societal institution etc and which is ideologically significant.

In the headlines taken from Daily Nation prominence is given to such agents as courts of law over an individual, Mr. Wako who is the Attorney General who actually institutes a new probe etc. Individuals depicted as having power include President Moi who names/appoints officers, and halts the ‘black box’ debate both as an individual and as holder of the presidency - although these roles are closely tied. An interesting or ideologically significant speech act here is the following:

I will fight expulsion move, vows Kirwa

Unlike in the general framework in Daily Nation where institutions supersede individuals in terms of power, this speech act seems to place emphasis on the individual over the party. This implies that the “felicity conditions” are such that the individual is capable of putting up a fight. The basis of this position becomes clearer when we consider headlines surrounding the event. Three days before this particular headline (i.e. 2/4/96) it was reported in the headline that: “Party branch kicks out Kirwa” - a euphemism for expulsion. The following day (3/4/96), it was realized that the political party’s manifesto does not have a provision for expelling members and this was reflected in the days headlines:

KANU dilemma over rebel MP
Party cannot expel MP

This realization thus made the MP stand a better fighting chance and this was reflected by the headline under review. In terms of ideological significance, the MP’s position receives most prominence and could point to a challenge or questioning of power from a legal standpoint or that respect for laws or rules should be adhered to.
On the *Kenya Times* headlines, prominent individuals in both their private and public capacities (mostly indistinct) have more power than the less prominent ones. This is also true of the *DN*. But the most vivid cases involve events associated with the President who is portrayed as a very powerful agent who declares, quashes, reveals and other performative verbs that have finality of action against both individuals and groups/institutions. Institutions or groups like KANU Headquarters, their representatives and leaders are powerful since they warn, lash at, sack, act on, condemn etc.

On a general level, institutions, organizations, political parties, prominent individuals, etc are usually given more prominence as having power to influence events as seen in the action verbs that are attributed to them.

**Notes:**

1. Scholars such as Walter, J (1996) argue that there are important differences between information and communication. Information he says is a message transmitted by a code over a channel through a receiving or decoding device to a particular destination. Communication on the other hand, is the exchange of meaning between individuals through a common system of symbols. Thus, information does not itself involve meaning, is transmitted by a mechanical operation and as such is a more primitive, pre-human phenomenon. By contrast, he continues, communication involves conscious human beings or is interactional, a human communication medium is more than a “channel” hence the often quoted ‘the medium is the message’.

Therefore, information is distinct from communication.

However, “although information systems are not of themselves communication systems, they relate intimately to human verbal communication” in at least three ways: First, communication between self-conscious human beings necessarily involves human physiological processes consisting of highly evolved biological information systems in our body. Verbal communication can secondly make such information systems themselves the subject of study and of communication. Finally, human verbal systems can and do consciously create any number of
artificial information systems e.g. those designed for writing, computer etc, which are brought
into being by conscious communication

2. The term “macrostructure” is used to refer to the overall organization of news reports. Mzee
(1980) borrows the term from Van Dijk (1977) who talks of it as representing the global
structure of a text. In this work, we prefer to call the organization of texts in the different sub-
varieties the “global structure” to express the same concept.

3. The term “quasi-linguistic” as used in this work is not intended to diminish the role or study of
graphemics - which constitutes a large part of it - but to capture a more neutral position. This
follows from the controversy surrounding graphemics in which some writers see it as belonging
to the broad area of semiotics which is not confined to Linguistics; others see graphemics as
belonging to the study of orthography and in which case it can be said to be language based.
By choosing the term “quasi-linguistic” then, our intention was also meant to delink other
aspects used in the media such as pictures, graphs, drawings etc. Which clearly don’t have a
linguistic basis when compared with writing systems.

4. The politician referred to is the leader of the opposition party FORD-Asili, and he had said that
all Asians and Whites must pack and go to their homes. The KT, owned by the ruling party
KANU highlighted his utterance as a matter of political suicide? Interestingly, the DN gave the
item a smaller back page coverage titled “Matiba’s dim view of Asians” in which his statements
were reported. This is contrasted with the front page banner headline treatment the same story
received in the KT. This also shows ideological differences in power politics.

5. There are numerous ways of classifying or analysing sentences. Crystal (1991:314) talks of a
functional classification of sentences into statements, questions, commands etc as another type of
a classification. Another classificatory system is in terms declaratives, imperatives, interrogative
sentence types

6. ‘Verisimilitude’ according to the Collins English Dictionary (1991) is the “appearance or
semblance of truth or reality: the quality of seeming truth.” It also means “something that merely
seems to be true or real, such as a doubtful statement”. The essence then is closely related to the felicity conditions required of a speech act especially the sincerity conditions which assumes that the speaker is telling the truth. This aspect is reinforced by use of quotation marks which in addition give a semblance of dialogue in a text.

7. Figurative use of phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions is a semantic scheme especially where the meaning of a phrasal verb is not determined by individual elements that make up the expression. It is semantic because the meaning is learnt like a new word but from association and special usage and hence as MCArthur (1992:772) points out, it is the wholistic and semantic aspect of a verb, not the syntat or morphology that identifies it.

8. On the issue of the President meeting with Opposition leaders, the DN had the following headlines:
   - Rare meeting of Rivals”
   - Moi meets opposition”
   - Praise and barbs for parties’ leaders sharp split over historic meeting”

The DN even had an editorial on it titled “Kanu-opposition dialogue welcome”.
The KT headlined the meeting “Moi talks with Opposition leaders”
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0.0. **Editorial and News-analysis**

These two sub-varieties of newspapers language are addressed in the same chapter here because of their close relationship. In fact, they are often categorized in media studies as part of "interpretive journalism" which in essence is a recent development in the practice of news gathering and dissemination.

Hohenberg (1964:382) traces the beginning of this "journalism of analysis and comment" to the period after the second world war when the majority of American press adapted a new concept of journalistic responsibility which was more universal in its approach to public service. He writes:

> Basically, it seeks to explain as well as inform. It dares to evaluate, to measure, to teach. By and large, the methods are an adaptation of some of the more practical techniques of mass communication. These are intended to produce a broader interpretation of the news of politics and government at all levels and more accurate ways of evaluating public opinion. [ibid:382]

Commenting further on the aims of this kind of journalism, Hoherberg says that advocates of this more complex approach to the telling of news seek to improve the newspaper first, while hoping that the other media will emulate them and thereby create a better informed electorate and better government.

However, not all newspapers accept the broadened responsibility for interpretation and research in public affairs and attitudes. Reasons for this situation are diverse and outside the
scope of this study. What is of immediate relevance here is the observation that the functions of interpretation and analysis are "in the broadest sense...extensions of the editorial rather than the news-reporting branches of journalism" [ibid: 382]. The term editorial as use in the quotation above is in the sense of expressing an opinion of the editor or the publishers.

4.1.0 Editorials

To arrive at an understanding of what the editorial is, we need to observe that it has to do with 'editing', which is partly a back-formation from 'editor' and it means to supervise or direct the preparation of text in newspapers or other periodicals, manuscripts etc. that are intended for publication as books, academic papers etc...[McArthur 1992:337] An editor then, is a person with organizational and often managerial and policy making responsibilities for a publications since, as McArthur (1992: 373) goes ahead to observe, editing is a multi-task activity which includes:

a) considering the most appropriate and effective layouts and graphics for the purpose in mind  
b) preparing and, or planning supporting texts of various kinds in newspapers or other periodicals including editorial comment, lead-ins to articles, blurbs etc as necessary

An editorial therefore can have several senses but the sense in which it is used here is as expressed in the Collins English Dictionary 3rd ed. (1991) where it is defined as "a noun referring to an article in a newspaper expressing the opinion of the editor or the publishers". Such an article is distinct from others that may deal with news reporting, features etc. and it is usually printed in the same position on the same page of every issue of the newspaper. This partly reflects the significance of editorials in newspapers.

According to Hohenberg (1969:467), the significance of editorials is also based on the assumption that the journalist is the watchdog of the public interest in what he terms "public service journalism". Thus, the emphasis on editorials in most newspapers is due in large part to the expansion of public service journalism whose canon holds that an editorial opinion must meet several essential core aspect if the editorial is to serve the public effectively:

i) It should be something more than the voice of the proprietor, the vehicle for promoting
his own interests and prejudices and those of the leading editors

ii) It should be a marketplace of ideas and not a bag of columns intended to please all segments of the audience.

iii) No matter what parties are represented in a debate on any given issue, the point of view of the news organization must be made unmistakably clear [ibid:472]

The significance of editorials here is based not on the quantity of the readership survey measurements in which it is customarily ranked low-but on the quality of those who read the editorial. Hohenberg (1969) argues that those who read the editorial page are primarily leaders and are the ones most likely to be influenced by the editorials and hence have an impact on the decision-making process.

Editorial functions are many, but some writers such as English (1950:117) suggest that three main functions may be isolated. Indeed, these three functions are sometimes used as criteria for classifying editorials and they are: interpretation, criticism and appreciation. An editorial of criticism points out the good or bad features of a situation mentioned in the news and tells what should be done about it. An editorial of interpretation explains the significance of news events and situations and it suggests the consequences of various courses of action. Finally, an editorial of appreciation mainly commends or pays tribute to a person or organization that has performed successfully.

In all the above editorial functions, two factors emerge: First, that all editorials involve some form of interpretation and secondly, that they all try to influence the reader to a particular stance in any given issue. The latter point is recognized by Hohenberg (1969:386) who not only sees it as a feature of editorials but also as the main defining characteristic as seen in his position that ... the province of the editorial ... is to urge a course of action upon the reader.

Usually, editorials are based on news events or situations that the publishers consider important in society at any particular moment in time. Thus, editorials have immediate relevance and impact in public affairs issues. This 'public service' aspect of journalism has become central to the identity of a newspaper where it is almost compulsory requirement.
4.1.1 Linguistic features of Editorial Headlines

In addition to the linguistic features discussed below, there are some quasi-linguistic features which form an important component of headlines in editorials. Like in news-reporting, headlines here are set in bold type that is bigger in size as compared to the type used in the body of editorials. This graphetic highlighting is aimed at getting the attention of the potential reader. Most editorial headline are usually a line or two across the editorial column.

4.1.12 Lexical categories

A common characteristic of editorial headlines is that they habitually comprise of modal auxiliary verbs in their structure. This prevalence is explained by the fact that editorials express opinions on topical issues affecting society and because of the 'public service' cannon that we mentioned, they necessarily express the desirability or otherwise of particular courses of action in the conduct of public affairs. As a result, and as it will be demonstrated in the examples below, modal auxiliaries expressing desirability of something, obligation, and possibility etc are the most widespread:

♦ The govt. had to save sugarcane farmer’s stakes
♦ Terrorism mustn’t derail ME talks
♦ KFF must act now to save women’s soccer
♦ Why tea industry must be sustained
♦ Fight against poverty must be intensified
♦ Ndingi, Mungai should substantiate claims
♦ Burundi should welcome Nyerere
♦ Such conduct can only harm them
♦ Newlook KCC can still return to profit
♦ Kenyans must stay on road to reforms
♦ The anti - narcotics war must be won
♦ Self - serving laws we should not enact

Closely related to the use of modals is the polite, almost euphemistic subtle nature of headlines. That is, headlines here 'carefully' express their opinions by use of modals, passive verb forms and choice of non-offensive terms especially in matters of a delicate nature.
Contrastively, there are some headlines which brook no politeness by expressing their opinions forcefully.

These do not carry the caution of modal auxiliaries but rather actively state particular position in relation to some issue as in the following examples:

♦  It's all systems go for regional unity
♦  Many questions in Obel’s aids claim
♦  Time to streamline Varsity loan Scheme
♦  Rationalise rates charged on loans
♦  Ford-K violence a shame
♦  Security in Molo a grave matter
♦  Wamalwa and Raila hurting economy
♦  Professional boxers exploited and neglected
♦  Poverty the biggest challenge ahead
♦  Time most ideal for local industries

Thus, in terms of expressing strong opinions, both DN and KT do it in their respective editorial headlines - we are here not referring to the types of opinions expressed.

4.1.13 Tense

The usage of tense in editorial headlines is such that most of them have a future reference although they are normally about news events that have already happened. This may be a pointer to their nature of having a long-term perspective of present or past issues, what Hohenberg (1969:386) terms to “urge a course of action” in relation to some situation or event.

The future reference in headlines is normally marked semantically by the frequent use of a category of modal auxiliary verbs and the occasional infinitive form of verb or even the absence of a grammatically marked past tense. Examples of the use of modals and of infinitives for tense reference include:

♦  Ndingi, Mungai should substantiate claims
♦  Burundi should welcome Nyerere
♦  Such conduct can only harm them
♦  Newlook KCC can still return to profit
♦  Time to streamline varsity loan scheme
Some headlines, as we have mentioned are marked by the absence of an overtly marked past tense. This statement can be interpreted in two ways; first, that some headlines in editorials do not have an overt verb. Such kinds of headlines are referred to as ‘labels’ in journalistic parlance and are avoided especially in the sub-variety of news-reporting. But in editorials, these ‘label’ headlines are numerous:

- The ethnic issue and the nation’s cohesion
- Time most ideal for local investors
- Poverty the biggest challenge ahead
- The same old story at Maendeleo Camp
- Of leadership and exemplary conduct
- Of Cynics, Pearl Omega and Aids

These type of headlines in editorials point to the fact that editorials are in nature expository essays, which are based on some topical issue in society. As such, they do not obligatorily require a verb in the headline to set out what the topic of the editorial is all about. Hence, however the topic is stated or presented, the essential feature of the editorial is what Hohenberg (1969:386) calls the “crusading” role that editorials serve. The implication here is that editorials campaign in favour of certain courses of action and as such the tense used is immaterial to the purposes of the editorial - for they are future-oriented.

Thus, even where the tense is overtly marked as past tense, the significance of the editorial headline is interpreted in the future perspective. Ultimately, this is explained by reference to the interpretive nature of editorials which inherently involves some degree of prediction and speculation based on past events. As such, a future - time - frame is implied even where the past tense is overtly stated as in the following examples:

- The govt. **had to** save cane farmer’s stakes
- Blame it on bad laws
- Pearl Omega: issues critics **ignored**
- Ford - K: why **did they** get it wrong?
4.1.14 Figures of speech

The extent of the use of figures of speech and other “literary” techniques is so widespread that no justice can be done in trying to describe them in this work. Besides, these figures of speech are also influenced by such variables as the subject of the editorial, scale of the subjects’ relevance to society, area (profession) of the subject, etc. Such considerations have influenced our decision to treat this subject more exhaustively in the appendix while we briefly look at the more general usages that abound in editorial headlines.

The first figure of speech that we address is the prevalent use of idiomatic expressions in editorial headlines. These are expressions unique to a language, especially those whose sense cannot be predicted from the meanings and arrangements of its elements [McArthur, 1992:497]. Examples of such usage include:

♦ Players getting raw deal in sports
♦ It’s all systems go for regional unity
♦ Have the poor come to grips with liberalization?
♦ Mwendwa has taken the bull by the horns
♦ Land issue should not get out of hand
♦ Sadists who act in the name of justice
♦ The same old story at Mandera camp

The editorial headlines also make extensive use of metaphors as is illustrated in the following headlines:

♦ Terrorism must not derail ME talks
♦ Kenyans must stay on road to reforms
♦ Newlook KCC can still return to reason
♦ Fight against poverty must be intensified
♦ The anti-narcotics war must be won
The first example above likens the Middle East peace talk to a railway line so that the effects of terrorists' attack is likened to a derailment with the inevitable disasters as occurs with trains. The metaphor used in the second likens the process to a good direction that must lead to positive results. The image/metaphor of direction is also echoed in the next two examples which use the image of the road or journey. The editorial likens reforms process to a road that has to be travelled for “us” to reach our destination: the same way KCC which had been “mis-directed” to the wrong road must now ‘return’ to the right road of profitability. Of course, we are here using ‘return’ as an antonym of ‘go’ to liken it to the road metaphor.

The next two metaphors liken alleviation of poverty and the anti-narcotics crusade respectively to a war. This metaphor captures both the seriousness and passion that is involved in tackling the problem of poverty and drug abuse. It helps enforce the “enemy” image necessary for such sore areas of society as drug-abuse and poverty that everyone aims to eliminate.

Phonological schemes are also routinely used in editorial headlines. Here, one may isolate rhyming schemes that appear deliberate in recurrence and prevalence. These in include:

- The government had to save sugarcane farmer’s stakes
- KFF must act now to save women’s soccer
- Such conduct can only harm them
- Kenyans must stay on road to reforms
- Self serving laws we should not enact
- Professional boxers exploited and neglected
- Rationalise rates charged on loans
- Why the unfeeling dicing with death

These alliterating schemes may not be very striking but they appear to represent a common in editorial headlines. Indeed, like the next category that we looked at, they help or assist in memory so that they are easily remembered. This function seems to be shared by the use of puns in editorial headlines. We isolated two types of puns; the first which makes use of patterns and which is actually not very different from rhyming patterns mentioned in the alliteration above.
The second type of puns found in headlines is based on the “sense” relations of the punning words as in the following examples:

- Many question in Obel’s claim
- Security in Molo, a grave matter
- This economic upswing a sign of real take-off

The punning in the first example involves the meaning of ‘claim’ as in to “assert as a fact or maintain against denial” as juxtaposed with the meaning of ‘question’ in the sense of “being questionable”. This punning casts an unfavourable attitude to the subject under discussion. The second example puns ‘security’ in the sense of safety as against ‘grave’ in the sense of “a place for burial of a corpse” which is a result of ‘death’ - itself a sign of human insecurity. This particular punning captures the sensitivity of the subject under discussion in a subtle and artistic manner. One arrives at comprehension by association of the meanings of the words in the puns. The last example puns ‘economic upswing’ with ‘real take off’ - the latter is used in the sense of a stage in the economic development of a country when rapid and sustained economic growth is achieved. This association helps bolster the argument that the economic front is doing well and hence adds punch to the editorial message.


4.1.15 Sentence typology

The typology of sentences used in editorial headlines will be analysed from the syntactic structure types. First, the headlines in editorials are usually the simple sentences that have a subject (S), a predicate (P) and a complement (C) or Adverbial (A) that is optional, as in the following examples:

- Terrorism/mustn’t derail/ME talk
- Ndingi,Mungai/should substantiate/claims
- The anti-narcotics war/must be won
- The library service/must be propped up
These are conventional sentences structures that are declarative and hence characteristic of statements. They are by far the most commonly used types of structures in editorial headlines.

However, a second popular structure of editorial headlines is where the headline is in form of a question. These questions may be marked by an avert lexical item with or without an accompanying question mark:

- Why the unfeeling dicing with death
- Have the poor come to grips with liberalization?
- Ford-K: Why did they get it wrong?

These are imperative sentences structure and they begin with an auxiliary verb. As we shall see later the use of rhetorical questions is quite widespread in the body of editorial writing as opposed to use at headline level.

A similar structure to the one above occurs when editorial headlines occasionally reverse the SPC structure to PS(C)(A):

- Rationalise/rates charged on loans  PS
- Challenge/to drama festivals organizers  PS
- Upsurge in/drug abuse/worrying  PSA
- Talk and act tough/too/on malpractices  PAS
- Tackle/Mombasa’s water crisis/now  PSA

4.1.2 The Global structure of editorials

Just as in news-reporting, headlines in editorials are closely linked to the structure and content of the main text. Indeed, the headlines serve a cohesive function in the main texts - especially when the headlines are labels-partly because editorials are in essence expositions. That is, they are usually systematic statements about, commentaries on or explanations of a news event or situation [Collins English Diction] 3rd ed. 1991].
As such, the proposition of the headline is usually borne out by the body of information contained in the editorial text.

4.1.21: Quasi-linguistic features

The editorial column is printed in uniform type size distinct from the headline which is graphically highlighted. This partly reflects the fact that no part of the editorial is considered more important than the other (unlike in news-reporting). It also may suggest that the structure of editorials is unlike that of news-reporting, as we will see. Moreover, this uniformity is also a pointer to the fact that editorials appeal to a readership which is fairly informed or educated and whose concentration span can be sustained throughout the column. That is, they do not need elaborate typographical variety to help them make it through the texts.

Another aspect of graphetic importance in editorials is the layout design of editorial columns. The columns size of the editorial is usually bigger than that of news-report, news-analysis, features etc. In our data, the column size of editorials in the DN was 8-9 cm while in KT it was 8-9 cm wide. These measures may be contrasted with 4-6 cm and 4-7 cm of news-reports columns in the DN and KT respectively. The most common measure for editorial is 8 cm and 4 cm for news-report and this shows that the editorial column size in both KT and DN is graphically distinct and actually stands out among other sections of newspapers in terms of layout and is in this way highlighted.

In both the Kenya Times and Daily Nation, their respective logotypes, (or logo) appears printed as part of the overall graphetic design of the editorial column. In fact, this is the only place within the newspaper pages that the logo appear in full apart from the front page. However, the only difference here is that in the DN the slogan that accompanies the logo is omitted while it is present in the KT. It is interesting to note that both slogans claim to be dedicated to a patriotic cause as seen in the slogans as they appear here;

- Kenya Times: In the service of the people
- Daily Nation: the newspaper that serves the nation
In the DN, the date of the publication is also included as part of the editorial design. The other important difference of note is that the KT habitually contains one long editorial essay whereas the DN normally carries two essays that are shorter.

These differences in design and habits may not necessarily mean what we propose because like in many other differences between both newspapers, it may simply be a case of in-house style. However, where the DN prefers two editorial essays to KT's one, it may reflect that the former is more enthusiastic in the "public service journalism" role of the editorials or that it tries to make comments on important issues more often than is possible in one essay. On the presence of the logo in full in KT it may imply that the source of the editorial voice expresses the opinion that it does in the best interest of the people. As for the DN the omission of the slogan does not necessarily make it more objective although it gives that impression by backgrounding the slogan. But whatever the motivation for the choice this really is a mute point.

What is of significance is that the editorial comment is usually printed on the same page of every newspaper each and every day. This consistency together with that of layout and type uniformity has led some scholars, such as Fowler (1991: 208) to remark that by this very aspect, textual symbolism is foregrounded. It symbolically suggests choice of non-offensive terms especially in matters of a delicate nature. Contrastively, there and choice of non-offensive terms especially in matters of a delicate nature. Contrastively, there is its unwavering commitment to and consistency of opinion in the interest of the nation in any issue discussed in the text.

4.1.22 Organizational structure

As we mentioned when dealing with graphetics, no part of the editorial is considered to be most important than the other. This means that the structure of editorials does not follow the inverted pyramid tradition of news-reports. Instead, editorials do vary widely in both organization and style because by their very nature they reflect the idiosyncrasy of the writer of the editorial and the particular newspaper's style. However, in spite of all the variables, certain aspects are common in editorials.
First, in the structure of most editorials, they do have an introductory paragraph or statement which announces the subject of the editorial. This is what Hohenberg (1964:474) calls the “news peg” which serves to introduce the subject under review and which is developed in the body of the text. A few examples will suffice:

- What is going on in Narok District? It is the *Nation* which is telling Kenyans that there are two groups of Maasai that are daring each other to a fight, that they have pitched tent at different ends of a disputed area and are rather like waiting for a signal that will herald the start of an armed conflict. [*DN*, March 1, 1996, Editorial titled: “War-mongering in Narok is absurd”]

- After months of prevarication and downright waffling, Kenya on Friday named Mr. Francis Muthaura to head the Arusha-based East African regional co-operation secretariat. That within hours of Prof. Philip Mbithi’s refusal to take up the appointment a replacement had been identified shows the seriousness with which the Government views this matter. [*DN*, March 2, 1996, Editorial titled: “It’s all systems go for regional unity”]

- From today, over 5500 students from secondary, primary and teacher training college, assemble at Lenana High School for this year’s Kenya schools and colleges drama festivals [*KT*, April 4, 1996, Editorial titled: “Challenge to drama festival organizes”]

- While delivering an Easter mass at Christ the King church in Nakuru on Sunday, dashing Catholic Bishop Ndingi Mwana’a Nzeki reportedly told his faithful of a looming resurgence of tribal skirmishes in Rift Valley. [*KT*, April 10, 1996, Editorial titled: “Ndingi, Mungai should substantiate claim”]

In all these extracts, the “news peg” happens to be the first paragraph in the editorial. This shows a pattern which naturally occurred in that the introductory paragraph usually starts the essay. In the example of *KT*, April 10th 1996, there are two news pegs in that the second one which is on “Mungai” as mentioned in the headline appears in the ninth paragraph of the body of the text. However, it still serves to introduce his claims and it goes:

- It is also interesting that garrulous Molo legislator, Njenga Mungai was in a mission similar to Ndingi in an opposition campaign rally in Gatundu where while shedding
crocodile tears chose to exploit the raid to incite members of the Kikuyu community against their Kalenjin brothers and sisters. He claimed there were tribal flare-ups in Londiani, Molo and Elburgon and that police were being subjective with the aim of pandering to the whims of KANU barons. [KT April 10, 1996, Editorial titled, “Ndingi, Mungai should substantiate claims.”]

After the introduction, the text develops its argument by presenting facts in forceful and persuasive ways. The facts are logically structured to convince the readers as is the use of such pronouns as ‘we’, “our” “everybody” etc in the consensual sense. Of note here is that in the body of the editorial a brief summary of the background to the subject will be provided so as to make the text comprehensible to all readers. The arguments normally follow a chronological order although the particular styles used are as varied as the topics under review. As mentioned earlier, such aspects can only be demonstrated by analysis of particular texts and this we have done in the appendix. However, an important technique used is developing arguments here is that editorial writers consider what arguments are likely to be used to counter their position which they raise in the editorial for purposes of countering them in advance.

Finally, editorials normally have a conclusion which mostly ends on a high note. That is, most editorials end forcefully with a warning, a note of condemnation or sympathy, a note of caution etc. This is usually seen as a concluding remark of the argument developed in the editorial. The following illustrations illustrate this:

♦ The issue right now is that it (bullying) appears to be getting out of hand because we have complaints about students killing others. That, and the related issue of use and abuse of drugs, is the point of departure. We do not have to tell Mr. Kamotho and Mr. Obumba that human life is not something to trifle with [SN, March 10, 1996, Editorial titled: “Waffling about bullying won’t do”]

♦ If bishop Ndingi and the Molo legislator had sincere desires to see that fellow Kenyans do not turn against one another, they must surrender any information they have to the police or the administration. Turning to uttering highly sulphurous, reckless and clumsy public statements will not do.
In the meantime, we hope the Rift Valley provincial security team will treat their loose tongues with the gravity that they deserve. [KT, April 10, 1996, Editorial titled: "Ndungi, Mungai should substantiate claims] 

Editorial therefore have a structure consisting of an introduction, a body in which facts are developed and a conclusion.

4.1.23 Sentence typology

Sentences typology based on orthographic word count shows that the average sentence length of editorials was 22.38 for DN and 25.572 for KT. This may be explained by the tendency of the DN to have two editorial essays in a single day as opposed to KT's one essay on the whole column. As a result, the latter is given to longer constructions while the former may be forced to compress their sentence structures due to constrains of space. However, the combined common average length of sentences here is 24 words.

Secondly, sentences types in terms of construction structures shows the SPCA type as the most dominant. This is the declarative sentence although normally there are a few imperative sentence structure. This latter is normally reflection of the fact that editorials commonly use rhetorical questions and other question types as a way of developing an argument.

At the level of paragraph, the average sentence count per paragraph normally fluctuates from 1.75 especially in the DN to upto 2.99 sentences in KT). Again, here the constraint of space and the in-house newspaper style seem responsible for the differences. The combined average is 2.37 sentences per paragraph for both newspapers.

4.1.24 Figures of Speech

Due to the widespread use of figures of speech in editorials, it would not be representative to just mention them or cite there occurrence in abstract statistical computation.
As such, we will treat them comprehensively in the sample texts of editorials appendixed to this work. As mentioned earlier, this, we believe, is a better approach which also recognizes that the use of figures of speech in editorials and other sections does not have a one-to-one relationship with any instantiation of an editorial. As such, it can instead be better demonstrated in particular texts.

4.1.3 **Critical discourse analysis of Editorial**

In critical discourse analysis. The subvariety of editorials is held to be very important and not only because of offering values and beliefs, but also because of the textual strategies which foreground the speech act of offering values and beliefs. In fact, the latter aspect of textual strategies are considered more central in critical discourse analysis than the actual values and beliefs advocated in particular editorial essays because they are more representative of newspaper discourse.

However, before looking at these strategies employed in editorials, two observations are in order. First, and as mentioned earlier, the consistency of the editorial essay appearing daily on a specified page and in an unvarying design tends to foreground the essay. The prominence so attained makes editorials be set apart as deliberate and considered opinions that merit more than a casual treatment.

Secondly, the fact that editorials claim to speak the newspaper's point of view implies, as Fowler (1991:208) observes, that "in the same vein....others sections are 'report' or 'fact'. As such, this is a misnomer as was demonstrated in Chapter 3 on news reporting.

In the analysis of editorials under critical linguistics, three discourse participants are addressed as follows: the source, the addressee, and the referents. This categorization roughly corresponds to the 'I', the 'you' and the 'he/she/it' of discourse.
4.1.31 The source

This is the addresser, the first person and this source is characteristically more prominent in editorials than in news reports. In most cases, the source is either marked by the pronoun “we” to refer to the particular newspaper or by the actual name of the newspaper, e.g. the Kenya Times or the Daily Nation etc.

Of importance in critical linguistics is the modality used in editorial, which mostly has the insistence of a speaker who has assumed a position of authority. This includes the claim to know what is inevitably going to happen. In this respect then, the most common modal auxiliaries in editorials is “must” “should” which implicitly claims that the source has the right to specify the obligations of others to a cause.

An example of such usage would include editorial headlined “Ndingi, Mungai should substantiate claims”. From the headline, the modal auxiliary “should” means specifying an obligation put by the editorial voice to the subject of the headline. This implies that the editorial voice has authority to specify what others are obliged to do. Further down the essay use of similar modality is present in which the position of authority is more forcefully put, and emphasized by repetition:

◆ These are extremely serious statements not because they come from a man of God, but due to their ramifications in security terms. If Bishop Ndingi has concrete evident that danger looms large in parts of the province, and Nakuru in particular, he must be compelled to surrender it to either the police or the provincial administration ... If Bishop Ndingi and the Molo legislator had sincere desires to see that fellow Kenyans do not turn against one another, they must surrender any information they have to the police or the administration. [KT, April, 1996 Editorial titled: “Ndingi, Mungai should substantiate claims].
In addition, ethical vocabulary is habitually used thereby giving the source a position of moral high ground and therefore authority. On the use of ethical vocabulary, the editorial titled “Terrorism mustn’t derail ME talks” appearing in the appendix uses quite a number in relation to the bombing. A sampling includes:

♦ senseless acts of human slaughter.
♦ offer to blow their lives for bizarre course .. are lunatic and demonic
♦ Logic and common sense fail miserably to explain ... the infantile decisions of people
♦ Satanic campaign
♦ It is fallacious and short-sighted...
♦ a small group of callous and shadowy groups.

The above ethical vocabulary is in the same vein evaluative, the latter being a characteristic of editorials and both suggesting a position of authority—both morally and in terms of decision-making.

The speech act of offering values and therefore authority is also foregrounded by the use of statements or descriptive propositions that are supposedly true of any instance of the entities to which they refer. Fowler (1991:211) terms these descriptive statements as “generic statements” because they claim to be true of all occasions. A few examples here include:

♦ The secretary of the Higher Education Loans Board, Prof. Chacha-Nyaigoti Chacha, and the Kenyatta University Vice-Chancellor, Prof. George Eshiwani, seem to have forgotten the cardinal rule of collective responsibility which forbids them to wash their dirty linen in public ... when two bulls fight it is the grass that suffers .. [Daily Nation Editorial, 12th March 1996]

Generic statements are inherently authoritarian as they claim total and definitive knowledge of some topic. Such an attitude does not encourage enquiry into the proposition made but rather ‘closes off' enquiry by implying that all there is to know has been stated.

The third aspect concerning the source and which reflects the unequal power structure has to do with the argumentative nature of editorials. Argumentation is seen in two senses: first in the logical and, or narrative structure of the editorial essay which is normally highlighted by textual
'signposts' which indicate sequence, time connectors, logical elements etc. From a critical perspective, the editorial writer has the power to choose not only what to write on but also the structure to adopt and sequence of events to follow. This position of authority is further reinforced by the all-knowing posture adopted in editorials regardless of the subject matter.

The second sense of argumentation in editorials is reflected by the common strategy of the editorial voice adapting or striking a position of rebuttal in relation to other people’s ideas. Often, such arguments are dramatized by use of dialogic devices such as rhetorical questions whose import is to weaken/destroy the counter argument to the editorial position. Instances of this include:

◆ The disregard with which Opposition figures seem to have for the law is matched only by the depth of confusion they are exhibiting... *may be to the sticklers of law and its niceties*, an order is not effective until it is served on the person against whom it is given... which means they can get away with an excuse that they have not received it. However, such... may be useful to those who want to avoid the law, *but they have a devastating effect on principles* .... [DN, March 12, 1996, Editorial titled “such conduct can only harm them”].

This strategy enables or appears to portray the editorial column - here, representing the newspaper’s position - as having considered views of a disparate nature and coming up with the ‘best’ position.

4.1.32 **The Addressee**

In newspapers, the addressee is usually the reader, who is a discourse participant occasionally referred to or addressed as ‘you’. The editorial voice constructs a dual link or relationship with the addressee which in both cases tends to propagate its hegemony over the latter.
The first link here is reflected by the tendency of editorials to claim authority to explain an argument and to persuade the reader of its correctness. As we have seen in section 4.1.31, various techniques are used to imply that the editorial voice is in a position of authority. Moreover, the rhetorical and didactic form of address is more like a lecture which presupposes a power difference! This relationship is revealed where the pronoun “we”, which is common in editorials, is used in what has been termed the exclusive or institutional sense - referring to the newspaper. Such usage is present in the following example:

◆ "We totally agree with Dr. Ngok and we are optimistic... Kenya should join the ranks of newly industrialized countries by the year 2010... We at the Kenya Times would like to laud our monetary experts..."

[KT, March 7, 1996, Editorial titled: “This economic upswing a sign of real take-off”]

The second link, and which is on the other extreme, is captured where editorials tend to claim solidarity by invoking consensus. This is most pronounced by the use of the pronouns ‘our’ and ‘we’ when they are used in the inclusive sense. Here, the inclusive sense, or what Fowler (1991:212) terms “consensual sense” refers to the “community of values that a newspaper claims to represent” and which readers are persuaded are identical to theirs. The inclusive sense of pronouns is most commonly used in editorials and it also is political as it invokes the nation (as an entity) with the concomitant notions of patriotism and nationalism. Other pronouns occasionally used in this sense other than ‘we’ include the generic pronouns ‘anyone’ and ‘no one’, which are normally used in negations and questions. Underlying these pronouns is the absolute pronoun ‘everyone,’ whose implicit generalizations allows evolvement of the pronouns to a “we” that connotes widespread agreement. The example below captures this usage of inclusive pronouns:

◆ The challenge to our economic planners is to implement policies that will give this resourceful population access to means of production... let everything that will boost our economy be put in place. Let competition be our guiding factor and we could shock ourselves through the remarkable economic growth we could achieve in the next... [KT, March 7, 1996, Editorial titled: “This economic upswing a sign of real take-off”].

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4.1.33 The referents

This corresponds to the third discourse participant normally associated with the third person pronouns he/she/it. Sometimes, the referents may be put in opposition to “us” by the category of “them”. They form an alienated topic even going by the pronouns that refers to these participants which are somehow detached. The ‘them’ may be further painted with a host of negative attributes and are generally painted as distinct from ‘we’ or ‘us’:

◆ The disregard which opposition figures seem to have for the law is matched only by the depth of confusion they are exhibiting as they seek to upstage one another in search of power... If respect for the law is one of the attributes upon which [they] are seeking to be elected as leaders, we are afraid their behaviour is not making a very good case for them. Why should the public expect that they will respect the law when they are in charge if they cannot respect it now?... What it all melts down to really is the extent to which these people can be regarded as credible... Individuals with serious claims to leadership, not hecklers unworthy of the prominence some of them are enjoying. [DN. March 12, 1996, Editorial titled: “Such conduct can only harm them)”

In concluding our analysis of editorials, we may observe that first editorials are written in an informal tone that imitates conversation but which is well thought-out and argued. This posture in critical linguistics gives the impression of a knowledgeable participant in discourse (authority) who is better positioned to influence the reader/addressee. In addition, all issues raised are defined, explained and a judgement passed so that the judgemental character of editorials is foregrounded. Readers are deliberately influenced towards taking the side of the editorial voice in an argument by among other strategies the “us” versus “them” dichotomy leading to what Fowler (1991:221) sees as an illustration of editorials as

...a discourse of institutional power in the sense that it emanates from, and in turn helps construct, the newspaper’s claimed authority.
This view seems to be the spirit in which he (Fowler) titles his discussion of editorials as:
"Leading the people: editorial authority".

4.2.0 News Analysis

News analysis is the second sub-variety of newspaper language that we will address this second part of this chapter. It also is classified under interpretive journalism whose genesis is from the increased complexity of society in such areas as government, economy, politics, cultures and other social areas. As a result, most readers do not have the time to exhaustively think through the implications of news events and situations. This void has been filled by particular newspapers offering analysis and interpretation of news events or situation for readers. One such attempt is what is referred to (and is even titled) as news analysis (column).

Hohenberg (1969:386) holds that in the print media especially, news analysis can be of two types. First, news analysis or interpretation may be written into the main news story, or, secondly, it may be a subject of analysis as a separate article. In this section, we are concerned with the second type of news analysis, that is, where the subject(s) of analysis/interpretation is normally done in separate articles.

Following the newspapers tendency to title such articles 'news analysis', we will refer to these articles or columns similarly to mean both the article and the type of writing associated with the columns.

News analysis articles then, have as their aim to analyses and interpret a news event or situation for newspaper readers. To analyses is to examine in detail in order to discover meaning, essential features etc while to interpret is to clarify or explain the meaning of or to construe the significance of something, according to the Collins English Dictionary [3rd ed. 1991]. Thus, unlike editorials, news analysis strives to elucidate the meaning or possible meanings of a news event or situation without necessarily stating its position or opinion on the matter.
However, as Hohenberg (ibid) argues, that many newspapers go out of their way to label separate interpretive articles as ‘news analysis’ seems to acknowledge the fact that they necessarily involve considerable personal judgement by the writer or commentator. This is because the news has already been separately told in news reports but then the story of politics and government ‘certainly...can’t be done without recourse to analysis and interpretation’[ibid.]

Moreover, interpretation basically adds the factor of judgement of what is straight news—that is, the recital of facts which may or may not represent the truth. Besides, in critical linguistics, the position on any discourse is that it is judgmental as reflected in ideology so that even ‘factual’ news reports as we saw are really never neutral!

Interpretive writers are therefore given the responsibility of considering the news in perspective and this, as in editorials, involves consultations, deliberations, debate and research to be able to treat or address a story comprehensively. This does not however mean that editorials and news analysis are the same. On the contrary, although they are similar in many ways, they are quite distinct in a fundamental sense for, as Hohenberg (1969:386) points out,

...the difference between interpretation and editorialization broadly, is that the interpreter applies the rule of reason to the news but stops short of recommending what should be done about it...[while] the province of the editorial writer is to urge a course of action upon the reader...

In local dailies, a large number of columns are devoted to both news analysis and commentaries (personal) reflecting a preoccupation with interpretive journalism. Ironically, one paper, the DN had both types and which were especially concerned with local news events. But for the KT, commentaries were on local news stories while the news analysis were not. This discrepancy affected our analysis only minimally, which we turn to now.
4.2.1 Headlines in News Analysis

As with other sections of newspapers that we have looked at, headlines in news analysis are graphically more prominent than the rest of the column. In some cases, and especially in the DN, the headlines run across both inner pages in which news analysis is contained. The most prevalent pattern however, is that headlines cut across the columns of a single page which may contain more than one analytical article. These banner headlines also reflect the importance attached to the topics or subjects so highlighted by the particular newspaper.

Contrastively, in respect to the body of news analysis, the graphic uniformity of type size used is maintained throughout. This uniformity of type size used reflects the fact that these columns cater for an elitist or serious readership that can concentrate on long essays without the help of elaborate typographical variety. These are the ‘quality’ readers identified by Hohenberg (1969) and who are also in the habit of reading the editorial columns.

Occasionally in the body of news analysis, a few lines will be set aside and then highlighted graphically. In the DN where this pattern was common, such quotations from the essay would normally cut across two columns in width and are printed in bold although this bold type is smaller than in the headlines. The quotation normally contains what seems an important point made in the essay. Whenever it occurs, the page layout is re-organised, thereby enhancing variety of appearance and hence breaks monotony of type print. This aspect enhances readability of long essays.

4.2.2 Linguistic Features: lexical Categories

Headlines in news analysis exhibit a tendency to use an emotionally laden word (adjective, verb etc) which clearly casts the headline in a particular perspective. In addition it seems to give the headlines punch since one expects to find the justification or reason for the opinion so expressed in the headline. The following list illustrates some of these terms:
◆ The **big brother syndrome** Kirwa is pitted against
◆ The twin **dilemma** of two **irreconcilable giants**
◆ Aids drug **circus** that’s **embarrassing** medics
◆ **Suprises** as economy gets new **minders**
◆ Kibwezi loss **signals** more **woes** for Kibaki
◆ Ndetei’s big victory yet another **nightmare** for slumbering DP
◆ **Molasses**: **A sticky, two-decade affair**
◆ Israelis **traumatized** by bombings shun buses
◆ Victory **fete** **mired** in politics
◆ Rwanda **tension lingers** two years after **genocide**

◆ **Daunting task** for new president
◆ **Royal slaying** increases tension in Zulu heartland
◆ Islamic militants **bleed** Israeli army in Lebanon

All the underlined elements above suggests some kind of premonition, an emotionally involving predicament or an image that can be described as poignant. Such elements when they appear in headlines help to stir an emotional response in the potential reader who then is attracted to read to essay.

Headlines in News analysis also commonly employ idiomatic expressions as is demonstrated in the following examples:

◆ **Daunting task** for new president
◆ SA foreign policy **out of step**?
◆ Young Indians **now eye** politics with **contempt**
◆ Ageing Zimbabwe heroes urged to **make room at the top**
◆ Wamalwa’s Camp **missed the point**
◆ Njonjo should **speak his mind**
◆ Will these Ministers **speak with one voice**

This aspect of idiomatic expression may be sub-sumed under figures of speech but we will not delve into this question here. What we shall mention here is that the idiomatic expressions usually
carry connotations of particular attitudes that are associated with their usage. If this is true, then it means that headlines in news-analysis normally commit themselves to particular non-partisan positions. This aspect is also seen in the usage of quotation marks as in the following headlines:

♦ 'Political dons' are no longer a big deal in Kenya (DN)
♦ Zambia's 'democratic Govt' has learned how to derail it's opponents
♦ Washington's misgivings as 'darling' South Africa embraces foe Iran

The use of quotation's above serves not only to focus on the elements in the quotations, but they also serve to express the attitude of writer to the subject.

4.2.3 Global structure of news analysis

News analysis is part of what is often referred to as "new journalism" which, as Indemili (1994:75) point out,

....recognizes that society is changing and is growing more complex. Following this, a new need has arisen - a need to conscientiously explain, interpret and investigate more complicated processes, issues, events, institutions and relationships among people. This is public affairs reporting.

Thus, news analysis have as their aim explaining and clarifying a subject, and hence are mostly "self-contained" in the sense that one can comprehend it without having to read the primary news report. Though not readily prescribed to a formula, a general pattern or structure of news analysis is however discernable.

This structure of news analysis articles begins with an introductory section - in the sense of "news peg" as was mentioned in editorials. This section generally states the subject of the news analysis for, as Morris, et al (1964:708) holds, "....a writer cannot explain what he does not know....the essential condition...then is knowledge of the subject". Knowledge of a subject in the introduction is mostly in the sense of what is to be discussed or the subject of the analysis. An illustration of this type of new peg that states the subject of a news analysis includes the
the introduction is mostly in the sense of what is to be discussed or the subject of the analysis. An illustration of this type of new peg that states the subject of a news analysis includes the following:

- "The speed that thrills, so a winning road safety slogan goes, is the speed that kills. But, perhaps one should add this: kill the speed before it kills you" [SN 28th March 1996 articles titled: "Horrifying" death figures cry out for anti-speed devices"

- The recent Kenya certificate of secondary examination results provide an excellent opportunity to revisit and rethink the matter of our educational system" [SN 3rd March 1996 article titled "A source of national shame?"]

- "South African President Mandela’s first major cabinet reshuffle shows his ruling African National Congress to gaining confidence to govern on is’s own" [The KT 2/4/96 article titled "S. Africa’s ANC now gaining confidence to govern..."

The second sense of knowledge of subject has to do with analysis and this constitutes the main body of news analysis. This section seeks to develop the subject under review by several different means. Among these is by definition of the key terms of a subject which helps to set apart a term from other related terms since it states the category or class to which in the term belongs and the distinguishing characteristics. This definition(s) may then be developed by expanding ideas based on it. Such an approach to the understanding of a subject is closely related to the division a subject to its constituent parts that are then logically interconnected into a coherent whole. The following example shows this kind of subject development:

- "......any researcher work on a drug must first develop what is called a protocol which amounts to something akin to a research proposal. It basically explains the nature of the research being undertaken and what it aims to achieve ...as fear as is known, Prof. Obel proposed no such protocol in the case of Pearl Omega...neither were the procedure governing the registration and eventual dispensing of drugs...” [SN, 28/4/96 article title:”Aids drug circus that is embarrassing medics]
or some events, background information may be provided that has a relationship with subject under study. What this amounts to is that an example(s) should illustrate concrete, specific manifestations of how a principle works actual life. These may at times be described but the main aim is to prove the truth of a statement as in the following extract.

♦ A 'good' politician is not good in any ethical sense, but only because he has drummed up a deep sense of timing and opportunity and knows exactly when to ditch old allies and when to enter a confederacy even with the bitterest enemies...
when it suited him (President Moi) in 1983, he did not hesitate to shove Mr. Njonjo aside...similarly in 1965, when it suited him he (Mzee Kenyatta)...sent Jaromogi reeling from KANU."

[SN, 24th March, 1996 article "Why Matiba-Raila pact may not work]

Another aspect of news analysis that is quite significant is the preoccupation with the questions "why" and "what are the results". These are actually part references to the cause-and-effect method of analysis. That is, a subject can be analyzed by describing its effect or by discovering its causes or by doing both because together they help to show what the subject is. A cause is the reason why something exists while effects deal especially with subjects like sorrow, laughter, fear, joy etc that are frequently too complex for causes analysis only. A cause-effect relationship is exemplified in the following news analysis extract:

♦ "Mandela last Thursday appointed the country's first non-white Finance minister...after the resignation of former banker...and made other changes..."[KT, 2.4.96 article titled, "S. Africa ANC now gaining confidence to govern on own"]

♦ "...Dr. Kaunda, the dictator of five year ago, now look like a democrat. Mr. Chiluba, the champion of democracy at the time, seems to have turned dictator...the immediate reason concerns two draft bills...the underlying reasons a brazen attempt by the government of President Chiluba to bar him from running....."[SN, 10/3/95 article titled: "Has power corrupted born-again Chiluba?"]
reasons a brazen attempt by the government of President Chiluba to bar him from running...."[SN, 10/3/95 article titled:"Has power corrupted born-again Chiluba?"]

News analysis frequently make use of comparison and contrast. This is explaining a view by putting one subject side by side with other subjects that are in the same class. The aim of stressing the unlikeness or likeness of a subject with subjects that are closely related to it is to sharpen our understanding. This is because a good comparison or contrast, like a good example, is either an illustration or proof. The following sample captures the essence of comparison and contrast:

♦ ...everybody is objecting to the cavalier disregard by Prof. Obel for the laid down procedures and principles in medical research...the whole saga of Pearl Omega is in many respects a replay of the charade that surrounded Kemron, another so-called Aids inhibitor which badly soiled Kenya’s reputation in the field of research” [SN] 28/4/96 article”The drug circus that is embarrassing medics]

The global structure of news analysis ends with a conclusion that most often than not reiterates the point of the whole essay. In some cases, it reinforces the position advocated in the deadline but in all cases it ends on a high note. Where various possible or probable reasons or explanations are plausible, so too are they presented without an attempt to favour any of the position, or opinion. Indeed most news analysis leave conclusion open for any interpretation without explicitly stating their position. Listed below are two examples of conclusions in news analysis from our data:

♦ ...too many roughly equal ambitions are involved. It is the reason why it is so difficult to envisage an alliance between Mr. Matiba and Mr. Odinga to be stable and to last all the way to the General Election in two years time. Their separate ambitions, their volatile tempers and their political recklessness are almost certain to condemn it to stillbirth”(DN, 24/3/96 article titled:
well be that the medical establishment is more wary of the collective
shame they are bound to suffer from such unorthodox venture as Pearl Omega”
[SN, 28/4/96 article titled “Aids drug circus that’s embarrassing medics]

Therefore, in terms of the global structure or organization, news analysis are very much like
editorials.

4.2.4 Sentence typology

Sentence typology based on orthographic word count shows that the average structure length is
approximately 22 words in news analysis. As for the individual newspapers, this was 21.71 for
the DN and 22.36 for the KT respectively.

The second measure or criteria based on the features of sentences shows a health mix of the
SP(C)(A) structure for declaration sentences as well as imperatives or questions. The latter is
especially widespread because of extensive use of rhetorical questions plus other question that
are present in news analysis. These aspects reflect the argumentative nature of news analysis
enhanced by rhetorical questions, comparisons, contracts, etc. The most common sentence
structure are however, the declarations type because they carry information essential to
explanations clarifications etc.

At the level of paragraph, the number of sentences to a paragraph in the DN was 2.4 while in
the KT it was 1.563. The overall or combined average length of paragraph in terms of sentences
then is approximately 2 sentences per paragraph.

4.2.5 Figures of Speech

News analysis makes extensive use of figures of speech starting with preposition and phrasal
verbs that are also widespread in other sections. Metaphors are used extensively as are
occasional anecdotes both of which help in paralleling of events under discussion so as show
similarities of differences. These may take many forms but this is better demonstrated in our
sample extracts in the appendix.
The other prominent aspect here is the use of phonological schemes to rhyme some words. This has the advantage of colouring an essay as well as reflecting a preoccupation with organization, classifications and systematism. A fair example here include:

♦ "Umpire Manasses Kuria was bruised, a lady official battered, the "Nation" buffeted and voters bloodied as Ford-Kenya poll got off to a violent and acrimonious start" [Sunday Nation, 30th March, 1996: Why violent polls are undemocratic].

♦ "Kigali looks normal two years after one of the worst slaughter this century with cafes and cinema crowded and the air scented with spicy food" [KT, 5/4/96 article titled "Rwanda tension lingers two years after genocide."]

Most news analysis are usually in the third person reported speech but there any conscious shifts in time focus by use of flashbacks, flashforward, etc. Such techniques together with the informality of language gives an impression of familiarity, even intimacy. This aspect of news analysis seems designed to make the reader involved in the essay as is the use of terms that mimic a conversation situation. It helps to create what Crystal et al (1969) terms "verisimilitude" as a form of relationship between writer and reader that ensures the latter active participation.

At the level of lexical categories, news analysis show an extensive use of compounded words that are joined by hyphens. These hyphenated compound words function as single words and are mainly used descriptively. In addition, it is a common occurrence to have extensive or detailed descriptions of persons, events etc.

Examples of the hyphenated compound words include:
"Change-the-constitution"; Mandela-like vision; the blue-eyed boy of the Kanu vote-seeking machine; South Africa's all-race elections; runs the risk of replacing former labour Minister Peter Okondo as a loose-tongued Minister; For Spain’s long-ruling Socialist government Syrian-Israel peace talks, Spain’s long-ruling socialist government," etc.
The use of these words stems from the fact that they are effective descriptive terms that not only save space but also highlight the aspects or quality so compounded. Indeed, these type of words are used throughout other sections but are most widespread here.

Another favourite and distinctive usage of lexical items in news analysis has to do with attribution. Since it deals with interpretations and opinions, such opinions are routinely attributed to sources for proof and cogency of the argument. Most often than not however, the “sources” are not explicitly named, and this has given rise to a special kind of attribution which is marked by such phrases as “informed sources say...”; “impeccable sources disclose”; “a source close to...discloses...” “informed opinion holds ...” etc.

4.3.0 Critical Discourse Analysis of News Analysis

Under critical discourse analysis, our analysis of news analysis will be confined to the source or addressee (voice) in the columns. This is related to one level of analysis in editorials but it is here modified to be the main approach under which sub-levels will be subsumed in the analysis of the news analysis columns. Reference will also be made to the referents (things or individuals talked about) in a brief manner.

4.3.1 Source/Addressee

This is the voice which explains and interprets news or situations to the reader. Unlike in editorials or commentaries where the source is identified or overtly marked by the first person pronouns ‘we’ and ‘I’, respectively the identity of the source in news analysis is backgrounded. Thus the source is less prominent and this from a critical perspective may seem to give the impression that news analysis is an objective and non-partisan evaluation of news events. But this is not necessarily the case because first, interpretation is always from particular standpoints in terms of authority, ideology etc. Secondly, the very premise on which news analysis as a sub-variety of newspaper language is founded assumes that the analyst (hence newspaper) is in a position of knowledge as contrasted to the reader.
Therefore, such a distribution of power cannot claim objectively and as such, the impression created by backgrounding the voice of the source is a camouflage of the power relations inherent in the articles.

Moreover, the news analyst (here representing the newspaper) is in a position of authority in that she/he is able to determine what is to be discussed or interpreted in the article. We don’t wish to go into the politics of whether it is the editor or management or the writer who makes these decisions on topic choice because all of them function for the newspaper as “gatekeepers” in one sense or the other. Thus, the newspaper is able to determine what is to be news or news analysis topic while the reader is only able to read whatever ‘they’ choose.

The above position is further reinforced by a speech act analysis of the articles that can be attributed to the “source” (here meaning writer). Most often than not, they have the finality and definitiveness of an authority. We argue further that, this being the usual or common posturing at the beginning of news analysis articles, its prominence emphasizes this positions of authority and permeates the whole essay even where not overtly indicated. An example includes the following extract:

♦ As predicted, Mrs Agnes Ndetei has easily delivered the Kibwezi parliamentary seat back to KANU after humiliating her DP opponent, Prof. Paul Simbi.
In defeat, the inevitable soul-searching in the DP is likely to sharpen an already simmering internal debate on the party’s future and that of it’s leadership”.
[SN, 17/3/96, News Analysis titled “Kibwezi loss signals more woes for Kibaki].

Other indicators of differences in power relations are to be found in the widespread use of evaluative adjectives and other terms common in news analysis columns. This, in and of itself, is a position that inherently implies not only the ability, but also the authority to “evaluate” which according to the Collins English Dictionary (1991) means “to judge or assess the worth of; to appraise”. Examples from headlines of news analysis this:
Kirwa challenge rocks Kanu's unity facade

The big brother syndrome Kirwa is pitted against

Aids drug circus that's embarrassing medics

S. Africa's ANC now gaining confidence to govern on own

Daunting task for new president

The underlined terms all have connotations of judgement. According to the Collins English Dictionary (1991) "facade" means the outer appearance, especially a deceptive one; "syndrome" is a medical term meaning any combination of signs and symptoms that are indicative of a particular disease; "circus" means a travelling company of entertainers such as acrobats, clowns, etc; "daunting" means to intimidate or dishearten. All these terms demonstrate the judgemental character of news analysis despite the professed non-partisanship.

Textual strategies employed also point to the unequal power relations. One of the most prominent usages here involve the logical and narrative organizational devices that Fowler (1991: 63) terms "Deixis". They are mainly devices which link a text with the time and place of communication and with the participants. In news analysis, indicators of time like "now", "then", "previously" and etc, point to the narrative structures of organization while indicators of place like "here", "there" and other terms that purport to answer the why and what questions all go towards structuring the essay. On one hand, these strategies implicitly mark authority of the structuring source as we saw in section 4.1.3.1.

On the other hand, these strategies point to the informality of news analysis columns. This is seen in the usage of such words as 'now', 'here', 'this' etc which are more characteristic of speech than of writing and hence cue the oral model of communication.

This tendency, which was also present in editorials, is subject to interplay of ideology for, as Fowler (1991: 57) holds:

...adoption of a conversation style...implies co-operation, agreement, symmetry of power and knowledge between participants...[it creates] an illusion of informality, familiarity, friendliness...
All these implies that when the informal conversation style is adopted, it implies a shared worldview which is taken for granted, but which is a strong structuring force. From our data, one of the most prominent conversation-like articles had the following extract:

- Once beaten, Dr. Kaunda appears twice sharp and as focused... **Hear him**: 'Let’s turn our cotton into cloth. Let’s turn our sisal into rope. Let’s turn our copper into copper rods’...he is making clear his re-election platform-agriculture. **Let him speak for himself again**: 'I want to make agriculture a total and absolute obsession. I want people to go to bed dreaming agriculture...”

[SN, 10/3/96 new analysis titled “Has power corrupted born-again Chiluba?”]

Here, the writer uses the words “hear” and “speak” which appeal to our senses of hearing and speaking respectively. It captures well the conversational mood or setting of news analysis.

In a different sense, the same quotation helps to discern the unequal relations of power present here because the writer uses speech acts that implore us to listen to what the subject of the news analysis says. Thus, the analyst is in an authoritative position in that he tells us what to do - we don’t have a choice as readers - showing the active role of writer versus the passive role of listening assigned to readers.

The final aspect that we address in this section can be looked at both from the perspective of the “source” and that of the “referents”. This has to do with the intertextuality of both the news analysis and editorial columns. That is, the stylistic and therefore ideological dependence on other texts issuing from official or other prestigious sources.

From a referents, point of view, it follows that the traditional sources of news are mostly organizational and administrative, like government departments, local authorities, police, army, companies, Trade unions, political parties etc Other sources are prominent individuals in society in terms of financial power, knowledge, professionals, royalty etc. [Fowler 1991:21-2]
These then are the referents that are mostly talked about or reported in the media since they are seen as key players in society. This also means that they have power to influence the society as opposed to members of the public or “wanainchi” who only appear in the media by accident rather than by design. This however, is not explicitly stated because the few elite are treated as representing the majority.

From the perspective of the “source” in news analysis, these privileged groups are the ones referred to by such terms as “informed sources “impeccable course.” “those in the know” etc which we said is characteristic of news analysis. This means that by the very nature of the news analysis, and, in fact of the newspaper in general, there is a regular mechanism of capturing the views of the elite but not of members of the public. This situation has led to what is often referred to as “accessed voices”. Access is a reciprocal relationship between such people and the media, which ultimately develops into a symbiotic embrace whose effect, as Fowler (1991:22) succinctly puts it, is

......an imbalance between the representation of the already privileged, on the one hand, and the already underprivileged, on the other, with views of the official, the powerful and the rich being constantly invoked to legitimize the status quo.
Soles

1. The term "interpretive journalism" is a convenient term to use because of the numerous other terms used for the same concept. For instance, Hohenberg (1969:38) who uses the above term likens it to "grand reportage" in the French Press. Other scholars refer to it as "Literary journalism: viz Sims (1990). Some other scholars still dislike the term "literary" which they feel is self-congratulatory and instead opt for terms such as "New Journalism". All these scholars however agree that this type of journalism differs from standard journalism in both approach and presentation. A walking definition as offered by John Boylan sees literary journalism as a form,

that aims at substantial literary quality and fidelity to the truth as the writer sees it; it is writing that seeks to encompass aspects of life and culture that may lie beyond the grasp of other forms of journalism.[in Sims (1990: ix) ed. Literary Journalism in the twentieth Century, Oxford]

2. These are closely tied to the tenets of Public Service journalism which is based on the assumption that the journalist is the watchdog of the public interest. This role, Hohenberg (1969:469) says, is the most familiar and most celebrated although he points out that other areas include civil rights, war on poverty, etc. Commenting further on public service journalism, Hohenberg (ibid:468) says it is inconceivable how "a newspaper can bid for the respect and favour of it's community and avoid risk, controversy, and sometimes a bitter struggle for survival... [this is] the challange of public service...". Thus, newspapers that take up the challenge pick up a "tradition of conscience". Factors that may militate against taking up such roles include Ownership, fear of being proscribed especially in the third world countries, lack of courage and the associated self-censorship, government interference, etc.

3. Most often than not, editorials and other sections like news-analysis and commentaries are based on news events that have been covered in news reporting pages. Among the many events that are covered, some are considered more important than others. The criteria used to judge the importance is closely related to that used in news gathering.
As identified by Mencher (1983), there are three basic determiners of news. First is impact or significance of a news event which is determined by the extent of the consequences of an event or by the number of people affected. Secondly, prominent personalities in business, politics, sports, arts, etc are considered news makers hence are given coverage. The third element used in the criteria is the unusual or exceptional happening - that which is not expected is judged to be newsworthy. There are additionally, four other considerations of timeliness, conflict, nearness and currency that go into the determination of the newsworthiness of an event or situation. All the above factors no doubt play an important role in deciding what is to be editorialized on to give it impact in the days news.

4. Generic statements, as Fowler (1991:211) argues, are inevitably authoritarian. He says that it is significant that the generic sentence is the most common semantic and syntactic form for proverbs e.g ‘Birds of a feather shock together’. Proverbs encode what is taken to be common-sense wisdom.

5. The extent of personal judgement in news analysis is not as considerable as that found in what Hohenberg (1969:475) terms “personal journalism”. The personal journalism he says refers to the columnists and commentators who have no proprietary in the press and who sometimes oppose the interest of most of the proprietors of their columns. In the local dailies, the type of journalism is widespread in both the *Kenya Times* and *Daily Nation* conspicuously titled “commentary”. The opinions so expressed here are solely personal and do not, necessarily reflect the newspaper’s position as contrasted with the news analysis column. However, the boundary between the two is sometimes very thin.

6. According to popular Swahili etymology, the word for government, that is “serikali” is often said to be a corruption of the “real” word which is “siri kali” - meaning something like top secret. Without vouching for the veracity of this etymology, we thought it captures well the fact that government often may put out information that may not be always truthful in some instances. Some documents cases involving the US government include “the abortive attempt to help a rag-tag bunch of cubans invade Castro’s Cuba in 1961,
when President Kennedy tried and failed to cover up the key role of the CIA in organizing the disaster "and" during the Eisenhower administration when white house... denied (in 1960) that a missing U-2 spy plane had invaded Russia air space" [Hohenberg,] (1969:482-3).

7. "Gatekeepers" as a term follows from the practice of diagramming the flow of news from source to consumer by social scientists. Accordingly, it refers to those who have the power of opening or closing a gate in the flow of news. Reporters are said to be the first of such gatekeepers while the others are news editors, the sub-editors, etc. These are the people who determine what shall be news and what will be read in the paper. They occupy positions of importance [Indemili, S.D. (1994:74-75)]

8. Fowler (1991:59) argues that a newspaper is an institution, while the reader is a person. That the characteristic mode of an institution is to print, and its typical "utterance" include memoranda, reports, manual, etc. A person's characteristic mode is speech, and their typical utterances is conversation. Socio-culturally, therefore, the two models mean different things, print connoting formality and authority, speech suggesting informality and solidarity. The latter's aspects associated with speech are aimed at in newspapers tendency to be conventional in style as a way of mimicking oral models of communication.

9. "Accessed voices" is a term coined by J. Hartley (1982) to mean the views and styles of a privileged body of politicians, civil servants, directors, managers, expert of various kinds (professionals) popular stars, etc. Fowler (1991:22) says that the relationship between this group and the media is such that the media conventionally expect and receive the right of access to the statements of these individuals, because the individuals have roles in the public domain and reciprocally these people receive access to the columns of the papers when they wish to air their views. Locked out of this arrangement is the ordinary citizen or members of the public who, by contract, could hardly expect to be heeded if they were to "call a press conference."

NB It is interesting that these accessed voices are referred to in numerous terms hence a preoccupation in society.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Summary and Conclusion

5.1.0 Summary

This dissertation has attempted first of all to establish a stylistically adequate description of the
register of newspaper language (in the sense of Chomsky, 1965) based on the levels of grammar
and graphetics. These levels were applied to a selection of three sub-varieties of newspaper
language, namely news-reporting, editorials and news analysis. We have taken the three sub-
varieties to be fairly representative of newspaper language in general based on the following
facts;

a) that news-reporting traditionally constitutes what is considered the central
function of newspapers, that is, to inform. This is a central preoccupation of most
newspaper irrespective of such variables as target audience, subject matter, etc

b) that the role of newspapers in the present sophisticated societies has gone
beyond mere reporting of events and happenings. Newspaper are expected not only to
explain but also to interpret news reports as a requirement of modernity. This change
reflects the dynamism of society at large and of newspapers in particular. Editorials and
news-analysis sub-varieties of newspaper language represent this development.

Each of the sub-varieties of newspaper language is then subject to a stylistic analysis from which the
characteristic features which mark each sub-variety are described.

Secondly, this dissertation proposed to establish whether or not imbalances in relations of
power were present in the Kenyan newspaper language. Of course, such differences in terms of
perspectives adopted in news stories, content, layout etc. are often pointed out by general
readers of newspapers. Thus newspapers reflect differing ideologies because they are not
impartial “mirrors” that supply factual information of the world but rather are constructed by
people who have attitudes, interests etc that may or may not conflict with our own view.
What constituted our aim then was to try and find out and explore the linguistic and stylistic correlates of such ideologies and imbalances. Hence, we used a type of discourse analysis known as critical linguistics to investigate and illuminate this aspect by analysing sub-varieties of newspaper language first from their generic basis and finally from specific instantiations of texts.

In chapter 1, we outlined the general introduction to this study in which we traced the history of the press in Kenya, and stated the aim and justification of the study. We also outlined the theoretical approach adopted and stated our hypotheses and methodology. In chapter 2, we discussed the theoretical literature and some of the main tenets and theoretical standpoints in stylistics and critical linguistics. The actual analysis of newspaper language was devoted to two chapters: Chapter 3 concentrating on new-reporting while chapter 4 focuses on both editorials and news-analysis. The analysis of the sub-varieties was done first at the level of stylistic then in ‘critical linguistics’ within the same chapter so as to facilitate ease of comparison.

5.2.0. Conclusion

From our study, we established that the stylistic descriptions of the sub-varieties shows slight differences as well as marked similarities within them. For instance, all the three sub-varieties showed the same fundamental pattern in graphological usage of headlines. That is, all headlines used a type-face that was bigger and more bold when compared to that used in the body of the story. The difference in usage here is mainly restricted to type size used where some varieties use consistently bigger type than others but which as we have mentioned were distinctively bigger.

At the level of sentence typology, an orthographic word count comparison shows that the average sentence length in news-reporting, editorials and news-analysis all approximate 23 words per sentence. In addition the declarative type of sentence is by far the most prevalent in all the three sub-varieties. In editorials and news-analysis, it was shown that the imperative sentences habitually occur especially because of their argumentative nature. At the level of word typology, the short familiar word is always preferred to the long unfamiliar word in all sub-varieties.
In terms of figures of speech, we established that among those most commonly used were such features as idiomatic expressions, prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs, rhyming patterns, etc. These features occur in all the sub-varieties discussed and also point to a similarity of usage.

Some marked differences were also present. Chief among these had to do with the global structures of the sub-varieties whereby news-reporting follows an inverted pyramid design with the most important news constituting the base. Editorials and news-analysis on the other hand are structured around an introduction, a body and a conclusion.

A second dissimilarity among the sub-varieties concerns the use of figures of speech. Here, editorials and news-analysis make extensive use of figures of speech and other literary techniques as opposed to such usage in news-reporting.

In general however, most of the formal features of grammar and graphology show a similarity of usage which can be attributed to register uniformity. This is not to deny that there were differences amongst the sub-varieties but that the common usages were by far the most prevalent.

On investigating the sub-varieties using the critical linguistics model, the ‘uniform’ registers of newspaper language revealed functional differences, especially imbalances of power among discourse participants, perspectives etc. We demonstrated the various unequal relations of power inherent in the generic basis of the sub-varieties, of particular newspapers in relation to specific topics (sample text analysis) and lastly of the institution of the media itself.

By pointing out this unequal relations of power, we hoped to achieve the “emancipatory” target of critical linguistics by modestly pointing out areas of linguistic discursive practices that are imbricated with the wider social-political structures of power and domination. This identification of the linguistic practices that are detrimental is the first step in waging a war to change the discursive practices that work to the detriment of particular groups in society.
However, the critical linguistics model of discourse analysis has some limitations which we came across in our analysis. First, it does not have the facility to comprehensively analyse such important features of newspapers as photographs, pictures, cartoons etc. In some cases of the variety of editorials, they are accompanied by an editorial cartoon which may visually depict what is discussed in the column. As such, the analyst is not in a position to link both aspects in a theoretical framework of critical linguistics. The point here is that other aspects of text other than grammar and vocabulary may be of ideological significance but which are not recognised in CDA. An example here would include such areas as the overall argumentative or narrative structure of a text.

A second limitation of critical linguistics is that there are some problems of interpretation that confront the analyst-interpreter because the relationship between textual features and social meanings tends to be taken as straightforward. For instance, values are attached or attributed to particular structure such as passive clauses without agents in a somewhat mechanical way. This limitation was encountered many times in our analysis because text may be open to different interpretation depending on factors like context, the interpreter, etc and hence social meanings of discourse cannot simply be read-off from the text.

Critical linguistics has as its claim to help emancipate social groups in society that are disadvantaged. However, it places a lot of emphasis upon the effects of discourse in the social representation of existing social relations and structures implying that readers are passive recipients of everything they read in a text. Such a position implicitly ignores the fact that interpretation and comprehension are active processes involving the interpreter and his social position.

In conclusion, critical linguistics is very illuminating in areas of ideology despite the limitations and we can only hope that at the moment, studies such as this one may stimulate further research in the vast area of the media, dialogue, or conversation analysis, literary texts and other discourse practice in society. This is because it provides a new approach to areas that have been studied previously or new ones in a way that can contribute to our understanding of social power-relation’s Inequality in society etc.
STATE RE-OPENS JULIE WARD CASE

♦ Independent investigator appointed
♦ New lead to be followed up
♦ Kodipo to be interviewed
♦ Ward's private detective to assist

The Kenya Government announced yesterday that it was re-opening investigations, into the 1988 grisly murder of a British tourist Ms. Julie Anne Ward in the Masai Mara following what it described as shreds of new leads.

Attorney-General Amos Wako was addressing an international Press conference at his chambers while in the company of Police Commissioner Shadrach Kiruki and the father of the murdered girl, Mr. John Ward, said the government had appointed a former Deputy Commissioner of Police, Mr. Crispo Willis Ongoro, to conduct independent investigations into the murder.

Ms Ward, a British tourist who had come for holidays in Kenya was found murdered in September 1988, at the world famous Masai Mara Game Reserve and her body partly dismembered.

Mr. Wako told the press conference that new leads had emerged into the mysterious death of Ms. Ward which needed to be investigated.

The A-G noted that the way the police had handled the investigations into the saga was unsatisfactory and caused a High Court Judge, Justice F.E. Abdulla, to criticise the force for the way the investigations had been carried out.
Mr. Wako said that the Police Commissioner had decided to appoint an independent investigator to follow up the case.

He said Mr. Ongoro who also served as a deputy director of Criminal Investigator Department (CID), will work with a former Kenya Police officer, Mr. Bob Whitford, who is also Mr. Ward’s private detective.

The team will also interview a former General Service unit (GSU) officer, Mr. Valentine Kodipo, now living abroad, concerning some new evidence he claimed to have regarding the murder.

Mr. Kodipo claimed to have witnessed Ms. Ward being tortured and bludgeoned to death with a club on orders from a senior politician.

Mr. Wako said he hoped the Ongoro team would be allowed to interview the former GSU officer in London, or at any other place of his choice. He said also that the group would interview three senior politicians who Mr. Kodipo linked to Ms. Ward’s murder.

The team will investigate all matters surrounding the murder of the late Ward with a view to obtaining sufficient evidence to mount a successful prosecution against the culprits.

Mr. Wako promised that the investigations would not be open-ended, and said he had confidence in the Ongoro team to conduct thorough investigation and would lead to an expeditious disposal of the matter.

The A-G promised also that the authorities would not interfere with for independent investigations in any way, adding that Mr. Ongoro would be free to interview any of the government officers including those at CID to get any evidence that he requires.
On the new leads, the A-G said the probe team would follow up the evidence that Mr. Kodipo claims to have, rely on the material that it has on the ongoing inquiries it has been conducting on the matter and also rely on the evidence of a man they said is serving a jail term but whose identity they refused to disclose.

Mr. Ward said satellite photos he had earlier said had been taken which would help solve the mystery were not yet ready but that he would avail them to aid in the investigations once they were ready.

The father said he was quite pleased with the Kenya Government for having decided to re-open the investigation into the murder and specially thanked President Daniel arap Moi whose initiatives he said had led to the re-opening of the inquiry file.

Mr. Kiruki said the case was extraordinary and needed to be handled in an extraordinary manner, adding that the team would commence its task immediately. He said, however, that the police needed sufficient time to unravel the mysterious murder and ruled out the possibility of their being given a time frame within which to hand in a report.
Wako orders fresh Julie Ward probe

Nearly seven and a half years since the body of English tourist Julie Ward was discovered in the Masai Mara Game Reserve, the Government has ordered yet another round of investigations into the murder.

Yesterday, Attorney-General Amos Wako announced the appointment of an “independent investigator”, Mr. Crispo Willis Ongoro, to probe what he referred to as “new leads”.

Mr. Ongoro, a retired deputy director of the Criminal Investigation Department, has been given a free hand to pick his probe team.

But Mr. Wako said the team will include Mr. Bob Whitford of Vigilante Investigations, who once served as a policeman in Kenya and London.

The A-G was addressing an international press conference at his Nairobi office which was attended by the Commissioner of Police, Mr. Shadrack Kiruki, and the slain girl’s father, Mr John Ward.

Mr. Wako gave the following as the team’s mandate:

- to investigate the new leads to their logical conclusion
- interview Mr Valentine Kodipo in London or at any other place of his choice
- Investigate all matters surrounding the murder of Julie Ward with a view to obtaining sufficient evidence to mount a successful prosecution of the culprits.

Julie’s mutilated remains were discovered in the Mara on September 6, 1988.

Besides the Kenya Police, New Scotland Yard detectives, have been involved in the investigations.
Mr. Wako recalled that the late Justice Fidahussein Abdulla who tried and acquitted murder suspects John Tajer Magiroi and Peter Metui Kipeen criticised the police for the way they handled the investigations.

In his 119-page judgement, Mr. Justice Abdulla said many questions remained unanswered regarding the role of David Nchoka, Gerald Karori and Simeon Makala who worked in the game sanctuary.

Since then “some lends have emerged which need to be investigated, “Mr. Wako said.” Consequently this is to confirm that the Commissioner of Police has appointed an independent investigator in this case.”

Last September, the 34-years-old Kodipo caused ripples here and abroad by publicly linking powerful figures in KANU with Julie’s murder.

Mr. Kodipo, was described by Scotland yard as “credible witness whose story is entirely feasible”

Later, the British High Commissioner in Kenya, Mr. Simon Hermans, charged that Julie’s killers “are being protected by someone, somewhere.”

Yesterday, Mr. Ward welcomed the fresh initiative by the government to resolve the murder of his daughter.

“It is something which for a long time I have been expecting to happen. As the AG has said, the new inquiries will be conducted with greater openness...with access for myself into this mission which is direct and allows my own private investigator to be part of the team. On behalf of Julie’s family, I could not ask for more he said.
Mr. Kiruki, thanked Mr. Ward for the co-operation he has continued to give the police.

"I hope this independent team will come out with results which are acceptable to all concerned and we hope this murder will be resolved once and for all," he said.

**Question to A_G:** Will there be compensation of which Mr. Ward has sought for a long time for the investigations he has carried out in this case?

**A_G:** The issue of the claim as you are aware is now before the court and to that extent it is sub-judice. At this point, our main concern and that of Julie Ward's family is to bring the culprits to justice and if these investigations can be successful, I am confidence that all other issues, including compensation, can be sorted out.

**Question to Mr. Ward:** Are you happy with that arrangement?

**Mr. Ward:** I will regard these matters as entirely separate. My primary objective it to try and catch the people who murdered our daughter. But I think probably at the end of the day it may well be accepted that I have made some contribution towards investigation and I expect that contribution will be recognized.

**Question to A-G:** Is there any time framework for concluding the new investigations or is it an open-ended exercise?

**A_G:** It is not open-ended, Mr. Ongoro is a very experienced investigator and I think it is only fair that we give him the job and within two weeks or so, he comes back to the commissioner and to myself to say that I think I will require so many days to complete my investigations.

**Question:** When will he (Ongoro) start investigation?

**A_G:** Almost immediately I believe the Commissioner of police will brief you (Press)
next week. We would want an expedition disposed of this matter. I also hope all the authorities will be able to co-operate so that we can finalise this matter so quickly as possible. There are also new leads which are independent of the Kodipo allegations. We also hope whatever is involved will facilitate proper investigations.

**Mr. Ward:** We have three lines of inquiries to follow for the moment - one from Kodipo, second one is a statement from a gentleman who is currently in prison and there is also ongoing inquiries that the Attorney-General has mentioned. There are also three gentleman concerned with the Maasai Mara that the A-G might prefer charges against.

(Asked to name the prisoner, Mr. Ward declined to do so saying it might prejudice the case).

**Question:** What circumstances have led to the new round of investigations given the fact that previous investigations have floundered?

**A-G** There are these new leads which we would like to be investigated to their logical conclusion. I think it was also important that we appoint an independent investigator in this particular case in view of the comments of Justice Abdulla in his judgement so that everybody sees that investigations have seemed to be fair and objective.

**Question:** How seriously has Julie’s issue harmed Kenya’s image?

**AG:** My own view is that as in many issues, there has been a lot of misinterpretations, misconceptions as to the position of the government regarding any investigation I this matter as in any other investigation, my role as Attorney-General is to get to the truth of the matter. We will try all we can do to get to the bottom of a matter of any situation irrespective of the consequences.
Mr. Wako said the director of CID had washed his hands of the Julie Ward issue.

**Critical discourse analysis of the news-reports**

*a) Classification of participants by vocabulary*

i) *Kenya Times*
   - Government and its agents
   - State
   - Attorney General Amos Wako
   - Police Commissioner Shadrack Kiruki
   - Mr. Wako (4 times)
   - The A-G (3 times)
   - The team (2 times)

A former Deputy Commissioner of Police, Mr. Crispo Willis Ongoro

Mr. Ongoro, who also served as a deputy director criminal investigation department (CID)

**Daily Nation**

- The government
- Attorney-general Amos Wako
- Mr. Crispo Willis Ongoro
- Mr. Ongoro a retired deputy director of criminal investigation department
- Mr. Wako (2 times)
- The A-G (4 times)

Commissioner of Police, Mr. Shadrack Kiruki

**Mr. Ward (KT)**

- The father of the murdered girl
- Mr. Ward (5 times)
- The father

**Mr. Ward (DN)**

- The slain girl's father, Mr John Ward
- Mr. Ward
Valentine Kodipo (KT)
- A former Kenya General Service Unit (GSU) officer, Mr. Valentine Kodipo
- Mr. Kodipo
- the former GSU officer

V Kodipo (DN)
- Valentine Kodipo
- the 34-year-old Kodipo
- Mr. Kodipo a former GSU Officer....”a credible witness whose story is entirely feasible

Ms Ward’s murder (KT)
- The 1988 grisly murder of a British tourist, Ms. Julie Ward
- the murder
- Ms Ward
- the late Ward
- the mystery

Ms. Ward Murder (DN)
- the body of English tourist Julie Ward
- the murder
- the murder of Julie Ward
- Julie mutilated remains
- Julie’s murder
- Horrifying account of how Julie was tortured and bludgeoned to death
- Julie’s killers
- this murder
- the people who murdered our daughter

b) Classifying the actions/processes
- What Govt and agencies did (KT)
- re-opens
- re-opening
- appointed ... to conduct investigations
- will interview
The grammatical structure in the KT follows the SPC structure where the subject and theme is the government. The first sentence goes, "The Kenya government announced yesterday that it was re-opening .......following what it described as new leads" this is the conventional sentence structure which focuses on the government and its announcement.

The DN on the other hand starts with a grammatical structure that thematises an adverbial clause in an ASPC structure which goes, "Nearly seven and a half years since... the government has ordered yet another round of investigations...". The subject of the paragraph is then the time it has taken the government to re-open the case, probably hinting at some pressure being behind the decision. In the second paragraph, the Attorney-general’s announcement of the appointment is put in quotation marks around “Independent investigator and the said “new leads”. The quotes focus attention on the terms and probably express doubt or misgivings or a general sceptic attitude. Indeed this appears confirmed in the third paragraph which begins with the disclaimer “but”, which introduces the identity of the private investigator in the “independent team”. This assertion may be expressing doubt of the independence of the team or be a pointer to other interests being behind the announcement. This indeed is the impression created by the jump headline to the same story which goes; “Julie Ward file finally re-opened”. The use of “finally” suggests that such an action was long overdue.

The perspective in the SN is such that it doubts the government’s sincerity in the whole question of the girl’s murder case. This is reflected by the structure and choice of lexical items at sentence level. This perspective is corroborated by an editorial on the same topic of 4th March 1996 titled: “Let this one be the final Julie Ward probe”, which starts “put it down to the
persistence of an aggrieved and wealthy parent, bungling by the police or a perfect cover-up...". This opinion as

**Text 3: SN, March 10, 1996**

**Opposition chiefs ejected from rally**

 Barely a fortnight after their meeting with President Moi at which harassment by security organ was discussed, leaders of the three main opposition parties found themselves in trouble with the police yesterday.

FORD KENYA Chairman, Wamalwa Kijana, Mr. Mwai Kibaki (DP) and Ford Asili secretary-general Martin Shikuku were chased out of Moi Kinoru stadium in Meru town by armed policemen.

A large crowd which had gathered at the stadium to be addressed by among others, the "Opposition Three", was clubbed and dispersed with teargas.

The three were leading more than 10 MP's in what was to be the first public rally of the National Opposition Alliance.

Policemen claimed the leaders, who included FORD-K legislator Mukhisa Kituyi, Mr. Maoka Maore and Mr. David Mwiraria both of DP, intended to address an unlicensed meeting. [page 2 col 1: Leaders ejected from stadium]

At 2.45 p.m. riot-control policeman had found a large crowd milling outside the locked stadium gate. They announced that the permit for the meeting had been cancelled.

The crowd left peacefully, but at Makutano - 400 metres from Kinoru - it met the leaders and escorted them towards the stadium.
At the Milimani Hotel gate, a North Imenti DP official, Councillor Julius Kathurima, who was in Mr Mwiraria's vehicle, told the policemen to give way, which they did. Outside the stadium, the crowd forced open the padlock on the gate and poured into the venue along with the leaders.

But when Mr. Shikuku started to address the gathering, the security men stormed in.

A Senior officer announced that the meeting was illegal and ordered everyone to disperse.

But Mr. Shikuku would not budge and dared the police to arrest him. In the standoff, groups of wanainchi started leaving the stadium. A few others hurled stones at policemen keeping vigil outside. The police retaliated with clubs and tear-gas which sent the crowd fleeing.

Among others in the convey were MP, George Nyanja (Ford-A) James Orengo (FORD-K) Mate Wamae (DP), Otieno K'opiy, (FORD-K), Maoka Maore (DP), Peter Ndwiga (DP) and Njenga Mungai (FORD-A).

Notable by his absence was DP MP Benjamin Ndubai whose Tigania constituency is near Meru town, Mr. Ndubai recently disowned the Opposition Alliance.

After a visit to State House, Mr. Wamalwa, Mr. Kibaki and Mr. Shikuku said they had discussed with the President, Provincial Administrations refusal to license their meetings. But a senior administration official said yesterday's meeting had been licensed as a campaign rally for four DP civic candidates in the March, 14 by election.

He charged that the meeting had been hijacked "by unscrupulous Opposition leaders" prompting the eleventh-hour cancellation.
The officer claimed that people who had not been listed in the license had been allowed to address the rally.

But a DP activities insisted that the license had clearly indicated that "National Opposition leaders would address the meeting."

**Structures of newsreport**

The first paragraph gives a summary of the new story in bolder print than the second paragraph which gives the specific details of the personalities involved and where they were. Emphasis in the third paragraph shifts to what happened to the crowd and more information is added in subsequent paragraphs. Thus, it follows the inverted pyramid design.

**Sentence length (orthographic):**

Total number of paragraph: 16
Total number of sentences: 24
Average sentences length: 20

**Figures of speech used:**

Phrasal verbs - forced open, stormed in,
metaphor - poured into,
idioms - sent the crowd fleeing, to give way, keeping vigil, the eleventh hour

**Critical discourse analysis of newspaper:**

a) choices of vocabulary in classifying the participants:
**Opposition Leaders**

- Leaders of the 3 main Opposition parties
- FORD-K chairman Wamalwa Kijana, Mr Mwai Kibaki (DP) and FORD-Asili secretary-general Martin Shikuku
- “opposition three”
- The three, The leaders (3 times)
- National Opposition leaders
- Opposition Alliance (thrice)

**The Police**

- security organs
- the police (thrice)
- armed policemen
- policemen
- riot-control policemen
- the security men

**Crowd**

- a large crowd
- a large crowd milling outside locked stadium
- the crowd
- the gathering
- groups of Wanainchi
- A few others

b) **Classifying actional process**

i) What Opposition leaders did

- found themselves in trouble
- were chased out
- were met
- told police to give up
- were leading
Words to Policing: The Politics of Public Order

The headline is a passive construction whose subject or theme is “opposition leaders” but who are not the actors. The actors are the police. Thus the object of the clause has occupied the subject position thereby becoming the theme. The effect here is to focus attention on the opposition leaders while backgrounding the agents/actors.

In the first paragraph, the adverbial of time [“Barely a fortnight after their meeting with President Moi at which harassment by security organs was discussed....”] has been brought to the front of the dependent clause as theme in the structure ASPC. The main clause which completes the sentence then follows and it reiterates the headline. This way the first paragraph focuses attention on the short time it has taken for the leaders meeting to be proved an exercise in futility.

The second paragraph has as its theme and subject the names of the leaders and their respective parties who are again the grammatical subjects but the semantic object.
Here, they “were chased” and this action is attributed to the police as the agents. The opposition leaders in total are the subject and theme of six paragraphs either collectively or individually.

In critical linguistics, we see that the opposition leaders are viewed in a positive light since they “find themselves” in predicaments portrayed as outside their willing. Their actions or lack of it do not affect anybody. This is true also of the crowd which “left peacefully” and they were violent (that is 3 times) only once did their action affect another, in this case the police. And even in this incident, the action is attributed to “a few others”.

By contract, the policemen are portrayed as violent as seen in their actional processes (five were violent) which affects all indiscriminately. They “stormed in”, “clubbed and dispersed” and many such strong negative verbs.

This portrayal shows the newspaper that published it to have a positive attitude about the opposition leaders and the crowd and a downright negative view of the police action. This is ideologically significant.

**Text 4: KT. March 8, 1996.**

**Students riot at varsity**

*Demonstrating Kenyatta University students yesterday stormed into one of the kitchens, looted all the food and engaged the police in running battles that disrupted traffic flow at the busy Thika-Nairobi road.*

*The students forced open the door to the eastern kitchen, ate every food available before proceeding to the students’ centre where they broke into the bar and cleared the entire beer stock.*
The marauding students passed by the administrative block and vandalised four vehicles by removing side mirrors and number plates and deflated tires.

Yesterday's riots come soon after a similar one last November when students stormed a senate meeting but were restrained from harming the Vice-Chancellor, Prof. George Eshiwani, by his security detail.

During last year's riot the students vandalised the office of the Director of Catering and Accommodation Board, Dr. E.M. Kigen. The authorities closed down the university which re-opened only last January.

Chanting “Pesa tutapata leo wapende wasipende (we shall get our money today whether they like it or not), The students barricaded the busy Thika Road after booing and heckling the Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Prof. John Mutio, who addressed them at the administration block.

The cause of the demonstration was a Sh. 4,000 refund that the Higher Education Loans Board (HELP) promised to give. The students claimed that the board promised to pay them the money yesterday at city branches of the Kenya Commercial bank only for the university to inform them on Wednesday evening through a circular from the Deputy Vice-Chancellor in-charge of Finance, Prof. Ezra Maritim, that the money would be paid at their respective district branches of KCB.

However, a circular later in the night informed the students that the money will be paid after all at the city branches of KCB and not at the district as earlier announced.

Despite the assurance by Prof. Mutio that they will get their money on Monday, the students proceeded to Thika Road where they blocked traffic for some time before police from Kasarani Police Station arrived and dispersed them. By the time they were dispersed at 11 a.m. no serious damages had been done.
Later, Prof. Mutio said that the money issue at the university was a Higher Education loans Board affair and that the university was not involved in the delay of the refund. By 3 o’clock the situation had returned to normal and classes had resumed.

Structure of news report

The first paragraph is in bolder type as is characteristic of news-reports and summarizes the act of rioting which is the headline to the news-report. The second paragraph details what the students did and more information is given as one goes down the report. The news considered most important is contained in the beginning hence conforming to the inverted pyramid design.

Sentence length (orthographic)

Total number of paragraphs: 10
Total number of sentences: 14
Average sentence length: 28

Figures of speech used

phrasal verbs - stormed into, forced open, broke into, passed by, closed down,
Idiomatic expressing - engaged the police in running battles, cleared the entire beer stock.

(a) Vocabulary classification of actors

University students
- Demonstrating Kenyatta University students
- the students (6 times)
- the marauding students
- students

Administrators/policemen
- Vice-Chancellor, Prof. George Eshiwani
- Director of Catering and Accommodation, Dr. E.M. Kigen
- the authorities
- Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Prof. John Mutio
- Deputy Vice-Chancellor in charge of finance,
Prof. Ezra Maritim
- Prof. Mutio (2)
- Police from Kasarani station
- the police

(b) **Actional process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>students</th>
<th>affected persons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Stormed into one of the kitchens and looted all the food</td>
<td>the police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- engaged in running battles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- disrupted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- forced open the door to Eastern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- broke into bar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cleared entire beer stock</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Vandalised vehicles</td>
<td>Prof. Eshiwani’s security detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- stormed a senate meeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Vandalised</td>
<td>- Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Prof. John Mutio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Chanting, barricaded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- booed and heckled</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Claimed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- proceeded to Thika road</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- blocked traffic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Administrator/police**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>were engaged by</th>
<th>students</th>
<th>students</th>
<th>students</th>
<th>students</th>
<th>students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>restrained</td>
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<tr>
<td>closed down</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>addressed</td>
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<tr>
<td>informed</td>
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<td>assured</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The choice of the grammatical structure of clauses here is such that students are both the grammatical and semantic theme or subject whose actions are in the active voice. They "stormed into", "engaged police,...", "broke into", "forced open" and other violent action' verbs that add up to about twelve instances of the total actions. Most of their action is presented as misdirected and without cause and affecting either the police or the University administration. The vocabulary generally depicts the demonstrating students in an unfavourable light - reflecting a view commonly held that students are crooks, trouble makers who should instead be grateful to taxpayers for paying for their education.

This purpose is served by attention being focused on the students in the sentence constructions. In fact, the students and their present and earlier riots constitute the subject or theme of six paragraphs.

The reason behind the demonstration is given in the seventh paragraph hence not considered important enough as a news item. Even in this paragraph, the students are said to have been "promised" a money refund which they (students) "claim" was to be done in convenient banks on the day before the strike. Further down the paragraph, the contradicting information from the administration is downplayed. Instead, the administration is portrayed as going out of their way to issue a circular late into the night in the interest of the students who ignore it owing to their ingratitude.

The construction of clauses dealing with the administration and police depict then positively. They were "engaged in running battles", and in the face of the provocations of the students managed to "restrain", "assure" the students who spurn this offer. Indeed, most of the time they are not directly involved and are mentioned in actional process a paltry six times when compared to the students' seventeen times. Hence the authorities are restrained, responsible and dignified in their action.
Terrorism must not derail ME talks

Once again, Israel is heavily bleeding from a bomb blast on Monday that killed at least 20 people and left 50 others seriously injured; the third attack within eight days. It occurred after a suspected Islamic suicide bomber blew himself outside a rip-roaring Tel Aviv shopping mall. Police reported that he crossed the Dizengoff and King George streets and the contraption tucked in his body exploded in the middle of people and cars.

The blast came hardly a day after a Hamas Muslim suicide bomber killed 18 people on a bus in Jerusalem.

These senseless acts of human slaughter are principally targeted at scuttling the Arab-Israel peacemaking process. They also push Prime Minister Shimon Peres’ political life further down the river as he struggles to fight off stiff opposition in the May 29 early elections.

There is no other way of describing young peoples’ offer to blow their lives for bizarre course other than that they are lunatic and demonic. Hamas was quoted as declaring that the campaign to heartlessly put a stop to the lives of hundreds of innocent men, women and children, is just but began. The implication is that despite proposed draconian security measures to be effected by the Peres’ government, the world will continue witnessing to grotesque scenes of blood-spattered bodies strewn in the streets.

Logic and common sense miserably fail to explain the ultimate achievements from the infantile decisions of people as young as 24-year-old Salan Abdel-Rahim who on Thursday offered to become the mortal sacrifice of this satanic campaign.
There is a lot more that needs to be done towards reaching a comprehensive solution to this train of murder. Bombing the homes of known suicide bombers as a retaliatory move, certainly, does not constitute part of this. The move is not only too punitive, but also counterproductive because it amounts to committing murder on possible innocent people to revenge against a departed murderer’s criminal act against innocent people.

It would be foolhardy for the security structures in Jerusalem to assume that families of the bombers are guilty of actions by individuals who are likely to have arrived at personal and independent decisions away from their families’ influence or knowledge. It is also fallacious and shortsighted for some US Republican leaders to campaign to have aid to the Palestinian state scissored as a retaliatory move against Hamas terrorist. The hollow assumption again here is that innocent Palestinians going about their daily lives are guilty of murderous designs by a small group of callous and shadowy groups in the name of Hamas or the Islamic Jihad.

Mountainous as the war against individuals who have little regard to their right to live appears, victory will not be realised through irrational and hasty decisions by the parties concerned. It will require systematic and co-ordinated bomb detection efforts, where the US yesterday agreed to assist Israel with a good portion of such gadgets. Washington’s desperate eagerness to tame barbarous bloodletting also saw America dispatch a team of “experts” to help train both Israelis and Palestinians on the use of the sophisticated technology.

On the stalled peace mission, Israel must desist from being overly reactionary but must take heart and continue their moral support to the apparent expensive roadshow to peace with their Arab neighbours. All means must be used to ensure that the Middle East does not plunge into further abysmal gutter of terrorism that rocked the region for decades.

The price to pay for supporting the peace process despite the continuous efforts to derail it by Islamic supremacists is far less than allowing the region to slide back to the days
when an eye for an eye or murdering the enemy on sight was almost the official policy of dealing with rivals.

Text 2: DN, March 10, Editorial

Patience can win Middle-East peace

The hammer blows Hamas extremists rained on the Middle-East peace process can now be reflected in the opinion polls on the coming electoral race between premier Shimon Peres' Labour and the Benjamin Netanyahu-led opposition Likud party. Mr. Peres trails Mr. Netanyahu in most surveys and that is worrying.

It is worrying because Mr. Netanyahu is a Likud hawk and his hardliner stance against the Palestinians would certainly have a bearing on the peace process. The peace process is one that has so far been marked by a delicate process of compromise and consensus and indications so far are that Mr. Netanyahu may be too impatient for that kind of business.

However that Likud is heading the opinion surveys cannot be surprising to observers around the world. The effect of the three massive Hamas suicide bombs in Israel has been to spread terror, tears, fears and to inflame passions and hatred among hardliner Israelis.

Naturally, that is the kind of ground that Likud leaders and activists can exploit simply and, quite naturally, by calling Mr. Peres and Labour to account. Security is to Israel what owning a piece of land is to Kenyans, that is, a national obsession. The Israel leadership must at all times guarantee the security of their people and it is easy for the opposition to argue that Mr. Peres has failed.

But is that not too early? There is a crackdown on both sides, waged by President Yasser Arafat and by Jerusalem against extremist Hamas elements and their Islamic Jihad.
counterparts. And then there is the special equipment that has been ferried in by Washington to detect explosive devices and, therefore, make the work of the bombers difficult.

There initiatives should be given time and, it should also be borne in mind, Hamal have suspended their horrific bombing missions in Israel. This is not to argue that terrorists should be listened to, but to state that this gesture could be used to buy time and put in place a mechanism to stop them. Why are we arguing thus?

Ultimately, it is the people of Israel who must and will choose their leaders come May 29, but it must be stated quite clearly that at this time, Mr. Netenyahu is a threat to the peace process yet, in the long term, the issue is the attainment of lasting peace.


Waffling about bullying won't do

Education Minister Joseph Kamotho and the Nairobi Provincial Inspector of Schools, Mr. William Obumba, are ducking and prevaricating over a serious matter in Kenya's Schools. The question is did two students, one at Nairobi and the other at Thika's Chania High School, die as a result of bullying by senior students?

Parents and sections of the student fraternity in both schools seem convinced the two died as a result of being bullied by their seniors, but it now appears that the Ministry of Education would like to downplay the matter of bullying in schools and look for a scapegoat to explain away this double tragedy.

Mr. Kamotho, when confronted by news people waffles about bullying being a sign of indiscipline in schools and reflecting badly on the school's administration, especially the headteacher. He, in characteristic but deceptive fashion warns that any such school head will be dealt with by the Ministry.
Then, of course, he says investigations are underway to establish the circumstances that led to the death of the Chania student. In Nairobi, Mr. Obumba denies a Nairobi school student died as a result of bullying, but, he says in the same breath, his office has not received any report to the effect that a student died over such circumstances.

However, he adds, he is going to investigate and, like the Minister, warns the Ministry will take tough action against students who bullied others. But, he touches on an equally grave matter. He asks the Principal Administration to help the Ministry of Education in phasing out the use and abuse of drugs by students.

We won’t get to the root of such a serious problem by this kind of waffling. The Ministry of Education should have started investigations immediately press reports said students had been killed by their seniors through bullying. It’s pointless talking about the presence or absence of bullying. There has always been bullying in our schools.

The issue right now is that it appears to be getting out of hand because we have complaints about students killing others. That, and the related issue of use and abuse of drugs, is the point of departure. We do not have to tell Mr. Kamotho and Mr. Obumba that human life is not something to trifle with.

*Text 4: KT, March 13, 1996 Editorial*

**Pearl Omega: Issues critics cannot ignore**

For the last two weeks, medical experts, a section of the mainstream media and other chronic sceptics have poured cold water on the credibility of top medical guru, Prof. Arthur Obel, over his discovery of *Pearl Omega* drug used in the management of Aids.

The media - nay a section of it - have particularly vilified the scientist as an embarrassing source of hoaxes regarding his involvement in research efforts aimed at
taming the deadly disease. Notorious for this has been The People where reporters and their editors have made use of every available space to write disparaging reports on Prof. Obel and his research work, often portraying him as a professional cheat out to capitalise on the vulnerability of Aids patients to reap a financial kill.

Prof. Obel himself conceded on Monday that Pearl Omega is not a cure but can be used in the management of the disease. That, however, did not mean that he had not changed the course for the lives of seven patients who had tested positive on the disease, but after treatment had tested negative.

*We cannot at this stage vouch or take oath to curability power of Pearl Omega.* Yet we leave it open for those who have danced with death but later had their fate changed by the drug’s dosages to tell whether you can rely on the drug or not.

*Our paramount concern is how a section of Kenyans have matured into emotional and brash iconoclasts; downright reactionaries too eager to shoot down even complicated research work before they can hardly understand the nuts and bolts behind its production.*

The reactions, not responses, were purely personal.

*When this paper broke out the news of Prof. Obel’s findings and interviewed about 31 Aids sufferers, our competitors were quick on the campaign effort to discredit the story merely on the grounds that we were being used for Prof. Obel’s propaganda efforts. They became easy platforms for Prof. Obel’s detractors to highlight often trivialised criticism without even spending little time to investigate the basics about the drug.*

*We are perfectly sure that the had story about the drug been broken in Western newsrooms, those out to pound Prof. Obel as a credibility wimp would have reacted with veneration and awe. The intensity with which some critics, including even medical experts have overreacted to Prof. Obel’s findings, would most likely suggest that some Kenyans are more than convinced that when a cure for Aids is discovered, it will be from some laboratory at Havard Medical School or a research unit somewhere in the West.*
We are concerned, just like other cautious Kenyans, about highlighting a medical report on Aids that would give license to loose behavioural practices that would intensify the spread of the disease.

Such an effort would not only be a disaster in the management of the disease, but would also amount to the pinnacle of professional irresponsibility.

However, our story line has been and will remain the same; that Pearl Omega has been administered and will remain the some Aids patients who after testing positive have shown substantive recovery to an extent of testing negative.

That is what we found newsworthy and told our readers. We are also sure that had some of our competitors laid their hands on this, we could be deaf with the "World Exclusive" tag. But because we beat them to it, some of our colleagues are creaking at the burdens of the sour grapes syndrome.

It would have been more worthwhile if fellow researchers and scientists would come up with comprehensive and constructive criticism of the performance of the drug in the treatment of Aids so as to tell the world it's leaking points. They should be disputing the fact that at least seven of those involved in the initial test had shown reverse effects of the drug. The scientific success of the discovery of an Aids cure will not be made through press statements and other media snippings. Success will only be realised through the concerted work of scientists like Prof. Obel whose prime goal will be saving the lives of Aids sufferers. Whether the cure will come from Pearl Omega or not is besides the point.

Comments

In chapter 4, we mentioned that editorials make extensive use of figures of speech and other literary techniques. We have appendixed 4 editorial texts for reference but we shall attempt a brief analysis of only two of these. The two are based on terrorism in the Middle East. i.e
KT, *March 6, 1996* “Terrorism mustn’t derail the talks”

**Thematic pattern**
- Israel is heavily bleeding from a bomb blast
- ...to blow their lives for a bizarre course
- ...despite proposed draconian ...will continue witnessing grotesque scenes of blood-spattered bodies strew in the street
- ...barbarous bloodletting
- ...gutter of terrorism that racked the region for...
- ...senseless acts of human slaughter...scuttling the peacemaking....

**Metaphors**
- Mountainous as the war against....
- ...train of murder
- pushes Peres’s political life down the river as he....
- advocate aid be scissored as a ..... to tame the barbarous bloodletting
- ....Israel is heavily bleeding from a bomb blast....

**Idiomatic expressions**
- .....to fight off stiff opposition
- „„„price to pay
- „„„an eye for an eye
- put a stop to.....
- .....take heart....

In terms of critical linguistics, classification of the actors and their actors shows an overwhelming negative attitude towards the bombers who are described by among other terms....

- Terrorists
- Hames Muslim suicide bombers
- Islamic supremacists
callous and shadowy groups
- the Bombers

Their actions are described by such strong terms as:
- these senseless acts of human slaughter
- lunatic and demonic
- to heartlessly put a stop to the lives of men, women and children
- infantile decisions
- train of murder
- murderers designs
- gutter of terrorism

DN, March 10, 1996 titled “Patience can win Middle East peace”

Rhetoric patterns
- **peace process**
- ...a delicate process marked by compromise and consenses
- ...effect has been to spread terror, tears and fears, to inflame passions and hatred [most of these terms are derived from a similar semantic field so they rhyme at semantic level!]

Diction expressions
- **the hammer blows** Hamas extremists rained on the Middle East peace process
- ...in the long term
- ...it can be used to **buy time**

An example of a rebuttal argument is found in the second to last paragraph which goes! “This is not to argue that terrorists should be listened to, but to state that this gesture could be used to buy time.” This aspect we said is an important characteristic of editorials.

The use of questions in editorials is common. First we mentioned rhetorical questions to which no answer are provided or needed. Here, we have questions asked and answered in the editorial:
“But is that not too early?” and
“Why are we arguing thus?”

A case of comparison and contrast as demonstrated in this text is the fourth paragraph where the writer says;

“Security is to Israel what owning a piece of land is to Kenyans, that is, a national obsession”.

At the level of classification of actors and their actions, the DN like KT expresses a distaste to the actions of the bombers as seen in the following descriptions:

♦ Hamas extremists
♦ massive Hamas suicide bombs
♦ extremist Hamas elements
♦ horrifying bombing missions
♦ terrorists
♦ the bombers

The ideology of both newspapers in this respect is against terrorism - an issue especially sensitive in the western countries relationship with the Arab world. The latter see the actions of the Palestinians as genuine holy wars if not liberation wars. Hence, representation here is ideologically significant both in terms of global politics and in terms of religions.
Appendix 3 News-Analysis

Text 1 SN, March 24, 1996

Why Matiba-Raila pact may not work

For the fractions Opposition, the flirtation between Kenneth Matiba and Raila Odinga - Kenya’s two most important Opposition leaders should be deeply instructive. For they severally have rich political endowments to bring to the proposed marriage.

Their followings are strictly ethnic, true. But the more significant fact is that Mr. Matiba and Raila’s father, Jaramogi Odinga, come second and third only to President Moi in terms of grassroots strength. Their combined voting power could do a great deal of harm to the President’s bid to retain State House in 1997.

As has been remarked umpteen times, had to original FORD remained intact, Jaramogi would have most likely emerged the next president after the 1992 General Elections and, upon his death early in 1994, Mr. Matiba would have taken over and now be the chief.

A merger between Mr. Matiba’s faction of FORD Asili and Mr. Odinga’s faction of FORD Kenya would be invincible for the simple reason that they command solid blocks of voters among two of Kenya’s most populous ethnic groups, the Kikuyu and the Luo.

But the two politicians have other qualities in common. Both are keen to ride, like a meteor, to the pinnacle of power. Both make no attempt to hide it. Both are heady personalities who go for rivals in their respective parties with about as much civility as a fox let look among chickens.

Perhaps this is where the problem lies. Can two such strong minds, who also have said some extraordinarily snide things about each other, ever come together to forge an alliance that sticks?
Niccolo Machiavelli’s answer to the above question would have been that, in politics which is the “art of the possible”, there should be no permanent friends and no permanent enemies.

A “good” politician is not good in any ethical essence, but only because he as drummed up a deep sense of timing and opportunity and knows exactly when to ditch old allies and when to enter a confederacy even with the bitterest enemies.

President Moi’s success as a politician is not that he has stuck loyally to his election promises or his post-election populist pronouncements. It is not that he has implemented this or that deliberate policy aimed at lifting us from our social inadequacies.

He may have done this things. But his success shines most only in the art of politics. When it suited him in 1983, he did not hesitate to shove Mr Charles Njonjo aside, even though Mr. Njonjo had played the key role in ensuring that he succeeded Mzee Kenyatta in 1978.

Because it suits him, President Moi has always kept Dr. Njoroge Mungai by his side, even though Dr. Mungai was in the vanguard of the 1976 “Change-the-constitution” movement whose express aim was to prevent Mr. Moi from succeeding Mzee by constitutional means.

Only those unfamiliar with this aspect of politics can have been surprised at the ruthlessness with which President Moi ejected Mr. Njonjo and by the chumminess with he treated Dr. Mungai.

The exigencies of politics, as the art of survival and self-aggrandizement, always necessitate this kind of behaviour.
Although Mr. Njonjo has a number of admirable principles - nay, because of it - he has always been a poor politician. Moreover, he seems to keep permanent grudges and seeks to wreak revenge even when the political conditions which once caused a grudge have long gone and the new political realities demand friendship rather than vindictiveness.

Unlike President Moi, Mr Njonjo does not appear to have learned any lesson from Mzee Kenyatta, that past master of the game of politics. When it suited him, he boldly stood at the centre of Nakuru - the rule of the white Highlands - and announced that he had forgiven the white settler community.

Of course, he added the rider that he would never forget the indignity and anguish which they had inflicted on him by suborning witnesses to convict and send him to jail and restriction for almost 10 years. But to forget it not the same thing as to forgive. The need of the moment required forgiveness all round.

Similarly, in 1966, when it suited him, he did not think twice before he sent Jaramogi reeling from KANU, forcing him to resign his position as Vice-President of the republic, even though Jaramogi had made the greatest personal political sacrifices to expedite Mr. Kenyatta’s freedom.

Like Mr Njonjo, Jaramogi had undoubted moral qualities (even though Mr. Njonjo’s were rightist’s and Mr. Odinga’s leftist’s). But despite them - nay, because of them - his group of politics as a game was always, surprisingly weak.

Like Mr. Njonjo, he kept grudges for too long and was often vindictive. Moreover, his sense of opportunity was usually poor.

An example took place in 1981, when the President offered the former Vice-President the olive branch by appointing him Chairman of the Cotton Board and helping clear him to fight a parliamentary by-election.
And yet, precisely at that time, he went to Mombasa to unleash a broadside at Jomo Kenyatta, accusing him, among other things, of being a land-grabber.

Few people, of course, would have quarrelled with the ideo-moral content of that charge. For the old man had allowed his regime to be hijacked by a clique of extremely avaricious and extremely ferocious grabbers of public property.

But the timing was most unfortunate. Odinga should have known that his most intractable enemies were still the most powerful elements in President's Moi's government and that Mr. Moi still depended precariously on Mzee Kenyatta's name to consolidate his legitimacy.

Mr. Odinga should have known his enemies would use just such an outburst as he made in Mombasa to claim that he was sabotaging the "nyayo" tenet. The term "nyayo" (footsteps) was just then acquiring it's political significance as a loyalty to Mzee Kenyatta's bequest.

The point, then, is not that Mr Matiba and the younger Odinga should allow old antipathy to stand in the way to conflating their political forces. By their mutual courtship, they indeed show that they are aware of the need for what the German labour movement used to call "Bundnispolitik" (the policy of alliance) with anybody who can help you to promote your interest at any momentary level on the way to power.

Mr Matiba has in the past provided a good example. In 1987, Mr Martin Shikuku stood in parliament and condemned him as Kenya's worst tribal chauvinist with whom it was dangerous to associate. Mr Matiba reacted by giving Mr. Shikuku a number of very unfriendly Sobriquets.

Yet, early in 1992, Mr Matiba and Mr. Shikuku walked out of the original FORD to spearhead the formation of their own FORD.
In the process, they ruined the chances not only of Mr Odinga but also of Mr Matiba himself of being elected President. But that's besides the Point.

The point is that Mr Matiba and Mr Shikuku saw an alliance between the Kikuyu and the Abaluhya - whom some authorities say now outnumber the Luo - world give them a vote superior to that which Mr Moi or Mr Odinga would garner

This would have been a most admirable strategy had it given thought to the fact that the Kikuyu were divided into two and the Abaluhya into three.

The forces of Mr. Mwai Kibaki's Democratic party seem now to be dwindling in their Kikuyu confines. In Buluhya, Mr. Shikuku has been losing grip for some time.

The younger Odinga seems to reason that if Mr. Kibaki's power is waning in Kikuyuland, then Mr. Matiba must be the one profiting. He seems to reason that if, in 1992, Mr. Matiba had united with Mr. Odinga - the leader of the only ethnic group that was solidly united - then the presidency would have been theirs.

He seems to reason that if he - as the heir to Jaramogi's political estate - can reunite the Luo under him and bring them into an alliance with a Matiba whose influence among the Kikuyu he deems to be waxing, then their would be an unbeatable voting bloc. It is in truth, a potent thought.

Despite the personal tragedy which befall Mr Matiba in detention in 1991 - from which we hope he may soon recover- he shows by his own flirtation with Jaramogi's son that he understands and is licking his lips about the political bounty which he stands to bag from such a conflation of energy.

Yet the tragedy seems to stand in his way like the Great Wall of China. It seems to have made him even more intolerant than he is reported to have been before he entered elective politics. He has become quite injudicious in his utterances and inordinately reckless in his actions.
It brings us back to the question I had raised earlier. Can two individuals with equal ambitions for power, equal knack for impolicy, equal contempt for decorum in public and, above all, equal amounts of political fortune at grassroots - can such individuals ever form an alliance which is stable and durable?

When Machiavelli counsels politicians to be ever ready for momentary alliances, he never meant that they should at any time agree to share power equally - or even at all - with their momentary allies. All the alliances formed by President Moi are not alliances in which any of the allies share any real power with him.

Invariably, the alliances take place at his own initiative, in his own timing and on his own terms. They are calculated to promote the political interests of only one individual, namely Mr Moi.

Those entering into an alliance with him known - or should be intelligent enough to know - that their task is only to enhance the chances of that one individual.

And they know - or should know - that their only reward is political protection or financial gain or both. Whenever they are foolhardy enough to try to make their own political capital out of an alliance, as Mr Njonjo and Dr Josephat Karanja did, their days in the alliance are numbered and their downfall is likely to be sheer.

The upshot is that politics of shifting alliances can be beneficial only when the party or individual taking the initiative already has enough power - either in the government or in opposition - to enable him to channel all the benefits of the alliance into his own political bank account.

Practically all the post-election alliances that the opposition has attempted have come a cropper because they were not initiatives of individuals already enjoying overriding power over the other proposed allies.
They were alliances between personages who already enjoyed more or less equal power.

They were alliances of political peers who owned no fealty to each other and, therefore, could not be expected to cower before each other in the race for nomination as their respective parties' presidential candidates.

None of them was an alliance instigated by an individual already enjoying overriding clout to enable him to dictate terms of the alliance. That is why even the super-alliance fronted by Dr. Leakey, will find it insuperably difficult to latch onto one star in this political galaxy as its united presidential candidate. Too many roughly equal ambitious are involved.

It is the reason why it is so difficult to envisage an alliance between Mr. Matiba and Mr Odinga to be stable and to last all the way to the General Elections in two year' time. Their separate ambitions, their volatile tempers and their political recklessness are almost certain to condemn it to stillbirth.

Text 2: KT, April 5, 1996

**Rwandan tension lingers two years after genocide**

Kigali looks normal two years after one of the worst mass slaughters this century, with cafes and cinemas crowded and the air scented with spicy food.

But diplomats say despite appearances, real stability is unlikely, while there are too many Hutu refugees outside Rwanda and too little justice inside.

"A second disaster is not ruled out in this region, said Achim Kratz, the European Union special envoy to Rwanda."
Some 1.7 million refugees from Rwanda’s Hutu majority, at a cost of $1 million a day in aid, remain in Zaire, Burundi and Tanzania nearly two years after they fled Rwanda in fear of reprisals for their role in the genocide of the Tutsi minority.

Few expect the bulk of refugees to return soon. Eventually a large residual group will remain and will have to be resettled in their reluctant host countries semi-permanently, diplomats say.

The track record of the government that came to power in Kigali in July, 1994 after civil war and three-month genocide has been mixed. It has managed to restore general law and order and brought Rwanda largely back to life despite meagre resources.

But Hutu rebels keep the threat of a return to widespread violence alive with forays into Rwanda from camps in Zaire.

“If infiltrations continues and this vicious cycle becomes more intense, you are certain to get an army reaction and maybe civilians being crushed in the middle”, says Shaharyar Khan, the UN special envoy to Rwanda. “One needs to break this cycle.”

For the moment, fears among some aid officials of growing insecurity with the March 8 end of mandate for UN peacekeepers appear unfounded. Diplomats say the government Rwanda Patriotic Army (RPA) is behaving itself.

“This government has established general stability across the country. We will continue to do whatever we can to maintain that,” says Vice-president and Defence Minister Paul Kagame.

“Infiltration is still there, but more so, our capacity to deal with it is growing with time,”
The need for security given the horrors of the genocide in which up to one million Tutsi and Hutu moderates were killed, remains uppermost for Tutsis. Some Hutu suffer from abuses of power.

“We have no other solution but to support this government. It may not have a democratic basis but it ended the genocide,” says the EU’s Kratz.

“Only a strong government can be open to Hutu participation and achieve reconciliation. If it’s weak, infiltration will rise. The government will react. What is now infiltration can escalate.”

The government has consolidated power since 1994 and some diplomats say the real long term danger to Rwanda is not the Hutu insurgency but the growing influence of Tutsi hardliners.

Some fear Rwanda will become like neighbouring Burundi with a mono-ethnic Tutsi army facing hostile Hutus with no-go areas on both sides, little daily interaction and ever more repressive Tutsi rule.

The government sees the long term solution as the time when people see themselves as Rwandans and not Hutus or Tutsis. That would eventually mean elections and an end to domination by the army.

“It’s a question of putting the house in order by creating responsible institutions” says Kagame.

“As for elections, I cannot cross the bridge before I come to it. We’ll have them sometime, but I don’t know when. It will be determined by the conditions of the country.”

Many diplomats in Kigali say the government is on the right track but given pressures both inside and outside the country, few dare to speculate where Rwanda will be in two or three years.
Here is a chronology of events in Rwanda from the start of the 1994 genocide of up to a million members of the Tutsi minority and moderate Hutus sparked by the assassination of Hutu President Juvenal Habyarimana.

April 6, 1994-Habyarimana killed along with Burundi president Cyprian Ntaryamira when rocket downs their plane in Kigali returning from peace summit in Tanzania. In hours, presidential grand starts ethnic slaughter in Kigali.

April 7-Hutu soldiers, militia, and mobs hunt down Tutsis and Hutu opponents of Habyarimana in mass slaughters that spreads out of capital. Government troops attack Rwanda Patriotic front (RPF) rebels holed up in Kigali’s parliament building.

April 7 - Rwanda's women prime minister and Habyarimana critic Agathe Uwilingiyimana raped and butchered by troops. Ten Belgian soldiers guarding her are disarmed tortured and killed.

April 8 - RPF commander Major - general Paul Kagame, citing ethnic killings and breakdown of law and order in Kigali, declares war. His 600 - strong battalion breaks out of positions at parliament and advances into Kigali.

April 9 - Parliament speaker Theodore Sindikubwabo installed as interim president with Jean Kambanda, another Hutu, as prime minister. Move rejected by RPF, which accuses them of being extremist.

April 10- Eight Belgian planes carrying 800 troops arrive in Kigali to reinforce evacuation of foreigners.

April 22 - UN secretary - General Boutros Boutros - Ghali asks security council either to beef up peace keeping force in Rwanda or scale it down. Council votes to cut force to 270 men.

May 1 - More than 250,000 Rwandan refugees flood into Tanzania in fastest single mass exodus seen by UN refugee agency. Agencies in Rwanda struggle to help tens of thousands facing starvation.

May 30 - More than 500,000 Hutus flee capital for town of Gitarama as rebel forces advance on Kigali.

June - RPF commander Kagame says at least a million people have been slaughtered in eight weeks.
June 7 - UN says UN force of 5500 troops ready for Rwanda mission but lacks equipment and logistics.

June 12 - Rump Hutu government flees Gitarama to northern town of Gisenyi as its army makes last stand against rebels

July 4 - Rwandan capital falls to RPF rebels. More than a million Hutus cross into Zairean towns of Goma and Bukavu.

July 19 - New government sworn-in with Pasteur Bizimungu a Hutu, named president and Kagame as vice-president.

Nov 8 - UN security council approves international Court for Rwandan war criminals.

Dec. 24 - Hutu refugees in eastern Zaire announce government in exile.

April 22, 1995 - Thousands of displaced Hutus killed at Kibeho camp when government troops more to close camp.

Aug 28 - Prime Minister Faustin Twagiramungu, a moderate Hutu, announces resignation. Officials say he was sacked.

Sep. 12 - At least 110 Hutus killed in raid by government troops on village of Kanama near Zairean frontier.

Nov. 23 - First indictment signed by prosecutor of International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda.

Nov. 29 - leaders from Great lakes region meet in Cairo.

Comments

The news analysis text that we will give a brief analysis of is titled “Why Matiba-Raila pact may not work” as it appears in the appendix here. We are concerned in highlighting the structural strategies used in developing the point of the essay - this is especially for those that are considered in one way or another to be literary.

Idiomatic expressions

......they go for their rivals with about as much civility as a fox let loose among chickens

......he did not think twice before he sent Jaramogi reeling from...
...When the President offered the former vice-president the olive branch by appointing....

...post election alliances that the opposition have attempted have come a cropper

**Metaphor**

In the text, the metaphor of the alliance being a “marriage” underlines the exposition starting with the use of the word “flirtation” in the first line of the text and the last words in the paragraph “proposed marriage”. Other terms used that keep this image recurring include “courtship”, “flirtation” etc. The test even ends with the proposition that the marriage is almost certain to be condemned “to (a) stillbirth”.

The essay makes extensive use of sentence structures, that repeat particular phrases, words etc this type of repetition is considered literary and here is seen to have some rhythmical effects to the sentences. In addition, such construction, are used for the effect of balancing otherwise contrastive ideas or positions by parallelism. In all, they are a mark of the high organizational structure of news analysis as can be demonstrated in the following extracts taken from the text:

- President Moi’s success as a politician is not that he has stuck loyally to the election promises...it is not that he has implemented this or that deliberate policy....But his success shines most only in the art of politics...he did not hesitate to shove Mr. Charles Njonjo aside, even though Mr Njonjo had played...(he) has always kept Dr. Njoroge Mungai by his side, even though Dr. Mungai was in the...

- Although Mr. Njonjo had a number of admirable principles nay, because of it - he has always been a poor politician...Jaramogi had undoubted moral qualities...but despite them - nay, because of them his grasp of politics as a game was always surprisingly weak.

Thus, if we are to go by the assertion by Nowottony (1978) that literary language is more highly structured, news analysis aspires to literary dimension, based on the complexity of structures therein [see 2.1.15]
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