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**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN**

**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**

**CENTRE FOR APPLIED LANGUAGE AND LITERACY STUDIES AND  
SERVICES IN SOUTHERN AFRICA**

**AN EXAMINATION OF POSITIONING IN  
EDITORIALS, BUSINESS AND SPORTS  
COMMENTARIES IN THE LESOTHO WEEKLY NEWSPAPER, *Public Eye*.**

A minor dissertation presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

Degree of

**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION IN APPLIED LANGUAGE AND  
LITERACY STUDIES**

By

**MOKHOELE AARON HALA-HALA (HLHMOK001)**

**Supervisor: Professor Kay McCormick**

**February 2007**

# DECLARATION

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work of works of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

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Signature,.....

Date ..12 June 2007

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University of Cape Town

## ABSTRACT

In this thesis I have examined positioning in editorials, business and sports commentaries in three issues of the Lesotho weekly newspaper, *Public Eye*. The study is premised on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and selected approaches to media production so as to provide a sociopolitical and cultural context for textual analysis in the study.

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction which serves to give the background of this study with brief mention of CDA and media theory as the theoretical orientations of the study. Chapter 2 details the conceptual and theoretical context of the study. The chapter focuses on the approaches to media production and media genres, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), CDA, and strategies of positioning.

In Chapter 3, I describe the qualitative methodology on which my data collection and analysis were premised. For my analysis I used the CDA as well as Fairclough's three-dimensional model which I also supplement with metafunctions of SFL. In Chapter 4, I give some background to the newspaper from which my texts are drawn, and I analyze positioning in nine texts – three from each genre. My conclusive remarks draw on differences and similarities in the positioning strategies adopted in each genre. My findings reflect that *Public Eye* uses various linguistic markers of positioning and show the extent to which these are consistent with the theory explored in this study. Chapter 5 starts with a brief overview of the research, notes its limitations and comments on what I regard as the most interesting findings.

## **KEY - INITIALS FOR FULL NAMES OF INTERVIEWEES**

WA – Wyngaardt Aletta, administrator

PB - Peter Bosiu, reader

TT - Tseliso Tsoeu, reader

NL - Ntsau Lekhetho, journalist

NS - Nthakeng Selinyane, columnist

MM - Mahlomola Moloko, editor

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Introduction

The concept of language as a form of social practice has attracted the attention of many researchers in fields such as education, applied linguistics, social psychology as well as anthropology over many decades. The study of language as social practice has drawn attention to the social effects of particular ways of communicating, including positioning. The term positioning is used “in critical approaches to the study of language to suggest that texts or discourses position people in certain ways in order to encourage a particular point of view, or interpretation of an event...” (Swann et al., 2004:246). The positioning of subjects in texts can be reflected through a number of linguistic devices. For example, one of the most important areas of language which is concerned with positioning is the modality system. According to Fowler et al., modality is used to

cover linguistic constructions which may be called pragmatic and interpersonal. Modality also expresses speakers' and writers' attitudes towards themselves, towards their interlocutors, and towards their subject-matter; their social and economic relationships with people they address and actions which are performed via language (ordering, accusing, promising, pleading) (Fowler et al., 1979:200).

I am particularly interested in the linguistic devices used to express positioning in print media discourse, particularly editorials, business and sports commentaries in a Lesotho weekly newspaper, *Public Eye*.

This study is also informed by the theory of media production with focus on the approaches to media production. Media production involves the conveying of meanings between two different points: production and consumption. This involves media professionals whose task is not just to make and pass on meanings but it is also to select from certain possible choices to build stories or narratives with which they may move their audiences in some ways (Jakubowicz 2006:604). Given this, it can be noted that media production is

one of the important sites in which positioning is commonly used for communicative purposes in various social and cultural contexts.

## 1.2. Background to the Study

In aiming to examine the linguistic traces of positioning in media discourse, this study is theoretically based on the work of Norman Fairclough (1989, 1992, 1995a), the British linguist who has done much work in analyzing media discourse. As a branch of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis, CDA examines discursive practices, showing how discourse enacts power relations and ideologies as well as how it impacts “on social identities, social relations and systems knowledge and belief”, the aspects which are not necessarily apparent to discourse participants (Fairclough 1992:12). CDA is an approach to the study of language which brings together linguistically-oriented discourse analysis and sociopolitical concepts which are relevant to discourse and language (Fairclough 1992:62). Fairclough’s well known media analysis focused on Thatcherism, the ideology identified with Margaret Thatcher, the British Prime Minister in the 1980s (Fairclough 1989). Thatcherite ideology includes, among other things, some increasingly conversationalised features of discourse to which I will return in more detail in chapter four.

Although Fairclough’s publications, including his seminal work, Language and Power in 1989, have been so significant in CDA studies, they seem to have overlooked some significant areas of discursal interest from other geographical contexts. His work has centred on discourses drawn from the developed and/or the first world contexts (Blommaert, 2005:35-36). The present study applies some of Fairclough’s analytical framework to the analysis of editorials, business and sports commentaries produced in Lesotho which is a developing country.

Being particularly interested in examining positioning in media discourse in the so-called third world context of Lesotho, I wish to use Fairclough’s model in order to facilitate comparative analysis of media texts within and across a selected series of the same publication. For my present purposes I think it is

both exciting and invaluable to do discourse analysis in the particular context of Lesotho. In Lesotho issues of national interest, including those involved in media production are evident in the weekly newspaper, *Public Eye*. Editorials, business and sports commentaries were investigated as examples of different media genres. I drew on three newspaper issues, published in the December 2004, 2005 and 2006. I argue that the application of CDA on texts from this newspaper reveals well-articulated positioning through a range of discursive practices, and shows that there are some differences in the ways in which positioning is achieved in the three selected genres.

### **1.3. Focal Research Topic and Sub-questions**

This study attempts to examine positioning. In order to focus this research topic I addressed the following questions in my analysis of the texts from *Public Eye*:

- What kinds of positioning strategies are used in editorials, business news and sports commentaries?
- How is modality used in editorials, business news and sports commentaries to reflect positioning?
- Are there any significant differences and similarities between editorials, business news and sports commentaries in their use of the modality system and other positioning strategies?

### **1.4. Rationale**

As an experienced and committed English language teacher, during the course of my MA studies I have become aware of the benefits that high school learners could derive from gaining skills in critical discourse analysis. I also believe that as a result of my dissertation I will be well equipped with necessary CDA-related skills to present it to other educators for considering as an additional component to include in their language teaching activities. According to Fowler, the inclusion of such skills could equip both teachers and learners “as language users with skills for demystificatory readings of

ideology-laden texts especially in the education system” (Fowler 1996:6). In the same vein, Alan Luke (1995-1996) argues that:

CDA is a constructive moment which sets out to bring about agency among students, teachers, and others as well as equipping them with tools to see how texts represent the social and natural world in particular interests and how texts position them and generate the very relations of institutional power at work in classrooms, staff rooms, and policy (Luke 1995-1996:12-13).

Such skills could be inculcated by me and other language practitioners as a result of Critical Language Awareness (CLA) skills derived from this study as a useful introduction to CDA. Work on my dissertation has enabled me to pursue my own interest in critical discourse analysis and also to equip me with the necessary skills to introduce it to the students that I teach. Pennycook points out that CDA is useful for applied linguistics focusing on discourse types, the relationship between discourse and background knowledge, awareness of classroom interaction and so on (Pennycook 1993:133).

I have developed interest in the analysis of texts in which aspects of modality are significant. My teaching experience in an English second language environment, in Lesotho, has revealed that the proper use of the modality system often poses problems to many English Second Language (ESL) and even some English First Language (EFL) learners in various discourse domains. Because the modality system is so significant, learners should be conscientised about its usage with reference to positioning. As McCarthy & Carter, (1994:102) point out; modality is “an all pervasive feature of most discourses”. The authors go on to say that this particular aspect of language deserves close attention in any language course (ibid: 102). I also believe that as a result of my work I will be better equipped with skills such as the application of CDA and Systemic Functional Linguistics on which Fairclough’s version of the former is based. Systemic Functional Linguistics refers to language as a system of choices for making meaning (Halliday, 1978:39). This is because the skills learned from both of the theories may help me not only tackle the daily academic classroom problems, but it may also me assist and convince my colleagues about the need for the inclusion of CDA/CLA-related discourse materials at the local high school level.

As part of a socially situated study, language awareness can be created to improve English language teaching and learning in different kinds of ways. For example, CLA can be promoted through conscientising learners about language behaviours which involve power differentials and abuses of power and alerting them to social practices and disparities associated with language use. As Fairclough (1992) suggests, Critical Language Awareness (CLA) can provide school children with knowledge to initiate change in their own discourse practices, and the discourse practices of their own adjacent communities. This knowledge would also form part of learners' own language and discourse experience to help them become more conscious of the practice they are involved in as producers and consumers of texts: of the social forces and interests that shape it; the power relations and ideologies that invest it and its effects upon social identities. Learners can therefore become consciously aware of constraints upon their own practices, and of possibilities, risks and costs, both individually and collectively challenging those constraints to engage in 'emancipatory' and transformative language practices (Fairclough, 1992:239-240).

Given the above, it can be further noted that knowledge of CDA to which this study aims to contribute can have very significant effects on learners, effects which one hopes will last throughout adulthood. Even more importantly, the findings may serve as a point of departure for future CDA studies in the human and social sciences as well as contributing to the existing pool of knowledge in the same disciplines and elsewhere. The fact that this study is situated in the particular context of Lesotho and has an especially exploratory focus on media genres analyzed, is, I think, of significance. The textual analysis focused on newspaper articles might, I think, be foundational in the Lesotho high school context thereby creating motivation on the part of language practitioners, more especially, my colleagues to embark on CDA-related action research on practical language problems which need urgent solutions.

## **1.5. Structure of the Dissertation**

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction to the study, laying a foundation for other chapters that follow. In Chapter two, I give an account of the theories which inform this research. In Chapter three, I describe the methodology which I used in my data collection and analysis. I go on to describe the principles underpinning my research. Issues of ethical concern are also discussed in this chapter. In Chapter four, I present and discuss my textual analysis of selected primary data as well as of texts from secondary sources: the mission statement and interviews which form the background to the newspaper. In Chapter five, I bring together the threads of my argument, also noting the extent to which the aims and objectives of the study have been achieved. I outline the most interesting features of my study and indicate some of the limitations.

He argues that in order to understand any text one must understand both the broad social, economic and political context and also the immediate context in which it is produced, distributed and consumed.

# **CHAPTER TWO**

## **THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

### **2.1. Introduction**

In this chapter I give an account of the theoretical bases for my analysis. My textual analysis of positioning in newspaper texts is done within the framework of Fairclough's CDA. Fairclough himself has written extensively on media. He argues that in order to understand any text one must understand both the broad social, economic and political context and also the immediate context in which it is produced, distributed and consumed. I have drawn on media theory to give me an understanding of how the broader context affects the production of media texts, and also the internal workings of the media.

I deal first with two approaches to media production and media performance, which seek to explain the relationship between the media and the broad social, economic and political context. These are the liberal-pluralist, and the political-economy approaches. (Fairclough uses the political economy approach in his work in media analysis). Next I turn to the sociology of news production approach for what it shows about the immediate, organisational context in which the text is produced. Thereafter I give a brief account of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) because it is central to Fairclough's CDA. The last section of the chapter is devoted to critical discourse analysis as an approach to textual analysis. In the next section I also give some detail about the analytic tools of CDA.

### **2.2. Media Theory**

In the media language is used to reflect positioning and power. The term mass media covers all types of media, including printed material, such as newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, books, manuals, directions as well as electronic media such as radio, TV, the online media on the internet and so on (Jucker 1995). Mass media are of interest to disciplines such as discourse analysis, sociology, social psychology, semiotics, sociolinguistics,

communication studies and pragmatics (Jucker 1995). For this reason, media production has attracted the attention of professionals from different areas of academia including media studies and CDA.

There is debate over the role of internal and external influences on the news production process. Questions have arisen for example, whether it is journalists themselves who are responsible for news production or whether they are just agents of some external forces outside of newsrooms, thereby either directly or indirectly relaying the news agendas of such forces. The term journalism “refers to any authored text, in written, audio or visual form, which claims to be (i.e. is presented to its audience as) a truthful statement about, or record of, some hitherto unknown (new) feature of the actual, social world” (McNair 1998:4).

Any assessment of media performance should not be done in isolation from their intricate relationship with the corporate, political and socioeconomic world both nationally and globally. On one hand this is because such a relationship arguably has a direct bearing on media production partly because of the financial support, as well as regulation and ownership of media operations by external and influential forces. On the other one has to contend with the view that the media determine what is newsworthy and how that can be disseminated to the public drawing on journalistic principles, rather than taking orders from the broader political and social hierarchies in society. In this regard, media production is seen as an independent domain which also acts as a watchdog over government activities on behalf of the public. It is important to note that these approaches, while varied at face value, also complement each other. Only through an exploration of these approaches can one come to terms with what they each can offer for a study of this nature.

Schroder argues that media texts should be analyzed as independent objects within a wider social context (Schroder 2006:623). Drawing on Fairclough’s framework, textual analysis should account for contexts in which media production is based (Fairclough 1989:231). The reason is that the *Public Eye*

as a media organisation operates within a set of norms and values which are partly defined by the paper's relationship with centres of political and economic power in Lesotho, while also partly being influenced by the organizational dynamics within the newspaper itself. The discussion below focuses on the selected theoretical approaches to media performance.

### **2.2.1. Liberal-Pluralist Approaches**

According to liberal-pluralist approaches, the overriding role of the media is to monitor the state in its daily business. For example, the media should pay close attention to power abuse, corruption and other forms of wrong doing by the state. This is a traditional theory which views the Leviathan state as a key institution which, if left unmonitored by the "fourth estate"—which is the media—can potentially abuse power (Curran, 2000). In order to do their job, the media should be anchored in a free market system and be independent from government and political pressures, operating without any subjection to tough public licensing, franchising and public regulation (Kelly and Bonway 1990:97, cited in Curran 2000:121).

Liberal-pluralist approaches argue that there is a close connection between the media's role in critical surveillance of the state, and its allegiance to the public (Curran 2000:127). Investigative journalism is viewed as the premier method of exposing official abuse of authority. Further, journalists themselves are seen as independent professionals who can resist pressure from proprietors and advertisers in their pursuit of the truth and a democratic cause (Curran, 2000).

Given the agency powers that journalists have, the liberal-pluralist view argues that the media can influence social developments and changes in certain ways. These may include influencing the minds of voters and political processes through their information, entertainment and educational texts (Katz 1992, cited in Curran 2002:134, 135, 136). At the same time, through holding authority to account, journalism is viewed as contributing to democratization.

As stated above, the liberal-pluralist approach is based on a free market system which is seen to be conducive for efficient resource allocation, economic vitality and prosperity. It advocates broad deregulation of the media. The assumption is that the media should self-regulate through voluntary codes of conduct, while market forces also dictate media operations.

The significance of the approach is that it highlights the watchdog role of the media on government and argues that it is necessary that the context of media production be unregulated by powerful institutions. The approach is also important in so far as it recognizes the role of journalistic agency against structural constraints, something that other approaches like political economy overlook.

However, this approach has a few shortcomings which need to be mentioned here. Firstly its argument in favour of complete deregulation of the media is impractical, especially with regard to electronic media which requires the allocation of the electromagnetic spectrum (Kupe, 2003). Further, even in those cases where extensive deregulation has occurred, the media landscape has become the monopoly of a few conglomerates (Bagdikian, 2000). This is inimical to democracy.

Secondly, it should also be argued that the government is not the only threat to media operation and freedom as liberal-pluralists assume. There are also other threats or potential threats. According to McChesney, the media's alliance with big business can limit the media's surveillance role on corporate malpractice (McChesney 1997, cited in Curran 2000:123). In other words, if the media's primary function in society is to hold authority to account, then that role should include the state and capital as well as any other powerful groups within civil society.

## 2.2.2. The Political Economy of the Media Approach

The political economy approach to media production examines how owners exercise their power over consumers, public production and consumption. The perspective sees different spheres of life including journalism as full of inequalities because of capitalism. To use Josef Ernst's words, "News is a product of biases which derive from the foreknowledge individual journalists have about their own political environment and the pressures this environment places on their work" (Ernst 1988: 126, cited in McNair 1998: 83). According to Boyd-Barrett (1995), the political economy approach is concerned with the study of social relations of power "that mutually constitute production, distribution and consumption of resources including communication resources as well as studying control and survival of social life, socioeconomic, historical as well as cultural changes and relations" (Boyd-Barrett 1995:186). Based on philosophical and moral principles and values, the political economy approach studies media institutions and their contexts at different stages of production and historical processes. Particularly crucial here are the growth of media, expansion of corporate reach, commodification as well as the changing roles of the state and government all of which play a significant role in the commodification, spatialisation and structuration of the media (ibid: 187).

The political economy approach views media as having dual characteristics: firstly as industrial enterprises, and secondly as socio-cultural and political institutions which are key to the functioning of democracy, especially if they are publicly, rather than privately owned (Boyd-Barrett, Ibid). Fairclough (1995) views media texts and programmes as "symbolic cultural commodities" typically produced for profit-making purposes under competitive commercial pressures (Fairclough 1995:42).

According to the political economy approach media content results from both structured and unstructured relationships of the media to other social institutions and the economy, leading to the formation of social ideologies. For example, the activities of the investors and captains of global industries now form a significant part of media content because media themselves have

become businesses. In this view the “economic news comes out as ideological construct”, the aspect which marks the ideological ‘bias’ of the media (Croteau & Hoynes 2003:171).

Fairclough (1995) points out that the press and commercial broadcasting “are pre-eminently profit-making organizations; they make their profits by selling audiences to advertisers....” (Fairclough 1995:42). In this way, the political economy view further highlights the triangular relationship between media, audience and advertisers. This relationship impacts on audiences’ time resources in their trying to consume media products with the media as an intermediary between the advertisers and consumers. The political economy perspective also emphasizes advertising which promotes certain ideologies or worldviews of the dominant groups, with audiences being regarded as buyers and consumers rather than citizens.

The political economy approach views establishment institutions such as the police and courts of law as primary news definers. According to this view these definers influence media production sometimes by dictating verbatim versions of crime reports and sentences of culprits to the media. This could be partly because the media not only pay close attention to information from such offices, but they also treat such sources with trust. Hall and others, in their *Policing the crisis*, suggest that crime stories are very much influenced by and defined from the perspectives of those who have first hand accounts of the crime itself (in Hesmondhalgh 2006: 66, 67).

Herman and Chomsky (1988:1-2), who argue from the point of view of political economy, view media as biased towards powerful corporate institutions and governments, especially in cases where the media are owned and controlled by big business and where state-capital interests are similar. For them, news filters and gatekeepers who screen and select news for publication include owners, advertising agencies, consultants and spokespersons or spindoctors from government and business. The role of government, organized groups, individuals and so on is to discipline the media in the form of negative responses to unflattering media coverage. This can also take the form of

letters, phone calls, petitions and so on. In countries where religion forms a dominant part of society, gatekeeping within the media can be influenced by the demands of powerful religious leaders. All these elements work reciprocally to influence media coverage in different kinds of ways. In the same vein, government, for example, may introduce regulations which might be restrictive in terms of access to information as in the case of the Gulf War in 1991 where developments in the battlefield were dominated by Pentagon in the US (Croteau & Hoynes 2003:123).

Fairclough (1995:44ff) argues that media products are owned and ideologically shaped by the few who reproduce social relations of domination and exploitation implicitly in texts. He cites cases in which global media moguls Rupert Murdoch and the late Robert Maxwell manipulated US commercial broadcasters which they owned for purposes of promoting their own personal and commercial interests (ibid: 45). Fairclough's claim also concerns news coverage and news formulations which he sees as a problematic, though common long-term phenomenon where news headlines are not attributed. He cites the example of President Bush's statements which came prior to Iraq invasion of 1991. For example, the editorial of the *Sun* headline read: '*He had It coming*' and '*teach-Saddam-a lesson*', formulations often replicated statements often heard from the White House (Fairclough 1995:97). Bruck echoes Fairclough's proposition suggesting that such formulations are expressed depending on the type of discourse; for him they probably occur more frequently in news reports than editorials or features (Bruck 1989, cited in Fairclough 1995:98).

The political economy approach to media stresses the fact that news content is largely determined by the corporate and government elites before it goes public. Central here is that the political economy approach highlights the bigger picture of media operation showing how the media can be influenced from outside in their daily news work. Media functions, according to this perspective, are largely confined to purveying the dominant views in society. Where liberal-pluralists give the media significant agency powers, political

economists argue that the media are generally submissive to powerful political and corporate interests in society.

While it is important to note the role played by the state and corporate business in media production, as outlined by political economists, it could also be argued that the media as professionals take certain professional and independent decisions in their daily news work. Given this, it would be oversimplified to state, as Herman and Chomsky (1988) do, that media production is completely determined from outside. Media operations call for decision-making processes which involve humans therefore rendering unpredictable some inputs by outside forces such as regulations by the state. Here the media are in a better position to ignore, challenge, reinterpret, self-regulate and preempt some of the regulations at will (Croteau and Hoynes 2003: 123).

Bourdieu views media power as symbolic or cultural, serving to create symbols and meanings which are publicly circulated and which affect people's views of the world around them. Education, religion and media institutions are some of the specific examples (Bourdieu, in Hesmondhalgh 2006:71). According to him, the media act much like a contested field, a ground for multiple and competing forces struggling to affect media and policy agendas. The social power of media sources is used to reproduce and increase inequalities within the media, consciously and/or unconsciously, or through playing a compliant role with existing power structures, the business community and state. Political economists probably need to adopt a more nuanced approach to media and social power, something that Bourdieu does. At the same time, this does not take away the positive aspects of political economy of the media approach, which I outlined earlier.

### **2.2.3. The Sociology of News Production Approach**

The sociology of news production is concerned with the social and organizational practices, occupations and professions, as well as social construction of ideology in news (Schudson 2000:177). This emphasizes the

role of a journalist in the construction of news as well as the constraints involved in actual occurrences in the world at both local and national levels (ibid:184). Schudson views journalism as concerned with organizational imperatives which involve news professionals and sources who perform different roles in the news production process. Sociology of news approaches—also called news institutionalism—put emphasis on the routine interactive practices of reporters, government officials and other sources as a reliable and steady supply of the raw materials for news production (Schudson 2000:184).

The connection between news professionals and sources is seen not only as newsworthy, but also as important. According to this view, activities of the established and resourced organizations, that is, those who have power to determine the experience of others, are worth attending to (ibid:183-184). Here, the media provide the general public with varied perspectives on news events for close examination and evaluation, the feature which is considered to be typical of a democratic society (ibid: 185). The view is echoed by Strazny (2005) who suggests that media are a hyperdomain — a recipient of content from other domains such as politics, business, law, lifestyle and so on (Strazny 2005:659).

The sociology of news production approach looks at news production as the main part of the internal organizational structures within media institutions and therefore a key site of analysis. The approach considers organizational factors such as reporter-editor relations concerning the social organization of news work, deadlines, and the bureaucratic environment of the newsroom in which reporters can self-censor as they strive towards pleasing their editors (Schudson 2000:185). In the newsroom, the professional duties involve news writing, rewriting and editing. It is a process where staffers not only share duties among themselves, but also reformulate and inflect news, for example, by promoting dissenting or adversarial information or opinions. An example of this is the 'reverse inverted pyramid' model of news reporting by some American newspapers on the Vietnam War, where the truthful information was placed further down in the story (ibid: 185).

The sociology of the media approach raises certain contentious issues for debate. The approach sees professional media as dispassionate, emphasizing freedom of expression without any personal political leanings, as in the case of American journalists (Schudson 2000:188). It could also be argued that the media at times take up the prerogative of not only ignoring, interpreting and or pre-empting regulations, but they can also challenge the power of the political order about such regulations if they are regarded as restrictive to media operations at large (Croteau & Hoynes 2003:123). However, this almost purely journalistic picture of news production might be critiqued on the grounds overlooking some crucial imperatives for news content as a product. This may therefore evoke a scenario which leaves some questions hanging. For example, if there is internal self-censorship between journalists and editors dictated by the hierarchy and bureaucracy in the newsroom, one would wonder whether such censorship is not dictated by the social and political context in which media production takes place.

Because news production goes through a long process which involves a number of stakeholders and participants, with media as the recipient hyperdomain of news content, (see Strazny 2005, above), many factors impact on news production in different ways. Questions relating to newsmakers, including elite groups and their actions are worth examining. It could be argued that their opinions are asked, quoted and make way into record as though they are the only credible ones in (van Dijk 1991: 41). On the whole, the sociology of news production approach helps us see media production as something professional with some form of autonomy amid the limitations posed by structural constraints located outside the newsrooms. This professionalism of media production can be examined in the sections with specific reference to special-topic news, media genres such as editorials, business and economy and sports below.

### 2.2.3.1. Media Genres

Media genres are central to media studies. Media language is a specific genre in its own right. The term genre is a French word for 'type' or 'kind'. It refers to the way in which a particular kind of news is reported (Bell 1991:12). Examples range from news and letters to advertising, documentaries and so on and they have been one of the widely researched topics in media studies (Bell 1991:12-13). Peter Trudgill (2003) sees a genre as "an identifiably distinct type of discourse or text recognized by a particular culture and with particular linguistic characteristics, for example, poems, conversations speeches, stories advertisement, love letters sermons, fairy tales, football commentaries" (Trudgill 2003:55). However, in fact people may differ in how they identify genres. According to Bell (1991) identification of genre may be determined partly by what one is looking for, whether one is searching for certain sub-genres such as 'spot' news, features or headlines.

According to Fairclough (1995: 85) a genre can be seen as "an activity type, a schematic structure" composed of some obligatory and optional stages which occur in a certain "fixed or partially fixed order", for example, conversational narratives (Labov and Waletzky 1997, cited in Fairclough 1995:85). According to Fairclough (1995:85), a typical genre of an article with a fixed order can be schematized as follows: **Headline+Lead+Satellites+Wrap-up** (ibid: 85). **Headline** refers to the words above the news report; it is a summary of the lead that follows (Faure 2001:360). Faure views the headline as an evaluation which makes the newspaper attractive to readers with its visual pattern and layout (ibid: 360). However, this order may sometimes be breached in cases where genres are mixed, (genre mixing), and where some genres are incorporated into others. This is called **intertextuality**. According to Kriesteva (1986:39), **intertextuality** refers to an insertion of one text into the other, (Kriesteva 1986:39, cited in Fairclough 1992: 102). This is one of the aspects in media production which results from a composition of different voices, the representing and represented discourses and the reporting and reported speech. In the following section I treat three of the genres which are common in media products.

I will focus on editorials, business and economic news and sports reports because these are the three genres which I have chosen for detailed analysis (in Chapter Four). The editorial as a genre is the public voice of a newspaper and therefore an important site of analysis of positioning. Both business and economic news are important beats in many newspapers because of the value attached to economic events and processes by the media and society in general. Many newspapers targeted at affluent readers also devote significant attention to business and economic news. Sports news serves an important public interest and entertainment function. News media organizations often use sports news to capture both increased numbers of viewers and advertising funding. Given the mediation of sports in contemporary society and the politics that often accompanies it, sports news is arguably an important site of analysis of positioning.

#### **2.2.3.2. The Editorial Section**

The editorial section is one of the most important genres of the newspaper. It is the newspaper's 'public voice' which, according to McNair (2003), "articulates political opinions" (p.13). Editorials may be presented as the voice of the readers directed at authority, or as "the calm, authoritative voice of the editor, viewing the political scene from a detached distance" (ibid: 13). Although in most cases it is the prerogative of the editor or his/her deputy to write the editorial piece, senior journalists can also make occasional editorial interventions on current, contentious public interest issues.

In most cases the editorial expresses the opinion of the paper on any particular issue. Hence Nel (2005) notes that the editorial is "an unsigned article or essay, often very brief, appearing on an editorial or opinion page, usually expressing the views of the management of the paper" (Nel 2005:37). Having preferential access to media, the editorial team uses this important area to exercise their power to position themselves in their news production and commentary. Kress and Hodge (1979: 17) provide a probably more nuanced definition of the editorial comment:

An editorial is the place where the processes of selection and assimilation, are most dense. It is often in the editorial where the paper's ideology is clarified and reestablished, reasserted in relation to troublesome events. It is also the platform from where the paper speaks most directly to its readership, presenting its perception of 'reality' in the form which it regards as most suitable for its readership. Ideologically, and therefore linguistically, we would expect editorials to be complex and revealing (Kress and Hodge 1979:17).

The editorial is clearly distinguished from the rest of the newspaper in that, it is an opinion or comment, the mouthpiece of the paper in terms of its editorial policy. While the newspaper has other sections and genres such as advertising, these cannot overshadow the editorial page because of its significant attachment to the paper. It is the page(s) of "opinion" and "comment" in which the subjective content (opinion) of the editor is legitimized and reflected (Faurie 2001:346). As the subjective section of the paper, the editorial also promotes an ideological stance or positioning of that particular paper on a matter at hand. The editorial is the political voice of the paper and includes as major elements column and comment, expert opinion and so on (ibid.:346).

Apart from the editorial team, mass media sometimes involve large production teams, whose roles involve asymmetrical distributions of speaking or writing rights between the participants. News production and consumption processes go through several stages with the participants taking up certain roles. These include the animator, who makes sounds or marks on the paper, the author who puts words together, and the principal who is often the 'source' from outside the paper (Goffman 1981:144, cited in Fairclough 1992:78): However, in newspapers the principal can be the editor or a journalist who may represent collective authorship of the paper as an individual journalist (Ibid). According to Jucker (1995), news is a product of heavy editing processes such that it becomes difficult to determine its original content. Therefore this can make news less useful for practical purposes (Jucker 1995).

### **2.2.3.3. Business and Economic News**

Business and economy news are important news sites in contemporary media products. They form part of typical media genres with their unique register. (Register is “a variety of language defined according to its use in social situations” (Crystal 1980: 301).) Business and economic news involves news stories about financial events, policies and trends viewed from an economic perspective. They often specialize in certain discourses concerned with captains of industry like bank presidents and chamber of commerce personalities who are noted for their inputs in the economy. One view of business and financial news is that they pay disproportionate attention to the activities of the business elite in the ‘formal’ economy, while neglecting the role played by other groups such as ordinary people in society in the ‘informal’ economy (Croteau and Hoynes, 2003). The same view also holds that business and financial news tends to be urban-based, with rural economic activities normally receiving scant media attention.

Croteau and Hoynes (1994, 2003:171) argue that corporate and investor news seek to reproduce hegemonic ideologies. This is because the news mainly concentrates on changing economic developments. The activities and interests of the investor community get news coverage with little attention given to the role played by the non-investor community: consumers and workers, for example. Many newspapers according to this view have no consumer or labour sections while many more of them have business/economy sections.

Croteau and Hoynes (2003) further argue that once economic news was covered from the perspective of the working classes, highlighting the analysis of labour unions, it would be criticized for being ‘anti-business’ or ‘pro-labour’ thus being labeled as ‘biased reporting’. This scenario describes corporate America whose economic development model seems to be taken as a yardstick for a normal economy everywhere.

However, it could also be argued that corporate and business news is not all about elite activity. In South Africa, for example, Nel (2005) notes that editors and business journalists have “taken up the challenge of making their reports more thorough and more accessible to ordinary people” (p.212). As a result, ordinary people now routinely express discourses around seeming loaded terms like “Economic empowerment”, reconciliation and development” and “redistribution of wealth” (ibid:121). This new and challenging phenomenon makes business news a property of all South Africans, rather than just the elite. This might also be ideological by evoking a society which is conceptualized as having the buying power.

While this sketch gives an account of the internal bureaucracies of news work, it also highlights the picture of the external influences on news content hence the question of primary definers in media production. The issue can also show how the media contribute to the dominant ideology despite their claim to be mouthpieces of the general public and giving saleable news to the public.

#### **2.2.3.4. Sports News**

“In simpler terms, sport is a game. It is about play, about social ritual, which encompasses norms, values and language...” (Lemon 2001:362). Sport is one of the special-topic news drawn from general news genres under the control of the specialist journalists (Bell 1991:15). According to Faure (2001), the sports genre is a game which is full of colourful language and action (Faure 2001:347). He notes that sports reporting is presented in such a way that it can appeal to human emotions, especially if narrated from an eye witness account with the reporter addressing different fans, coaches and managers (Ibid: 354). A sport is also associated with the expression of sociability and collective activity as well as ideological significance. It is commonly regarded as the opiate of the masses, to generate and intensify hostility between people (Lemon 2001:363). In some cases it is used by the state for economic control, a tool for social coercion promoting commercialism, materialism, nationalism, militarism, classism and so on (ibid: 363). Being associated with emotive and militaristic discourse, sports activities also have symbolic values

such as character building, discipline, loyalty, competition, thereby taking sports as a modern form of warfare (ibid:362). A sport is therefore a battleground which is realized in violence and aggression as in rugby and boxing, defeating and winning over each other in the process. Orwell is quoted as saying sport is “war minus the shooting” (Orwell 1992, cited in Rowe 2000: 356). Sporting language often involves ‘heroic identities, characters who are positioned by the writer who is an eye-witness, bringing the game from afar to the local viewers and readers. Sports reporters also offer statistics and factual information such as scores and schedules of current and forthcoming matches (Faure 2001: 347).

Rowe views sport as crucial to the present health and future of media. He sees large sports audiences as a very precious media commodity citing an example of TV viewers (Rowe 2000:346). A sport is seen as a popular phenomenon with media. Some newspapers have wide sports coverage. There are also specialist sporting magazines, and some advertising slogans are based on sports, for example, “*Just Do It*”, “*Whatever it Takes and I Can*” (Appadurai 1990, cited in Rowe 2000: 348). Sports events are also timed in order to suit Western media production schedules. This has been noted by the marathon runners in various Olympic games when they were forced to run in very hot conditions to suit the US TV viewers’ convenience (ibid: 355-56).

The ideological implications of the sports are also observed in such entailments as a series of exclusions and co-options, realized by celebrating predominantly male and often working-class sports to the exclusion of female sports (Rowe, ibid). This is ideological in the sense that it tends to normalize sporting reality in terms of associating sports with certain groups in society (ibid: 358).

### **2.3. Systemic Functional Linguistics**

The reason why I chose Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) theory is because of its emphasis on functional and instrumental perspectives on language in negotiating and transmitting meanings in social and cultural

settings. As a move away from the formalist view of language once dominated by Chomskyan tradition, SFL is consistent with and lends itself to CDA in some respects. Based on the view that language is what it is because of the functions it performs in society, SFL emphasizes the needs of the people as determining the meaning, not the other way round. SFL is a theory of language proposed by the British linguist, Michael A. K. Halliday. It is mainly premised on the Hallidayan notion of Language as social semiotic, the view which suggests a set of semiotic systems concerned with the construction and negotiation of social meanings and cultural transmission (Halliday 1978:36). SFL is concerned with what speakers say, what they can mean, not what is in the mind of the speaker. Language is therefore regarded as essentially meaning potential with a focus on something beyond language, that is, what the speaker can do (ibid: 39). According to Halliday, language is seen as a system of choices for making and negotiating meaning between participants in any given sociocultural situation.

SFL identifies three metafunctional components of language. These are modes of meaning that occur in every use of language in every social context. The metafunctions are: ideational, interpersonal and textual (Halliday 1978: 112). In what follows I will treat, in turn, these 'metafunctions' of language.

### **2.3.1. Ideational Function**

This is the experiential and logical function of language: seeing the language structure of the text as representing the speaker's experience of the external as well as his own internal world, the consciousness, thoughts and feelings (Halliday 1978:45). It is about our world of imagination as well a symbolic code with which we express the world to ourselves (Finch 2000:93). It deals with making meaning in the sense of 'content' (Halliday, 1985:53). The ideational function of the clause is that of representing what we, in the broader sense, call 'processes': actions, events, processes of consciousness, and relations (ibid: 53). It also indicates the transitivity structure - as in Agent+ Process+ Goal: ("John threw the ball") - a configuration which represents the

speaker's understanding of who did what to whom/what (Halliday 1978: 45). The concept of transitivity is explained further in 2.7.4 below.

### **2.3.2. Interpersonal Function**

This is concerned with interpersonal meaning and relationships between participants. For example, Halliday (1978:112) identifies the "intruder", "questioner-respondent", and/or "informer-doubter" functions. These functions refer to what the speaker or writer is doing to the listener or reader by means of language. Here, the clause serves to show the speaker's expression "of his own attitudes and judgements" through which he is "seeking to influence the attitudes and behaviour of others" in the social exchange (ibid: 112). It is here that speaker-hearer roles are also determined. The interpersonal function has a modal element used to "show statements, questions, (...) to simulate a dialogue between participants in a given discourse as well as making offers and commands, together with some accompanying modalities" (Halliday, 1985:53). (The concept of modality is explained in 2.7.1 below.) Deployment of the interpersonal function of language is one of the most important features through which the element of subject positioning can be foregrounded in discourse.

### **2.3.3. Textual Function**

This function accounts for internal coherence and cohesion for meaning making in the text (Wodak 1995:5) to ensure relevance to the context, both intrinsically and extrinsically. The preceding text and succeeding text as well as the context of situation play an important role in tying the text together for meaning making. The textual logical functioning of the clause in language constructs a message (Halliday 1985:53).

## **2.4. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)**

In this study, I adopted CDA for two main reasons. Firstly, it lends itself to a systematic analysis of texts, either spoken or written. Secondly, it is used to foreground relationships "between social practices and language" as well as

“connections between the nature of social processes” and the properties of language texts (Fairclough 1995b:96).

Critical Discourse Analysis describes “discursive practices and examines how discourse is shaped by relations of power and ideologies as well as the constructive effects the discourse has upon the social identities, social relations and systems of knowledge and belief” all of which are often implicit in given communicative events (Fairclough 1992:12). CDA has been greatly influenced by Systemic Functional Linguistics and has also broadened its scope into interdisciplinary research of a multifaceted character. It draws on structural linguistics and critical theory as well as on the work of Marxists, poststructuralists or postmodernists, (Cameron 2001:50). Post-structuralists and postmodernists have a critical attitude to traditional ways of thinking and talking about reality, subjectivity and knowledge (Cameron 2001:50). CDA practitioners are of the view that there is nothing like independent and fixed identities, truth and objectivity, that is to say, all phenomena are socially constructed; discourse is seen as constructing objects of which it speaks (ibid: 50). CDA practitioners examine social features of language, attempting to make sense of underlying power differentials behind utterances between participants.

CDA focuses on matters such as racism, ethnicity, gender studies/issues political oratory and so on (Wodak 1995:.2). Blommaert views CDA as a very comprehensive project whose “main areas of enquiry include political discourse, media, advertising, ideology, racism and institutional discourse” (Blommaert 2005:21). It is concerned with dialectical and critical aspects at micro and macro levels of language. The term ‘CDA’ is sometimes used interchangeably with Critical Linguistics (CL) because of the affinity of these two forms of discourse analysis. They are both fundamentally committed and determined to unpacking social inequalities and injustices. For this reason they are often criticized for being ‘political’, and for simply tending to choose relevant problems for their analysis, along with politically explicit values, while the interests and values of other researchers remain implicit (Wodak 1995:3).

The main task of CDA is to examine language in social institutions and relations between language, power and ideology. CDA focuses on language from the critical leftwing perspective and its use of linguistic analysis for its emancipatory agenda. It analyzes opaque and transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control used in language (Wodak 1995:205, cited in Blommaert 2005:24-25). It looks at

the intersection of language/discourse/speech and social structure in terms of power relations ideological effects and so on. CDA not only analyzes texts to uncover social dimensions of language, but it also mobilizes and helps the powerless giving voice to the voiceless, exposing power abuse and attempting to rally people to redress the social wrongs (Blommaert 2005:25).

At the same time CDA is committed to conscientizing people about the manipulative forms of language. According to Wodak 1995 “three concepts figure indispensably in all CDA: the concept of power, the concept of history, and the concept of ideology...” (Wodak 1995:2). Critical linguists are like historians treating texts as kinds of discursive practices as well as documents related to the beliefs of institutions in a given historical context (Fowler 1996:10). Therefore, critical discourse analysts as historiographers (another term used by Fowler) are concerned with the ideological relativity of representations (ibid: 10).

As its name suggests, CDA is inherently ‘critical’ in character. According to Bourdieu, the term *critical* refers to “a recognition that our social practice in general and our use of language in particular are bound up with causes and effects of which we are not all aware under normal conditions” (Bourdieu 1977 in Fairclough 1995a: 54). Bourdieu argues that there are connections between the use of language and the exercise of power, as in, for example, doctor-patient and news reporter-politician interactions (ibid: 54). For him, close examination of such encounters reveals “ideologically potent asymmetries, rights, relationships, roles, knowledge and identities” (ibid: 54). Cameron (2001) views *critical* in CDA as a way of understanding the social world drawn from critical theory (Cameron 2001:123). For her, CDA is concerned with examining the ‘hidden agenda’ behind words, the aspect which is exemplified by the institutional language of the media (ibid: 123). As Bell puts it, CDA,

drawing on Fowler's critical linguistics and Hallidayan functional grammar, is noted for its importance and sociopolitical concern to reveal inequalities of power in media (news) texts (Bell 1995, cited in McKay 2006:298).

While there are some criticisms levelled against it (see below), Fairclough's framework, in my view, remains an important instrument for analytical purposes of this study. As an approach it examines texts both spoken and written, in terms of form and content viewing meaning as about contrast; speaker's choices are closely examined to find out any ideological meanings that are concealed (ibid:51). I shall draw the reader's attention to some critiques directed at CDA below.

### **2.4.1 Criticism of CDA**

CDA like any other 'school' of thought is criticized for a number of reasons. For example, some discourse analysts attack from within mainstream linguistics, whereas others are from social sciences. According to Blommaert (2005:32), Emanuel Schegloff accuses CDA of what he considers to be a lack of clear-cut boundaries of its operation. He argues that there are common aspects of social action and leftwing politics among all CDA proponents, who integrate linguistic analysis and social theory in various ways. He holds the view that CDA tends to meddle in political issues while it is in actual fact an academic activity. Schegloff (1997 in Wetherell 2001) argues that CDA seems to be interfering with the data by imposing its own predetermined political bias. He therefore calls for the autonomy of the data in discourse and suggests that analysis should be oriented towards the conversation of the participants in given contexts.

Henry Widdowson and Jan Blommaert also critique CDA. For Widdowson (1995, 1996, 1997 cited in Blommaert 2005:31-32), CDA has no clear-cut theoretical, methodological and analytical framework. These aspects, according to him, render the model fuzzy as a self-proclaimed social theory. I have a problem with this criticism given the clearly layered developed by Fairclough. Responding to Widdowson's criticism, Chouliaraki and Fairclough

(1999:139-40) argue that lexicogrammar is functionally grounded in social practices. They draw attention to the fact that any text can be understood and explained depending on the social situation in which it is placed. They show that critical textual analysis looks at both the surface and potential meanings of texts in social situations. They also emphasize the interpretative process which involves the understanding and explanation of texts in given contexts (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999:67-68). They say that CDA as a framework should be seen as constantly evolving and its application to new areas of social life is extended, while its theorization of discourse is correspondingly developing (Chouliaraki and Fairclough 1999: 59).

Blommaert (2005) sees CDA as overlooking the history of text production and consumption as well as global contexts. He also criticizes Fairclough's CDA for its uncritical promotion of systemic functional linguistics as the only framework for critical textual analysis (Blommaert 2005:34-35).

In spite of these criticisms I have chosen to use CDA because its three-dimensional framework offers me a way of analyzing the newspaper texts in the context that are relevant. This framework is particularly appropriate for unpacking positioning in these texts. In the next section I give an account of the three-dimensional framework developed by Fairclough.

## **2.5. Three-Dimensional Framework of Fairclough's CDA**

According to Fairclough the three-dimensional framework "is an attempt to bring together three analytical traditions, each of which is indispensable for discourse analysis" (Fairclough 1992: 72). This framework has three levels against which language can be analyzed. These are discourse as text, discursive practice and sociocultural practice (Fairclough, 1995a:59).

### **2.5.1. Discourse as Text (Linguistic Level)**

This level comprises four main categories: vocabulary, grammar, cohesion and text structure. Cohesion denotes "the ways in which sentences are

connected together” Fairclough 1995a:57). The words, sentences, paragraphs and whole segments of texts (also known as ‘extended discourse’) and the manner in which they are organized are very primarily significant at this level. This level deals with surface meaning of words, phrases and sentences in connected texts. The level is also concerned with the same categories from a semiotic point of view (which is largely about graphics in texts) and from a semantic point of view. It is thus referred to as “linguistic analysis” (ibid: 57).

### **2.5.2. Discourse as Discursive Practice**

This is the second level of analysis which is concerned with rules and conventions of text production determining the interaction between people at several stages involved in text production, distribution and consumption. This level normally involves institutional routines, such as editorial procedures, how texts are produced, distributed and consumed. In this view, language is taken as a social practice, a particular type of social action which is consistent with the immediate and wider context. It is here that the order of discourse, “the relationships between different types in such a set”. Here the conventions of certain texts are identified and demarcated, or mixed, hence the notion of intertextuality (ibid: 55-56).

### **2.5.3. Discourse as Sociocultural Practice**

Here texts can be seen as socially situated, being communicative events which occur in social settings. These include social contexts and conditions relating to class and power relations within society that influence and organize the production, circulation and interpretation of texts, to determine who may speak, values placed on person’s speech. The ideological import of language is also part of this level of analysis. Here pragmatics and a variety of social analyses inform the study of language in social context (Fairclough 1992, 1995a).

## 2.6. An Example of the Application of CDA

The framework was applied to textual analysis of Thatcherite discourse and its ideology. Here Fairclough used the Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis (hence forth TODA). The model serves to merge some traditions of discourse analysis. In Fairclough's Language and Power in 1989, this framework was clearly expressed and is considered a landmark publication for the start of CDA, giving explicit articulation of Fairclough's overt analysis of powerful political discourse: the so-called Thatcherite political rhetoric and new economy as well as advertising (Fairclough 1989:175).

Thatcherite ideology is a discourse which is about radical responses to the deep-rooted political and economic problems facing Britain following the second World War. The Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, as a political leader of Britain in the 1980s, made a breakthrough in trying to shape discourses in many spheres of life including relationships between political leaders and ordinary people in Britain. Her pro-family, populist discourse suggested a direct relationship between herself and 'ordinary people' in a number of ways. For example, she often made use of ingroup designators such as the collective 'we', and direct address to the readers or listeners as 'you'. . The following extracts lines (101 and 110) are illustrative: "but of course it showed that *we* were reliable ..." "...a description *you* accept as something quite distinct...." (quoted in Fairclough 1989:175). This share-owning, pro-property and 'here-we-are-together' type of discourse is shown by Fairclough's textual analysis (Fairclough 1989:175). This illustrates the manner in which Fairclough's tools can be applied in a particular sociopolitical context.

## 2. 7. Linguistic Markers of Positioning

According to Swann et al the term positioning is:

used in critical approaches to the study of language to suggest that texts or discourses position people in certain ways in order to encourage a particular point of view, or interpretation of an event. A newspaper may position its readers as certain types of people, with particular interests and so on. Readers may either take up such positioning or resist it (Swann et al 2004:246).

Positioning, which is also known as subject position, involves “sets of statements which describe and prescribe” a series of choices one may be called upon to take up (Kress 1989:37). There are several linguistic markers of positioning. The most prominent in the media texts that I analyze are: modality, mood and tense, nominalization, transitivity, address and personal references, metaphor and lexical processes. In paragraphs that follow I give an account of markers identified in SFL as dealing with the choices which the speaker or writer has at his/her disposal.

### **2.7.1. Modality, Tense and Mood**

Modality plays a very crucial role in establishing meaning potential in communicative events. The concept of modality is a product of both philosophical and linguistic thought. “Modality has its roots in modal logic (a branch of philosophy of language) particularly in the distinction between ‘deontic’ and ‘epistemic’ modality” (Bybee & Fleischman 1995:4). Modal logic emphasizes notions of possibility and necessity. It is “a semantic category that expresses the attitude of the speaker towards that which is expressed in the sentence” (Bussmann 1995:308). According to Stillar, (1998:35), “modality is used to refer to and identify the functions of the textual and grammatical resources that construct a speaker/writer’s attitude toward the ideational content (often called the propositional context) of the text”. Put simply, modality is the use of the lexical items which signify, in a number of ways, attitudinal aspects of language used between participants in given communicative events. Modality involves not only formal features of language, but it also accommodates extralinguistic features through which hidden meaning can be expressed depending on contexts of use. There are different types of modality. For present purposes I focus on the epistemic and deontic modality because these are the most common forms of modality manifest in newspaper texts.

Epistemic modality is “concerned with the possibility or necessity of the truth of propositions, and is thus involved with knowledge and belief” (Lyons 1977: 793, cited in Bybee & Fleischman 1995:4), it expresses the speaker’s

confidence or lack of confidence in the proposition expressed. Some examples of modal nouns are *possibility*, *probability*, and *certainty*. Modal adverbs include, *arguably*, *maybe*, *perhaps*, *certainly*.

“Deontic modality is concerned with the necessity or possibility of acts performed by morally responsible agents, and is thus associated with social functions of permission and obligation” (Lyons 1977:823 cited in Bybee & Fleischman 1995:4). This involves, among others, duty and commitment which are concerned with the speaker’s attitude to the degree of obligation attached to the performance of certain actions. Deontic modality can also be described as largely normative and relates to notions such as prohibition rather than necessity, possibility and impossibility, as is the case of epistemic modality (Hubbard 1979:36). Typical examples include the modal auxiliary *must* in ‘Jack must reveal all his sources of income’ which illustrates an obligation on the part of the subject to carry out the action identified in the proposition (ibid: 56). Used philosophically, modality is also found in directives that grant permission (“you *may* go now”, “you *may* come in now”), or impose obligation (“*eat* your vegetables”) as well as in statements that report deontic conditions “Yeltsin *should* slow down reforms in Russia”, “graduate students *can* check out for the whole semester” (Bybee & Fleischman 1995:4).

According to Bybee and Fleischman, deontic meanings typically evolve into epistemic meanings (ibid: 5). Obviously, there is a rather complex relationship between epistemic and deontic modality, which goes far beyond the concern of this study. Halliday sees modality as comprising collective indeterminate degrees between positive and negative poles. He introduces the concept of polarity which is seen as the choice between positive and negative as in “*is/isn’t*”, “*do/don’t*” (Halliday 1985:85). He goes on to see modality as lying somewhere between probability and usuality, both of which can be expressed in three different ways. He gives the following description: a finite modal operator can be used as in “that *will be* John”, “he’ll *sit* there all day”. A modal adjunct expresses probability or usuality as in “that’s *probably* John, he *usually* sits there all day”. Seeing modality as expressing the speaker’s opinion, Halliday cites the following examples: high value modals *certainly* and

*always* as in “that’s *certainly* John”; “it *always* rains in summer” are less determinate than polar forms “*that’s* John” and “*it rains* in summer” respectively. He further associates the concept of modality with propositions such as asserting and denying. “Sentence adverbs such as *probably*, *certainly*, *regrettably* have a modal function, as can adjectives such as *necessary*, *unfortunate* and *certain*” (Fowler 1985:73).

Fairclough (1992) points out that modality may be subjective or objective. In subjective modality, the speaker uses lexical modals to project a high degree of affinity with the proposition as in “I think”, “I suspect”, and “I doubt that the earth is flat”. In objective modality the speaker expresses a view as if it were a universal one without indicating the source. This is often used by speakers who have power and authority, and who support the dominant ideology or world-view. For example, “the earth *may be / is probably* flat” (Fairclough 1992:158-59).

Hubbard (1979:33) associates modality with various meanings, broadly characterizing it by “some qualifications on the truth value of the proposition expressed by speaker’s utterance”. According to this view modality markers are used to qualify speaker’s commitment to the ‘factuality’ or ‘reality’ of the semantic content of any proposition: to hedge his utterance. Hubbard contrasts factual assertion such as “Charles *is* at the door” with relative assertion such as “Charles *may be* at the door”.

Hubbard’s “factual assertion” is what Fairclough calls “categorical modality”. Fairclough argues that it is not only knowledge or truth of proposition which determines the choice of categorical modality in an interaction, but also power relationships. The need to express power or solidarity also plays an important role. In his view, hedging may arise from lack of commitment to the proposition, but it is determined by unequal power relations: juniors often hedge or pause as if uncertain when talking with seniors (Fairclough 1992:160). Fairclough’s view is thus indicative of how complex the concept of modality is in discourse studies.

Hubbard's "factual assertion" and Fairclough's "categorical modality" are very similar to what Halliday (2004:146-147) refers to as "certainties" such as "it is" and "it isn't". Halliday says that modality can be either positive or negative, in other words, it has polarity. It allows choice between 'yes' and 'no' as in "it is" as opposed to "it isn't". Polarity denotes determinate assertions which are identified by the copula verb 'is'. Other modal forms (e.g. 'sometimes' or 'may be') are, in his terms, "intermediate degrees" (ibid).

Mood can be found in each finite clause. It expresses the speech function of the clause. It refers to such clause types as command, declarative, question, exclamation, offer, request and so on depending on different social contexts. It is an interpersonal dimension of the clause (Halliday 1985:41). According to Trask, mood refers to "the grammatical category which expresses the degree or kind of reality attached to an utterance" (Trask 1999:191).

### **2.7.2. Theme and Rheme**

"Theme is a textual dimension of the grammar of the clause. It is concerned with the ways in which clause elements are positioned according to their informational prominence" (Fairclough 1992:178). The theme is also the initial part of the clause and the producer's point of departure in such a particular clause. Because of its position in the clause the theme (also known as the topic) is usually regarded as given information. In this way it becomes the already known or established information for text producers and interpreters (ibid: 183). It is that which the clause is all about (Malmkjær 1991:143).

The theme can be either marked or unmarked depending on choices made for conveying information. As unmarked, the theme can often occur in the declarative sentence where it is the subject of the clause. This is one example in which the theme is used without any specific motivation attached by the speaker or writer. Marked theme on the other hand, is often opted for for certain rhetorical purposes. It could be that the speaker/writer wishes to foreground and assert something or attach a particular idea about such a

choice (Fairclough 1992: 182). It is the perspective from which the writer wishes to project a certain idea. Marked themes include adjuncts and adverbs, for example: Unfortunately the child crashed into the tree. In this sentence, the word 'unfortunately' is a marked theme.

Rheme is the remainder of the clause, that is to say anything that comes after the subject. It is normally realized by nominal groups, adverbial groups or prepositional groups in the clauses (Malmkjae191:143). Given this, it may be noted that both the theme and the rheme form the major part of the message in the clause. In other words the message is constructed in the English clause in terms of theme and rheme. Both are textual functions of meaning in the clause.

### **2.7.3. Nominalization**

Nominalization is a structural feature whereby any element or group of elements takes on the functions of a nominal group in the clause. A nominalization is often a noun formed from either a verb or an adjective. Any nominalization constitutes a single element in the message structure (Halliday 1985:42). The term can also be used to express a thematic purpose. It can be a theme in the clause, as such being made prominent in a theme-rheme structure, sometimes without specification of agency. As Kress and Hodge point out, "nominalization allows the writer to do without specifying any pastness and to assimilate the events into the confident present of their scheme...." (Kress and Hodge1979:135). Besides backgrounding or mystifying human action and agency, the nominalization can also be used to render entities abstract and universal thereby making things appear to be general truth, and unquestionable. The fact that nominalization backgrounds agency or causality, its meaning becomes ideologically motivated (Fairclough 1989:103).

#### **2.7.4. Transitivity**

Transitivity is an aspect of the experiential/ideational component of meaning (Halliday 1985:44). The term transitivity denotes kinds of processes and participants which occur in clauses. It is expressed by verbs and adjectives which in most cases form the predicate of grammatical sentences (Fowler 1985:69). The predicates in the clause communicate action, processes, states, events as well as roles played by the participants in such processes process. For example, “John opened the door” is the clause which includes the agent, the action and the affected (also called the patient). This is an example of the clause in which the agent performs an action. It is what Fairclough 1992 calls the directed action.

Transitivity is also expressed by processes which objects undergo. For example, “The door opened” (ibid: 69). Transitivity processes include, among others, action, relational, existential and mental processes.

#### **2.7.5. Address and personal reference**

Here Latinate vocabulary can be used to address the educated, using naming conventions which can affect the degree of formality. Pronouns such as *you* and *we* can be used to evoke an element of a mass appeal to audiences who are positioned as having a relationship of solidarity with the speaker or writer, as in advertising. These can also be used to call addressee by name to show the extent of interpersonal relationships (Schroder 2006:625). Althusser views this as an interpellation, that is calling by name or hailing. To interpellate means to “call someone by a name, to hail someone” (Althusser quoted in O’Shaughnessy and Stadler 2001:203). According this view, “hailing has the effect of putting *us* in *our* place or *subject positioning* the addressee in relation to the addressor” (ibid: 203). Often subjects are positioned before they are interpellated with the addresser just assuming an imaginary relation and unity to the addressees, who are in most cases unknown to them (Hirst 1979:64-8, in Howarth 2000:90).

### **2.7.6. Metaphor and other lexical processes**

“Metaphor simply refers to variation in the use of words” (Halliday, 1985:320). This also means that the word may be used with a “transferred meaning” (ibid). According to this view, metaphorical expressions form part not only of lexical aspects of language but they also are lexicogrammatical features. This aspect can also hint at rhetorical transference hence grammatical metaphor as well. One typical example is “Protests flooded in” to mean that “Very many people protested” (ibid). Metaphorical expressions can be used for rhetorical and strategic purposes.

Metaphorical expressions include specific vocabulary as in scientific jargon or political discourse. These areas of language are often indicative of one’s expertise and experience, for example, management vocabulary (Schroder (2006:624).

### **2.8. Conclusion**

In this chapter I have looked at three perspectives on media production and media functions. These include liberal-pluralist, political economy as well as sociology of news production approaches. These perspectives provide a context for my analysis of media texts from the weekly newspaper, *Public Eye* in the context of Lesotho. As I earlier noted in my discussion, these perspectives have both strengths and weaknesses. However, for purposes of this study, the strengths of these approaches were used to offer a robust conceptual framework and analytical guide. They inform my analytical position, central to which is the location of *Public Eye* as a media product operating in a socio-political and economic context that influences it variously, while at the same time exercising its (the paper’s) agency powers in relation to this context.

I have also given an account of SFL and CDA both as a theory and method, examining how CDA draws on SFL and its application to textual analysis, and indicated how they would be useful for my analysis of positioning in texts from the *Public Eye* in the Lesotho context. In the next chapter I will present the

methodology including the design of the study for data collection and analysis and then the discussion of the findings.

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## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

In this chapter close attention will be given to the research design which is premised on the principles of a qualitative approach to data collection and analysis. I give my rationale for choosing CDA as my framework for textual analysis. The research site for the field work will also be closely considered. Given this design, attention will also be given to the type of data collected as well as collection and analysis procedures. Research ethics issues will also be considered here.

#### **3.2. Qualitative Approach**

The research approach adopted for this study is primarily qualitative. The qualitative approach is concerned with “people, words and feelings - the quality of an event or experience” (Page and Meyer 2003:18). Page and Meyer go so far as to suggest that words form the main focus of this approach to express how ideas, perceptions, cognitions and feelings of the research participants and the researcher inform qualitative knowledge. They associate the qualitative approach with the type of research in which human experience is involved giving examples of social sciences such as management, psychology, education and sociology (ibid:18). It is therefore evident that the approach lays emphasis on meaning arising from given communicative events in which the participants are involved in any discourse type. Researchers drawing on the qualitative perspective, not only approach the respondents for data collection, but they may also involve them in the data analysis as both sources of data and meaning makers in the whole process. One of the features of qualitative approach is its tendency of being open-ended thereby lending itself to discourse analytic studies which focus mainly on text analysis.

### 3.3. Quantitative Work

Although my research was primarily qualitative I did some frequency counts of linguistic markers of positioning so as to check my impressions of similarities and differences in the occurrence of particular features in different genres and issues of *Public Eye*.

### 3.4. Rationale for Choice of Critical Discourse Analysis

CDA is a qualitative methodology. It takes off from Discourse Analysis (DA), the discipline which pays attention to “language above the sentence” (Cameron 2001:10). Taking DA from the qualitative perspective, Cameron declares that:

discourse analysis is becoming increasingly popular as a qualitative research method in social science. (...) Discourse analysis is also an alternative to standardized instruments like questionnaires which yield statistical data. As a very time-consuming method, DA is used to engage a sample of people in an in-depth talking; also encouraging them to explore the subject in their own way and in their own words. In the process the researcher can record, transcribe the talk and analyze it not necessarily for making statistical generalizations, but in order to point out some recurring themes in the way the participants talk (Cameron (2001:13 -14).

For Cameron, people answer questions and construct a certain representation of themselves for the researcher’s benefit, as well as telling the researcher what they think s/he wants to hear or what they would like her/him to believe. This is another version of self-construction involved in an ordinary talk which is often produced by people basing themselves on their assessment of who is asking, what and why. In the process the participants use language intersubjectively, that is, they display social voices representing others in their own communities (Cameron 2001:15).

DA is not just an approach to data collection processes; it is more about studying interpretative processes. It gives attention to a wider context, such as sociocultural identities and social roles, including power differentials and relations and how they may impact on the meaning of utterances. It is clear

that CDA is a valuable tool for unpacking the hidden meaning in various texts as products of social activities and practices in different contexts.

Applying the framework, I focused on media texts. My study of media theory made me aware of the various stages of text production and distribution. In the light of that background I proceeded to describe and interpret features of the newspaper text which I had selected. Before detailing the data collection and analysis process, I will turn to issues pertaining to research ethics which were also of prime concern prior to and during the field work.

### **3.5. Ethical Issues of the Study**

Here I want to make a brief sketch of some ethical issues to which I gave priority in this study. For a study like this one in which human subjects were involved, the question of ethics was rather inevitably worth considering, as especially, I needed to conduct interviews. To address this ethical question, two important issues were considered.

Firstly, the principle that research should be ethical was at the core of this study. Secondly, I also adhered carefully to the related principle of scholarly and scientific research in which informed consent should take precedence over data preferences of the researcher prior to and during data collection processes. So I followed procedures that are entrenched both in the UCT Code of Ethics at website:<http://www.uct.ac.za> and in the UCT School of Education Code of Ethics. To establish communication, I telephonically contacted "*Public Eye*" management to request permission to interview some staff members I introduced myself as a UCT student engaged with research work, which as I related to them, may end up getting published. I informed the respondents about the purpose, nature as well as implications of the study. I then wrote a letter to them in which I asked for permission to conduct the interviews and provide them with relevant documents to that effect. While all these served to establish my identity as a registered UCT student, I also explained to them that my current engagement with a minor dissertation was for partial fulfillment of my masters programme (M Phil.Ed). At the same time I

also presented all my interviewees, both staff members and two regular readers of the newspaper, with copies of the same pack of documents for their information on the purpose of the study.

Equally relevant was the aspect of anonymity. For me, it would have been really difficult to fully guarantee anonymity for such respondents as editors and news reporters, given the fact that their work puts them in the glare of the public spotlight on a regular basis. However, this did not pose any problem, because after I had informed my respondents about the nature of my study, they all assured me that they had no problem with being identified and quoted in any part of the thesis. Therefore, it was not necessary to use either fictional names or certain numbers instead of their real names and work titles. I also felt ethically obliged and offered to report to my research participants on the findings of the study in the form of a summary of the final draft of my thesis. I thought this would serve a dual purpose, that is, for their feedback and calling for comments on their identities and/or how they are represented in the document.

Basotho are a predominantly Sesotho speaking community some of whom, especially the educated elite, are Sesotho-English bilinguals. As a country which has had close diplomatic relations with Britain during the period of the British rule which lasted nearly hundred years, Lesotho has English spoken as a second official language by quite a number of people. In response to this situation in conducting the interviews, I also considered as an ethical issue, the aspect of the bilingual status of my interviewees. Therefore, I offered them the choice of communicating in either or both languages during the individual interviews. Here I also was guided by the principle that, in research the preferences of the researched should normally take precedence over the researcher's preferences as noted earlier. Five out of six of the interviewees were Sesotho-English bilinguals; four of them chose to be interviewed in Sesotho. At intervals, some of my interviewees code-switched between the two languages as four of these interviews were conducted in the local language. Code-switching "can be defined as the use of two or more languages in the same conversation or utterance. This is a common

occurrence in many parts of the world in situations of native bi- multilingualism (e.g. Africa, India....)” (Gardner-Chloros1997:361). According to McCormick (2001), code-switching broadly “refers to the juxtaposition of elements from two (or more) languages or dialects” (McCormick 2001:447). The question of dialects is not necessarily significant in the context of Lesotho. Code-switching took place between two independent languages, in this case, English and Sesotho. This was probably because of their being literate in both languages and/or it was significant of their elitist status. I have translated from Sesotho into English for the reader’s ease of understanding.

### **3.6. Data Collection Process**

Data were of two types. The primary data were newspaper articles, which were used for textual analysis. Secondary data consisted of interviews and the mission statement of the newspaper. These were mainly required to serve as an historical background of the newspaper, *Public Eye*.

#### **3.6.1. Primary Data: Newspaper Articles**

According to Henning and others, documents can be used as entities of data for content, discursive analysis and interpretation. They may be used “as a genre, especially if used as the main sources of data for analytical purposes. Documents have an historical value--where they are from and what they mean historically as a source material” (Henning et al., 2004:98-99). On this basis, I chose as my documentary sources three newspaper issues of the weekly newspaper for detailed analysis. The reason why I selected these issues is because I wanted to find out if there is regularity of discourse patterns to reflect any positioning and also to find out any changes to and/or shifts in the positioning of the publication, over these different periods of time. For me, this was also a way of determining any consistency and discontinuity in news editorial commentary, news reporting and presentation in relation to the mission statement.

### 3.6.2. Secondary Data: Interviews with Staff and Regular Readers

Interviews were designed to enable me to cross-examine matchings and/or mismatchings between claims made by the respondents and the content of the analyzed articles. Taking Gunther Kress' view of interviews as a genre of discourse (Kress, cited in Fowler 1996:8), I conducted unstructured interviews with members of the staff of the newspaper and with two regular readers of the paper. The staff members were chosen for their depth of experience and probable insight into my research topic. I also interviewed two long standing regular readers whose readership experience of the paper might be equally insightful and fruitful for my research topic. My selection of these interviewees was based on their work role categories as well as their regular reading status. The sampling was subjective with the respondents being taken not only as sources of data but also as meaning makers. On the average, I found these different participants greatly informative and resourceful.

### 3.7. Sampling

I used purposive and dimensional sampling. This allowed me to get detailed data from the small sample. This was a purposive (non-probability sample) which, according to Oliver (2004:128), is consistent with qualitative research methodology. Purposive sampling is seen by Cohen and Manion (1994), as often involving small scale surveys which do not necessarily claim to be representative of the population in question. It is also regarded as less complicated as well as less expensive to set up. In cases where researchers' purpose is not to generalize their findings beyond the sample in focus, non-probability sampling is considered adequate to address such situations (Cohen and Manion 1994:88). Cohen and Manion categorize non-probability sampling as follows:

**Firstly**, there is *convenience sampling*, also known as accidental sampling in which the researcher only takes the nearest individuals for sampling purposes.

**Secondly** in *purposive sampling*, the researcher just handpicks the sample based on their judgment which may involve the typicality of the sample thereby building a satisfactory sample to their specific needs.

**Thirdly**, without being exhaustive, in *dimensional sampling*, the researcher may handpick at least one representative from each group or category from the given subjects of analysis (ibid: .89).

Having arrived at the sample of population through the criteria noted above, I interviewed one participant from each of these work categories: **administration, editorials, news reporting, columnists** from the *Public Eye* and two **regular readers** of the newspaper.

Therefore, I gave thought to and designed what I would like the interviews to be like. Firstly, I tried to ensure sufficient spatial privacy in relatively quiet places for the interviews. I asked for a room in which my interviewees would be comfortable and free in the interview for both of us to have equal speaking rights in the process. Secondly, I made the interviews as relaxed as possible taking on a nearly natural, conversational interaction and discussion without any observable paper work on my part as a researcher. Meanwhile, I was tape-recording the discussion and turn-taking having obtained permission from the respondents prior to the actual data collection. Interviews were not designed in the form of a deliberately structured exchange - a sort of question-answer pair. They were more of open-ended discussions in a relaxed atmosphere between the interviewees and me.

While the questions were directed to both the staffers and regular readers, they also called for different opinions and observations to be probed and addressed because of being open-ended in nature. For example, the first four questions were mainly directed at both the staffers and readers to probe their general knowledge about the newspaper. It is the last two questions which were mainly directed to the staffers with the understanding that such questions apply to their working environment, in particular. But, on the whole the questions were designed to get both collective and individual opinions about the newspaper regarding its news reporting and commentary. What follow, are topics around which the questions were centred:

- Origin of the paper: To find out when and by whom *Public Eye* was founded,

- Purpose, aims and goals: To establish the purpose of the paper when it was founded
- Target audience: To find out whether or not the newspaper has any specific target audience
- News coverage: To find out factors contributing to the news coverage of the newspaper.
- Mission statement: To find out about the mission statement of the paper, what it really means to them and how it impacts on their daily news work.
- Code of work ethics: To establish the code of ethics that guides the staffers of the newspaper
- The role of the media in Lesotho: To find out about the role of *Public Eye* in general media policy issues in Lesotho, and whether they foresee any future of the newspaper.

Examples of actual questions are extracted for inclusion in the main text of chapter four.

Having looked at the data collection process which was meant to address some of the questions raised in chapter one, I will now turn to the next section, on data analysis.

### **3.8. Analysis of Data**

According to Lindlof (1995),

Analyzing qualitative data is best thought of as a process that is continuous throughout an entire study....The process is far more cyclical [than lineal]... This aspect also makes qualitative analysis ideal in situations where not much is previously known about the topic under consideration or when rapid changes in the subject necessitate flexibility in the design... (Lindlof1995:215 cited in Proctor 2001:30).

Based on the principles adopted by discourse analysts, my focus was on what Mouton calls “larger chunks of language” Mouton (2001:169). It can be noted that getting the quantitative aspect here has made the study rather comprehensive. The quantitative approach which can be used to count “items such as words, phrases or images” (Hesmondhalgh 2006:120), was used to

measure the frequency with which they occur. In this way, both approaches tend to complement each other, making the combination which Hesmondhalgh (2006) views as potentially fertile for examining issues of media and power (Hesmondhalgh 2006:154-55). Applying this combination to my analysis, I was able to identify and test impressions through rigorous textual analysis thereby penetrating the aspect of positioning used in the weekly newspaper in the context of Lesotho.

Having identified the primary and secondary sources of my data I focused on selected issues from different periods of time, that is, with an intervening space of 12 months: December 2004, December 2005 and December 2006. I did textual analysis to identify ways in which positioning was achieved in nine texts. My focus was largely on the variety of linguistic features such as the modality system, nominalizations, passives, coherence, metaphor, and thematic structures to establish how they reflect positioning (cf literature review, chapter two). Thereafter I did a comparative analysis of how positioning was achieved in the three selected genres identifying both similarities and differences within and across these genres. Finally, I looked to see whether there were any notable changes over time in the three issues of *Public Eye*

I examined recurrent discourse features and patterns for themes across the selected texts within each issue, as well as across three issues that I selected. I not only examined these aspects but I also described, interpreted and explained based on the three-dimensional model as proposed by Fairclough. As Fairclough (1992) posits: “the part of the procedure which deals with the analysis of texts can be called ‘description’ and the parts which deal with analysis of the discourse practice and with social practice of which the discourse is a part can be called ‘interpretation’” (Fairclough 1992:73). At the same time, these analytic approaches helped me to determine some relationships between the theory and my findings with reference to the lexicogrammatical aspects used in the media texts in focus. As will be clearly observed in the next section, Fairclough’s model has proved useful for

unpacking elements of positioning used in each of the texts in focus in the publications.

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# CHAPTER FOUR

## DATA ANALYSIS

### 4.1. Introduction

In this chapter I present my data analysis. As noted in chapter three my primary data are media texts from three issues of the weekly newspaper, *Public Eye* December 2004, 2005 and 2006. In order to analyze the data I adopt the analytical framework proposed by Fairclough (1992:231ff). The newspaper texts are explored in the light of the paper's mission statement, interviews with four selected staff members and two regular readers of the newspaper. These secondary texts were meant mainly to provide the newspaper's background.

First of all, this analysis focuses on how positioning is constituted in the editorial comments, business news and sports comments in each of the three published issues. Secondly, analyzing the mission statement and interviews I focus on finding out any links between claims made by the research participants and findings from the textual analysis on the paper. Thirdly, examining these newspaper articles I make a comparative analysis within and across all three issues. Finally, I look at the implications and suggest some future research possibilities stemming from the study.

### 4.2. Brief Contextual Background of Media in Lesotho

In order to locate *Public Eye* in context, it is important to pay brief attention to the media context in Lesotho as a developing, Southern African country. With a population of just over 2 million, Lesotho is a fragile democracy with a hereditary but non-executive monarchy. The country's economy is hugely dependent on South Africa, and the media in general is weak in terms of infrastructure and access by the majority of the people. Much of the media - both broadcasting and print, is state-owned. These include the Lesotho News Agency (LENA), *Lesotho Today* weekly newspaper, as well as Radio and TV

Lesotho, which are all state owned. In total there are seven radio stations and two TV stations, including privately owned stations (MISA Report, 2001). Among the few privately owned newspapers, there are *Public Eye*—which is the largest independent newspaper—and *MoAfrica*, which is in Sesotho language. There are also a number of privately owned newspapers (a total of 14 in 2001, according to Setsabi, 2001) which emerge but for short periods of time before folding up because of viability problems. These include papers like *The Mirror*, *Mopheme*, (*The Survivor*) *The Sun*, *Makatolle*, among others ([www.pressreference.com/Ky-Ma/Lesotho.html](http://www.pressreference.com/Ky-Ma/Lesotho.html))

Despite many promises by the government in the past, there is no coherent media policy in the country, while media-state relations are defined by draconian internal security legislation which gives disproportionate powers to the military and police. The state generally distrusts a free press, and in the past reporters have been arrested and held incommunicado for reporting on issues that are critical of the state or the security establishment (MISA Report, 2003). Besides the tough legal and security obstacles to a free press, the media in Lesotho also faces the challenge of poor access to information by the largely impoverished nation. The majority of the country's citizens live in rural areas, and this impedes distribution of and access to the media ([www.pressreference.com/Ky-Ma/Lesotho.html](http://www.pressreference.com/Ky-Ma/Lesotho.html))

### **4.3. Background of the Public Eye and Its Importance**

Having looked at the media production theory in chapter two, I now wants to draw attention to the background of *Public Eye*. I believe that this brief background to the newspaper will help shed light on why it is worth researching this particular paper.

#### **4.3.1. Mission Statement**

*Public Eye*, like any other newspaper, is premised on certain principles. The paper's guiding principles are contained in its mission statement which reads as follows:

Published by *Public Eye* (Pty) Ltd, the newspaper exists for the following objectives: To serve as an independent forum for sharing of opinions; to understand and express popular feelings; to raise awareness of public issues; to provide information regarding development plans and methods; to aid the growth of literacy; to report development news, success and failures; to act as watch dog on government and public organizations and to promote and protect the freedom of expression. Topics range from: Features, Opinion & Analysis, Politics, Business & Economy, Sport and Entertainment to interesting regular columns (<http://www.publiceye.co.ls/about/>).

This mission statement forms the basis of the journalistic and professional ethos of *Public Eye* in its weekly media production. It can also be linked to one of the views gathered from the interviewees as will be shown below.

Given that Lesotho is a country in which mass media including print media play an important role in ensuring communication in different spheres of life, *Public Eye* makes a very significant contribution towards achieving its aims by producing about 20, 500 copies for its growing readership in the country of about two and half million inhabitants. *Public Eye* is a privately-owned, independent weekly newspaper published in English, by *Public Eye* (Pty) Ltd, a media agency based in Maseru, the capital of Lesotho (<http://www.themediacconnection.co.za/PublicEye.htm>). It has established itself as enormously important in news reporting in the country. This paper is increasingly becoming popular within Lesotho where it is estimated as having the largest circulation. Its readership is also reported as rapidly growing in different corners of Lesotho and across her borders (<http://www.publiceye.co.ls/about/>).

#### **4.3.2. Background Information mainly from Interviews**

Most of the information reported here is derived from the interviews that I conducted for the background of this newspaper: The initials used to refer to the interviewees are used in the rest of the section. Italics indicates translation from Sesotho.

WA – Wyngaardt Aletta, administrator  
PB - Peter Bosiu, reader  
TT - Tseliso Tsoeu, reader  
NL - Ntsau Lekhetho, journalist  
NS - Nthakeng Selinyane, columnist  
MM - Mahlomola Moloko, editor

*Public Eye* has also attracted different opinions from a number of readers in the country. As one of the interviewees, WA, the administrator, puts it, “a majority of the people in Lesotho want *Public Eye*. ( ...) *Let me say our circulation is 20 500 copies...20 500 all over Lesotho and parts of the Free State like Ladybrand, Thaba Phatsoa), Thaba Nchu, Botshabelo, Bloemfontein....*” (Part of a transcript).

The interviewee highlights the geographical range of the newspaper as a source of information, confirming the view that the newspaper attracts readership within and outside the country even from as far as Bloemfontein and other parts of the neighbouring Republic of South Africa.

NL, columnist, declares in an interview that the newspaper is aimed at educating and informing readers on different weekly newsworthy events of national interest in the country. The newspaper’s target readership includes readers of different age groups, the educated elite, learners in schools as well as people who are functionally literate in English as a second language in various walks of life in the predominantly Sesotho speaking Basotho community. In interviews PB and TT, regular readers, support NL by saying that the newspaper’s readership has widened, currently reaching diverse audiences including teachers and students in different secondary and high schools, as well as in higher learning institutions in Lesotho. Unlike some of the other weeklies in Lesotho, such as the *Public Eye* is one of the earliest newspapers to be published in English in the country. Being the largest English newspaper, *Public Eye* is not only unique, it significantly distinguishes itself in terms of its news coverage of both domestic and international newsworthy events as opposed to other weeklies, published in either Sesotho or English within the country (<http://www.publiceye.co.ls/about/>).

In its establishment the first issue of the *Public Eye* was published in the form of a photocopy A4 paper in August 1997. At the time, there was only one staff member, the founding editor/publisher, by the name of Bethuel Thai. This first issue unexpectedly received remarkable readership with 50 copies being sold within an hour in the market (<http://www.publiceye.co.ls/about/>). Bethuel Thai, who is the executive owner, the managing administrator and editor-in-chief, is cited as having had a purpose when founding this private and independent

newspaper, *Public Eye*, from a left-wing perspective. What follow are two responses to my question concerning the origin of the newspaper 'What was the purpose of *Public Eye* when it was founded?

WA (administrator) suggests: "that's why *Public Eye* is basically the main paper in Lesotho. (...) Mr. Thai's dream was (...) that he wanted a newspaper that everybody knew about, everybody talked about, everybody bought *Public Eye*..." According to NS, a long-standing and popular columnist of the newspaper, the paper started as a pinned sheet. Then it later became a tabloid in August 1998. He observed that the newspaper started as a business, and a profit-generating enterprise as well as a public opinion shaper; the roles which it sustained over the first three years after its foundation. As a regular contributor of the newspaper, since its onset, NS feels that the paper has slightly changed from its initial ideology and purpose. He argues that the paper started with an ethics-minded, leftist, progressive and transformative perspective. This observation about the paper can raise different views as regards its current status. For him the paper's so-called ideology is now more of a slogan which is being chanted without any practical relevance. Instead what he stresses is the fact that the newspaper, unlike many of its domestic contemporaries, has taken more strides in news reporting since its inception in 1997. He observed that the paper is objective in approach even in cases where it is being critical. He gave some examples of articles including his in which some readers were overtly criticizing the paper, but which went public without any editorial censorship. It is clear from these views of the sample population that people have different perspectives, albeit not necessarily generalisable, about the status of *Public Eye*.

One of the questions raised by the researcher in the interviews was related to news coverage by this paper. According to MM, the editor, newsworthy and priority topical areas covered by *Public Eye* include sociopolitical and developmental issues in the government institutions, parastatals and the private sector in the country. This wide ranging coverage of the newspaper partly accounts for its growing readership and extensive circulation in the country. Given this background, the *Public Eye* may be regarded as an

important source of information which regularly influences and shapes the thinking of the majority of Basotho society in different ways. In light of this background I analyzed editorials, economy and business as well as sports commentaries taken from *Public Eye* published in December 2004, 2005 and 2006 in Lesotho.

#### **4.4. Textual Analyses of Editorials**

My comments will be restricted to certain aspects of each text. I will focus on the lexicogrammatical items and the frequency with which they occur in the selected texts. Words, phrases, and/or sentences extracted from the main texts for comment will be underlined both in the main texts and extracts. For ease of reference, I will bold-number them in accordance with the paragraphs in which they occur. Just below the full texts I will place the extracts which I analyze and comment on.

##### **4.4.1. Introduction**

Generic analysis of editorials as a genre reveals their features and conventions and how positioning is carried out within them. As noted in chapter two, the editorial comment is one of the most important sections of the print media genre. It is the political voice and reflects the policy of the newspaper as well as its political identity (McNair 2003:77). It not only constitutes the opinion of the paper, but it also projects the paper's authority and power, either overtly or covertly. It has formulaic, structural and stylistic devices through which the editorial reflects the powerful voice of the paper (Oosthuizen 2001: 201). For example, the editorial always appears in a particular position on what is called "the editorial page".

As an unsigned article, the editorial can also represent autonomy of the paper with events unattributively represented (Nel 1998:37). On the basis of its institutional power it interprets, defines terms and comments on situations and on the significance of recent and current newsworthy events and press releases. According to Bell (1998), "the commentary provides the journalist's

or news actor's present time observation on the action assessing and commenting on events as they happen" (Bell 1998:67). Bell goes as far as noting the editorial as having certain salient features which make it catchy enough to attract readers' attention. For him, salience creates importance and also produces aesthetic pleasure and affective relation towards the paper (Bell 1998:200-201). Unlike other sections of the paper the editorial is considered to be a battleground in which language plays a very important ideological role as social practice, more especially, with the media claiming to represent the collective voice of the readers (McNair 2003:78).

As Francis Bacon points out, "Knowledge is power", (Kress and Hodge 1979:122). Editorial power derives from either social or intellectual power or both. The editors have an institutional power which gives them preferential access to that genre, and to newspaper publicity, formal language use, social and privileged status overseeing journalists, and determining what to include and exclude in the paper for publishing (Gans 1978:85, cited in Oosthuizen 2001: 200). Given this, *Public Eye* is not an exception and the following texts will illustrate the complex and subtle nature of positioning in discourse within editorials.

The following editorials from *Public Eye* have some common properties such as conventional typographical and visually salient features. The headline is written in bolded, slightly larger-sized font than the rest of the article. The rest of the article is also bolded and is in a font which distinguishes it from the other articles in the newspaper. This feature, which is also endorsed by contact details such as physical and email addresses, landline, as well as the paper's rights to publishing, is consistent in all three issues. For example, they all have a similar generic and formulaic structure signaled by the formulaic heading *EDITORIAL comment* which is placed above the headline in a strategic position labelled *opinion and analysis* in the paper. As noted in chapter two, editorials consist of headline, satellite paragraphs and wrap up, without any bylined writer nor lead. They all draw on news reports contained in other of sections of the paper.

#### 4.4.1.1. They deserve double alpha plus! December 10-16 2004

##### Full Text

1. **LESOTHO'S** schools close today (Fri), amid much rejoicing, for the long Christmas holidays. The-end-of-year exams are over and there is a buzz in the air.
2. But spare a thought for the students of Lefikeng Secondary School, Thaba-Bosiu, for whom schooling and grim reality go hand-in-hand. They have just completed writing their final examinations in quite atrocious conditions, through no fault of their own – nor indeed of the school they attend.
3. For these youngsters and some not so young, on whom fickle fortune has frowned rather than smiled in life, it was exceedingly bitter that they were subjected to typical exam weather- that is lots of rain- when it came to writing their papers. For their exam hall was a shack, and a none too watertight one at that. It let in the elements and the pupils were forced to cover their examination papers with pieces of torn boxes to protect them from the rain; also to use their knees or thighs to write on because there were not enough desks. Some students, having travelled, hungry, 20 or 30 kilometres just got to school, found the exam hall floor had turned into a pool and their feet became submerged in water. All in the name of education!
4. But wait, these unfortunate pupils do not hate their school; rather they love it and appreciate schooling and dedication of the teachers. Twenty-year-old Makhoathi Phathe blazes defiance when he announces: "No matter how old I am, I will continue to learn... I'm good at it and I love it." That's the spirit! Not unlike the gall of the remarkable 84 year old Kenyan grandfather kimani Ng'ang'a Maruga who, at the start of the school year, in January enrolled at his local primary school, having worked at a neighbour's farm to raise the money to buy school uniform. Indeed the Mau Mau veteran said he had joined the school for two reasons only- to learn how to read the Bible and count money.
5. Those who attend Lefikeng may have more straightforward, and less political, reasons than old Ng'ang'a's for going to school, but their hearts are in the right place, as no doubt are those of the volunteers who teach them. Anyone who can take their end-of-year examinations in the conditions they have done and come out smiling is made of stern stuff and can look life in the eye. Well done to them! And by the time next year's exams come round, let's hope the students can write in more comfortable surroundings. Who's going to help?

Starting with the headline this text starts off with the categorical declarative statement in which the Topic (They - the Theme of the clause) may raise questions 'Who are being referred to here? From whom are the referents (attributed participants) supposed to get the assumed alpha double-plus? This interpersonal function of language also suggests a shared context between

the preconstructed participants in this discourse as well as the way in which the editor relates to the audience, to negotiate meaning. The Topic They which is in the first position of the clause is a cataphoric reference, (personal pronoun which refers forward to nominals, that is, learners of this particular school in this case). It is indicative of a shared ground between the editor and the audiences as well as the property of intertextuality presupposed by the editor's proposition. The editorial also draws on the front page news report headlined Students weather grim exam battle on pages 1-2 on the same issue. The same news story is headlined as Rain pours in on pupils' papers on the page 2 into which the story continues. The two headlines evoke a serious and miserable situation facing the learners in this particular school. The editor confidently editorializes this story in the headline in words (declarative sentence) which reflect shared context and thus he implicitly calls for humane and generous feeling from audiences. Interestingly, he does not use the editorial to criticize the government for not providing better infrastructure for the schools.

The following extract also illustrates certain strategic devices used by the editor:

*Lesotho schools close today (Fri), amid much rejoicing, for the long Christmas holidays. The end- of-year exams are over and there is a buzz in the air*

**(Parag 1).**

Here the editor uses unqualified modality realized by the simple present tense verb, the temporal location as in "Lesotho schools close today...." and relational verbs are and is in intransitive declarative sentences. The there as a grammatical subject in this existential clause is used to affirm the existence of something or someone, that is, the existent (Finch 2000:96-9). The there suggests existence of a buzz as it is cast in present relational verb is. The is is which is followed by the temporal location in the air is used to express currency and the author's commitment to his claims, thereby suggesting insider knowledge, from an eye witness which presupposes a prior text on which the editor has drawn as noted above.

In the following extract the editor expresses the opinion of the newspaper in certain terms:

But spare a thought for the students of Lefiking Secondary School, Thaba Bosiu, for whom schooling and grim reality go hand-in-hand. They have just completed writing their final examinations in quite atrocious conditions, through no fault of their own- nor indeed of the school they attend (Parag 2).

In the extract, the conjunction but is used to introduce a picture which contrasts with the picture given in the opening paragraph. It contrasts the ideas of '*rejoicing and buzz in the air in the closure of schools*' (see the preceding paragraph), with the conditions under which the learners were writing their examinations at the school. The editor uses the imperative in "spare a thought for..." and repeats it in "But wait ..." (Parag 4)' with the author also evaluatively describing learning conditions of the learners as in "schooling and grim reality...". These imperative clauses (deontic modality) simulate a dialogue and position the writer as giving a directive to the assumed audiences.

On the other hand, the verb "...waits..." may follow the covert/empty subject '*you*' in the clause "*you wait*" in the traditional grammatical imperative sentence. This marks the clause as exchange, an interpersonal function of the clause (Halliday 1978:112) whereby the reader is persuaded to share (take action) this social exchange of ordinary life, and to have the same feeling of empathy as the author about the learners in this particular context. It is a speech act which in Austin's terms has a *perlocutionary force* on the hearer, the audiences in this case, (J. Austin in his Doing Things with Words). This discourse is also manipulative evoking a populist, liberal tone with the editor expressing solidarity hence popular feelings, sentiments and emotions with ordinary people. The choice of this news event and the manipulative tone are due to the preferential access to this discourse type by the editor; it might at the same time mystify power and authority claim, hence manifesting solidarity with a powerful elite of highly educated people . This echoes Menz's view that

media align with certain groups, yet are suspect since their function is to influence ordinary people (Menz 1989:234).

Moreover, the author's confidence can be noted in the modality of certainty as in "They have just completed writing...in quite atrocious conditions through no fault of their own" (Parag 2). The present perfect tense "have just completed" and the emphatic modal adverb quite and related qualitative adjective atrocious are illustrative of some evaluations. At the same time, (Parag 3) the editor quotes a 20-year old Makhoathi as saying "No matter how old I am, I will continue to learn...I am good at it I love it." In this way the editor disseminates the reported discourses to legitimize the voice of the learners as well as incorporating them into the newspaper's official discourse such as this one. The editor's evaluative framing of the learner's input, as in the present simple tense verbs blazes and announces, is used to construe the proposition which reflects the current scenario. The inclusion of other texts foregrounds intertextuality in this discourse.

In what follows the editor chooses different processes to foreground some writing activities in which the learners were engaged in the examination room:

For these youngsters and some not so young, on whom fickle fortune has frowned rather than smiled in life, it was exceedingly bitter...they were subjected to typical exam weather- that is, lots of rain- when it came to writing their papers. For their exam hall was a shack and a none too watertight one at that. It let in the elements and pupils were forced to cover their examination papers with pieces of torn *boxes to protect them from the rain*, also to use their knees or thighs to write on because there were not enough desks. Some students having already travelled, hungry, 20 or 30 kilometres just to get to school, found the exam hall floor had turned into a pool and their feet became submerged in water. All in the name of education! (Parag 3).

The marked theme *For these youngsters and some not so young, on whom fickle fortune has frowned rather than smiled in life*, signals the author's perspective from which to represent reality. Such a theme is backgrounded information which is called a 'launching off' point" in Gee's (2005:18) terms for the editor to assert a claim as in 'it was exceedingly bitter....' Here the editor

could be noted as evaluating the learners' condition from a moral principle, the commitment to the claim, as well as self-claimed role as a mouthpiece of the public by using the temporal relational process "it was...." to make his statements abstract and objective. By depersonalizing his proposition the editor makes it authoritative. This is an example of the media playing the role of a watch-dog as seen from the liberal-pluralist perspective (Curran 2000:127), as well as being an illustration of their power.

In the extract, these clauses "... Well done to them! And by the time next year's exams come round, let's hope the students can write them in more comfortable surroundings. Who is going to help?" highlight certain strategies of positioning (Parag 5). The exclamative well done to them! simulates a dialogue and judgment of the proposition realized by the modal adverb well, with a raised intonation. And the Let's, uses, the collective or inclusive us, the in-group designator which implies a relationship of solidarity with the audiences. It can also cause ambivalence as to who are actually referred to. It could also evoke the exclusive them, that is, those whom the editor cannot identify with in this discourse, the *Other representation*. Moreover, in '...let's hope the students can write them in more comfortable surroundings' the editor is also implying that students writing environment is not comfortable at the moment. This is realized by the use of the comparative adverb and evaluative adjective more as in more comfortable.

The interrogative 'Who is going to help?' could be both rhetorical and manipulative for ideological reasons. According to Kress and Hodge (1979), this is a catechistic expression, a rhetorical device in which the editor is not necessarily expecting the answer to the question. Instead, it suggests communication roles of the questioner and respondent with the former not necessarily expecting the answer, but obedience. According to Kress and Hodge, "a question where the questioner is (+ expert)" hence knowing the answer to the question "is interpreted as catechistic, aimed at producing the right answer rather than information" (Kress and Hodge 1979:95). It also marks an interpersonal function of language. As Halliday posits, interpersonal meanings are realized by grammatical, lexical and intonational devices strung

prosodically through a stretch of language (Halliday 1994, cited in Butler 1995). Therefore, in such a relationship, the writer could be seen as an expert on what is already presupposed by his proposition.

The editor's rhetorical representation could be seen as expressing empathy for the students thereby persuading and calling for shared concerns and feelings from the audience. Questions could be 'Why does the editor avoid mentioning the number of those who suffer long walking distance to school?' 'Isn't that ideologically motivated in his reporting in this particular discourse?' Perhaps, the questions of social disparity and educational problems in the country may be hinted or alluded to in this discourse.

In the following extract the author uses a narrative mode of discourse which foregrounds agentless passives in positioning learners in activities:

"...they were subjected to typical exam weather- that is, lots of rain...." .... It let in the elements and the pupils were forced to cover their examination papers with pieces of torn boxes to protect them from the rain, also to protect their knees or thighs to write on...." (Parag 3).

These agentless passives above highlight activities of the learners in response to the unfavourable weather conditions in which they were as in 'they were subjected; pupils were forced to cover their examination papers; to protect them....' Interestingly enough, the author is recounting events from an insider's perspective, positioning himself as someone with certainty about the events. This can also be taken as having ideological significance meant to expose seriously the social and physical discomfort facing the learners.

The editor uses metaphorical language, emotionalizing facts to further foreground the unfavourable learning conditions of the learners in school. This can be illustrated in "...fickle fortune has frowned rather than smiled..." where lexical items frowned and smiled are used to humanize the fickle fortune. This is implicitly articulated as likely to have adverse consequences for the learners, in their future. The following excerpt illustrates: "For these

youngsters and some not so young, on whom fickle fortune has frowned rather than smiled in life....” (Parag 3).

Here, the author may be seen as foregrounding the ‘volatile’ educational situation for these particular students. As a ‘mouthpiece’ of the public, the editor appears to be persuasive, lobbying for support and action so as to redress the situation. To take the point further, we analyze the second part of the editorial comment taken from the same issue of *Public Eye*, December 2004 below.

#### 4.4.1.2. A Question of priorities December 10-16 2004

##### Full Text

1. **THERE** is something strange in the state of Maseru city council. And it is not particularly logical nor may we suggest, responsible.

2. While over the past week or so passers-by and onlookers will have witnessed council workers busy stringing up Father Christmases and bedecking the streets with decorations depicting the imminence of the so called Festive season, those very passers-by and onlookers may be just the ones who are wondering why their dustbins have not been emptied for over a month.

3. And is it possible that the council workers busy hanging up Santas and other bits and places to make jolly are the very same personnel who should be emptying the bins?

Here the headline A question of priorities is the phrase which suggests that there is negligence in the provision of certain services. It implies that the editor sees the need for urgent service delivery to people in Maseru by Maseru City Council, as in:

**THERE** is something strange in the state of Maseru City Council. And it is not particularly logical, nor may we suggest responsible. **(Parag 1).**

And is it possible that the council workers busy hanging up Santas and other bits and places to make everyone jolly are the very same personnel who should be emptying the bins? **(Parag 3).**

The first existential clause is a declarative which suggests identity relationships, with the editor categorically telling something to his receptive

audiences who are also positioned as willing to be told. The clause which involves a qualitative adjective strange confirms and evaluates the situation in the Maseru City Council. This is followed by a highly modalised, statement, an unmarked question, realized by may suggest. In this way, the editor may be simulating a dialogue, a rhetorical question to the presupposed audiences, hence provoking debate with a positive answer to the question over this state of affairs. This is a catechist question, one to which the asker knows the answer, as noted earlier. The editor may be campaigning as if from an environmentalist perspective for environmental awareness and the preservation of nature in the city. He also implicitly invites the audiences' support for action to redress the situation. The rhetorical mode of this genre is argumentative, with the editor using the conversational tone typical of everyday language of ordinary people. Thus, this may be consistent with the populist discourse drawing on the liberal-pluralist approach to media production (see chapter two).

#### 4.4.1.3. LCD<sup>1</sup> for Sale\_December 16-22 2005

##### Full Text

1. **SO FAR there** is nothing that can be used to rid the LCD, even the state executive, of Prime Minister Pakalitha Mosisili. This is because there is no obvious alternative; within his own party or from the opposition parties. We know that out there are plenty of dormant leadership qualities; but in politics, it is a question of willingness, preparedness and readiness to lead that is required. Mosisili has no competitor in this field.

2. Mosisili may be legally right but morally wrong to say that he will not resign so long as LCD continues to rule. He sees nothing wrong with leaders hanging on to power for decades; perhaps he takes his inspiration from Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe. He cites some monarchs in the world with the specific case of Britain as his excuse for his statement.

3. No matter how much Mosisili can attempt to justify his statement, it is morally wrong for him to make such statements because he must always attempt to encourage new leadership by showing preparedness to vacate the position. A good leader in a democracy is one who creates leadership, not one who portrays himself as the ultimate leader.

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<sup>1</sup> LCD, Lesotho Congress for Democracy, is one of the largest political parties in the Kingdom of Lesotho. It is currently the ruling party in the country.

4. Mosisili's preparedness to rule forever, taken into consideration together with some constitutional changes in the LCD structures regarding classification of membership, is an attempt by him and perhaps other higher-ups in the party who believe they have gained more financially and are at a power advantage to own and run the party forever.
5. The fact that those who can pay more for membership than those who contribute bright ideas will have more power in the affairs of the party puts the majority of membership who have not been at the helm of the party leadership at a further disadvantage while opening up opportunities for the 'Italian Mafia' style, where moneyed criminals buy their way into the state power structures.
6. This is because the LCD's objective as a political party is to vie for government and whatever practice within its structures as party will be reflected in government.
7. LCD is not only a leading party in terms of following but also in terms of being organized as well as of its ability in conflict resolution. All eyes of the electorate and the international community are on the LCD as the party that must lead the way in nurturing fragile democracy in Lesotho. If it fails, it will be a case of the gold getting rotten; so imagine what will happen to the iron.
8. We therefore appeal to Mosisili to be an evangelist of democracy and canvass for new leadership within his own party and the population at large.

The headline LCD for Sale is a phrase summarizing the editorial comment on the recent newsworthy event. It draws on a news story headlined I won't resign, says Mosisili Moleleki, Thabane tipped as possible successors taken from the same issue of *Public Eye*, Vol 9 no 50 December 16 2005. The Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Lesotho (henceforth PM), Mr. Pakalitha Mosisili is reported as saying he would stay on in power. In the same way as the previous editorial, this text has similar typographical features typical of the editorial. There are similar generic features including discursive practices for text production, distribution and consumption which Fairclough (1992:71) views as involving different people at various stages (see chapter two).

The editorial headline LCD for Sale, includes the word sale, a nominalization which is often a noun formed from either a verb or an adjective. Any nominalization constitutes a single element in the message structure (Halliday 1985:42). This headline evokes such questions as 'By whom is LCD sold?' 'If it is so, to whom?' 'Is it on *sale* because the PM has declared not to resign and is lobbying for the party leadership? Why does the editor term this a "sale"? The writer may be taking the prerogative of making such

reformulations, capitalizing on having been delegated to put forth the newspaper's opinion for public consumption. The lexical item sale thus renders agency vague and inferential. The nominalization conceals the grammatical feature of tense, making the sale something without time specification. This nominalization also projects a strong claim to the truth making the proposition seem unchallengeable and unquestionable. It is presupposed to be known not only to the writer, but also to others outside this immediate context. Both the editor and audiences are also positioned as engaged in this shared dialogue and knowledge concerning LCD for sale. The editor further uses nominalizations in "LCD is not only a leading party in terms of following but also in terms of being organized, as well as its ability in conflict resolution..." (Parag 7).

The headline can alternatively be translated into something like '*LCD is for sale*' or '*LCD is on sale*'. Ideationally, it could be a declarative sentence by which the writer is probably claiming authority to inform, thereby self-positioning as a teacher with some knowledge, interacting with audiences who are receptive and willing to listen and read, an interpersonal function of the clause. It is thematically about LCD, which is however involved as patient, realized by a nominalized word sale. This has the effect of hiding the fact that there was an agent in an intransitive relational construct. As the Topic of the clause, LCD is the *Given*, that is, already known, established and familiar information to both the reader and writer in a given discourse type (Kress & Van Leeuwen 1998:189). The sale is the *New* information, which according to this view refers to the unknown and is "the crucial point of the message" (ibid: .189). The writer may be teasing LCD in that, while it may be an appealing political organization to people, it may at the same time (1989:234) with whom the writer positions himself.

This text puts forth the editor's perspective. It is an official discourse in which the editor could be campaigning for action from the general public whom the paper is claiming to represent. While the main voice is the editorial, other voices are identified, for example, those of the LCD as a political organization, the PM, the leader of the party, the government, the executive, higher ups,

LCD leadership, President Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe and other identities in the discourse. The rhetorical mode of this discourse type could be seen as descriptive and argumentative drawing on the moral principle of the writer. Given this, using the strategic rhetoric the editor positions himself as an expert describing in definitive terms the PM's reluctance to step down about which he implicitly calls for action, suggesting what should be done.

The following extract shows a number of lexicogrammatical features which mark some forms of positioning:

**SO FAR** there is nothing that can be used to rid the LCD, even the state executive, of Prime Minister Pakalitha Mosisili. This is because there is no obvious alternative; which his own party or from the opposition parties. We know that out there are plenty of dormant leadership qualities; but in politics, it is a question of willingness, preparedness and readiness to lead that is required. Mosisili has no competitor in this field (**Parag 1**).

In the above extract the editor's positioning shifts between strong and weak modality using the simple present tenses to describe different processes. The marked *Theme*, **SO FAR**, which is the author's "launch off point", precedes the categorical declarative statement "there is nothing that can be used to rid the LCD..." The Theme is bolded and also cast in capitals to make it salient, catchy and reader-friendly. It also presupposes a trend in political history which the editor assumes to share with ideal audiences. Here the introductory there in the existential clause suggests that the editor neutrally confirms *existence* of this trend thereby making the proposition authoritative. The copula is expresses the relational process of polarity, in this case it is negative polarity which is realized by the word *nothing* as a subject complement. As a relational process the simple present is is used to show a strong commitment to the truth of the proposition, hence rendering it objective and authoritative. According to Gee (2005:190) the independent clause like "there is nothing" is foregrounded by virtue of having a finite verb. On the other hand, the modal auxiliary can, as in "...that can be used to rid the LCD" is ambiguous as it suggests either *epistemic possibility* or *ability*. This phrase is also backgrounded as it is in the subordinate clause which is introduced by the relative pronoun that. These shifts between deontic and epistemic modality

serve to mystify the strong commitment to the truth of propositions by the editor.

These shifts of positioning are carried on in describing the PM in the following extract:

Mosisili may be legally right but morally wrong to say he will not resign so long as LCD continues to rule. He sees nothing wrong with leaders hanging on to power for decades; perhaps he takes inspiration from Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe. He cites some monarchs in the world with the specific case of Britain as his excuse for his statement (Parag 2).

In the above excerpt the discourse shifts between categorical and tentative expressions to position the PM in relation to political landscape of Lesotho and further afield. Interestingly enough, the editor's framing which draws on the represented discourse of the PM's statement, includes epistemic possibility as in "Mosisili may be legally right...and the *hedging* Perhaps as in "Perhaps he takes inspiration from Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe". The epistemic possibility and hedging background the editor's assertions about the PM's speech drawn upon in this discourse thereby contrasting sharply with the alleged statements of the PM. The editor also frames the PM by incorporating the PM's categorical prediction will not and by using categorical statements in his account of the PM's behaviour as in "he sees nothing wrong", "he cites some monarchs". The verbs sees, cites foreground the alleged determination of the PM. Also noted is that these claims have some intertextual features as they make a kind of analogy between two sociopolitical contexts between Lesotho and Zimbabwe. The editor's third person framing of this PM's political behaviour is illustrative of the discourse of power and authority; it renders his propositions detached from any particular speaker, hence impersonal, neutral and authoritative, reflecting the view proposed by Kress and Hodge (1979:92-93).

In this way the editor could be considered to be making strong and evaluative claims about the PM. The possessive adjective his also serves as a cohesive device in two instances, thereby highlighting the exclusive '*Other*' *representation* with regard to the statements allegedly made by the PM. The

*'Other' representation* suggests ideological positioning which excludes the PM from the general public, the *us and them* (him) discourse. While it is clear that these statements include formulations from the PM's speech, the editor does not clearly indicate such incorporation. Instead, unattributed formulations are used in these comments. In the process there is a creation of subject identities and relational roles between the editor and the audience. The editor positions himself as an informed evaluator and assessor of the political context, a role which he is entrusted to play by the assumed receptive audiences and by the newspaper's owner.

Furthermore, there is display of expertise or knowledge with the writer using formal and technical political jargon. For example, lexical items such a state executive, monarchs, power for decades, power structures democracy and leadership. (Parags 1, 2, 3, 5). This is another feature which may show both intellectual and social power, on the part of the author. As Kress and Hodge (1979) point out, "Power can become knowledge" (Kress and Hodge 1979:92). The editor uses technical jargon to categorize and define politics in expert terms, showing commitment to the 'truth' of his propositions. He categorizes the PM as not having the qualities of good leadership as in: '*...A good leader in a democracy is one who creates leadership....*' (Parags 3, 4,). This statement implicitly presupposes that the PM is a leader in a democracy, prescribing what a leader ought to do; which is what the PM does not do; he is implicitly presented as doing the opposite of what is expected in a democracy.

Besides, the editor also prescribes what the PM should do in a democratic set up "*...he must always attempt to encourage new leadership by showing preparedness to vacate the position....*" The PM's leadership style could be interpreted as unacceptable, so it may be seen as facing challenges. The editor's manipulative and 'doctrinal' (prescriptive) lobby can also be noted in the following extract wherein he is rallying the general public into an action to redress this alleged political anomaly:

No matter how much Mosisili can attempt to justify his statement, it is morally wrong, for him to make such statements because he must always attempt to encourage new

leadership by showing preparedness to vacate the position. A good leader in a democracy is one who creates leadership, not one who portrays himself as the ultimate leader.... (Parag 3).

The ambiguous use of the modal auxiliary can as in "...Mosisili can attempt to justify his statement..." suggests either *ability* or "*epistemic possibility*" Coates (1992:62) on the part of the PM. This modal contrasts with the strong assertion and prescription "...it is morally wrong... and ...he must always attempt..." (Parag 3). The it as in the relational process "it is morally wrong..." suggests the editor's objective proposition making his claim seem impersonal, hence neutral and authoritative. The relational process is as in "it is morally wrong...", the emphatic adverb of frequency always and the deontic modality must as in "...he must attempt always attempt..." highlight the editor's self-positioning from moral principles in relation to the audiences and the PM. The adverb of frequency like always is seen by Booth as one of the words used to express "a flatfooted, unqualified and aggressive tone" (Booth et al 2003:137). The choice of this modality of certainty makes propositions prescriptive, hence manipulative and persuasive in the discourse. In this light, the rhetorical mode of this discourse type is argumentative and it is used to reflect the *Public Eye's* ideology in this particular context.

Furthermore, the deontic modal must expresses an "*obligation expression*" (Myhill and Smit 1992:246), which suggests an imposition on the PM. The clause "...he must always attempt" (Parag 3) is used objectively without identifying the force behind that obligation to the PM. Obviously, the writer takes power upon himself as a mouthpiece of the general public hence prescribing such an action. This reality as seen from the editor's perspective is expressed in a particularly essentialized and natural way. This aspect may simultaneously conceal the vested interests and dominant ideology of the newspaper.

The same presuppositional and intertextual connotations can also be seen in the inclusive, collective we, a cohesive device which is also used in "We therefore appeal to Mosisili to be an evangelist of democracy and canvass for

new leadership within his own political party and the population at large” (Parag 8). This repeats earlier implicit representation of Mosisili as someone with no democratic principles and thus having to be asked to change his political behaviour. From this perspective he may be considered to be a ‘power hungry’ politician being positioned as ‘undemocratic’, someone who undermines the rights and values of what the majority of the people. Also significant is that the editor sacralises his proposition by using a Biblical item *evangelist* by which he appeals to the ‘soul’ of the PM, and perhaps also to souls of the audiences. The term also presupposes positioning someone without any initiative to inspire leadership judged on religious (evangelical) grounds by the editor.

The we as in “We know that out there are plenty of dormant leadership qualities....” (Parag1) is ideological as the author appears to be addressing large anonymous audiences in an attempt to express a relationship of solidarity with the ordinary people. With the use of the inclusive we the author commits not only himself, but he also commits other people who are unknown. This is one significant feature which brings about ambivalence in such a liberal discourse as this one where ordinary people’s interests are stressed (Fairclough 1995:70).

This is the dynamic editorial we, also known as the “corporate *we*” (Fowler et al 1979:202), which may be suspect and dangerous if not made verifiable and overt, since it does not clearly specify its referent. Fowler et al (1979) point out that this is a single voice, but claiming to speak (uninvited) for a large group of unknown voices, in most cases, evoking a relationship of solidarity with ordinary people (Fowler et al 1979:202). There is ambivalence here and invocation of ideology with some questions raised, whether it is the editor who positions himself alone, or with the editorial team alone, the newspaper administration, or all those positioned as outside the ruling party in Lesotho in this particular incident. However, the we becomes even more prominently ambivalent given the context of Lesotho in which there are sociopolitical and religious divisions. This manipulative and persuasive strategy is also similar to Fairclough’s (1989) ‘conversationalized discourse’ under the rubric of social

control by consent as in capitalist society where people may be positioned along with the dominant groups for example, as *consumers and owners* of the institutions while in actual fact the dominant class still sustain their power over other groups (Fairclough 1989: 36-37).

#### 4.4.1.4. Politics of tolerance December 01-17 2006

##### Full Text

1. The shooting to death of Netherlands citizen Samuella Jacobina Verwey, 36, at trade and industry minister Mpho Malie's residence in Hillsvie last Friday should – like other killings in recent years – need not be taken lightly. **(SIC)**
2. Whether the minister was the target of the shooting or not is not known until police investigations are over, but that precious human lives are at stake for whatever reason, should make us stop and think where this nation is heading to.
3. With estimations that the next general elections will be held in February 2007, it's high time parties educate their supporters about political tolerance and the need to respect and accommodate other's views, without resorting to violence.
4. History has taught us as human race that does not pay, and that those who live on violence face violence demise. **(SIC)**
5. Party supporters are known for their unwavering backing and over-zealousness that sometimes they lose their rationality - all in the name of backing their preferred candidate. They may see violence as the way out, by knocking 'some sense' into their opponents' heads.
6. That is why it is necessary for political leaders to emphasize to their supporters the need to remain calm even in the face of potentially volatile situations.
7. We would not want to re-live the painful events of 1998, when the country was thrown into political turmoil. Such events should have taught us to be wiser and appreciate the mighty of the word, instead of the sword. **(SIC)**
8. Reports of the formation of a new political party this week--the Basotho National Democratic Party-- show that as election time approaches, more entities are bound to join the bandwagon.
9. The challenge to our party leaders is that they should be able to agree to disagree on issues of national interest without resorting to violence. They should also be able to respect each other and lead by example.
10. If not, then we can only be convinced that whatever agendas they are pursuing are not in the interest of peace and stability, but for their own selfish gains.

This editorial comment draws on an official news story with the headline Shooting at the minister's home...Malie suspects he had a narrow escape taken from the same issue of *Public Eye* Vol 10 No 48 December 01 2006. The editor focuses on the need for political tolerance on the part of all parties and their supporters. In condemning the violence, past and present, he does not single out or blame any political grouping. What is striking in this editorial is the range of strategies used to foreground what the people of Lesotho need to share (a political culture of respect and tolerance) and to background political divisions.

Starting with the headline the editor makes process type choices, a nominalization marked by the item tolerance as in ***Politics of tolerance***. The word tolerance is derived from the transitive verb tolerate which *means to endure or bear something*. As a verb, the word would follow a subject, the agent who tolerates, and it would be followed by an object, the affected. But the editor's choice to nominalize focuses on the result, namely tolerance, and for the moment backgrounds the agents and the affected. In the choice of other nominalizations, The shooting, other killings, estimations formation and violence (Parags 1, 3, 8), the editor also backgrounds agency. He uses the definite article '*the*' in The shooting and '*other*' in other killings which presuppose existing knowledge common to him and his readers. This kind of representation implies that these reported shooting and killings can be associated with a lack of politics of tolerance in the country. Obviously the editor and reporters would have known which groups were implicated in the political violence of the past. The fact that he refrains from identifying any of these groups, taken together with the frequent use of inclusive we, us and our (Parags, 2, 4, 7,9,10) foregrounds what all the people of Lesotho have to do. At times he appears to be addressing the leaders of the political parties (Parags 3, 6, 9) and at other times he appears to be addressing party supporters (Parag 5).

The editor uses deontic modality and necessity, for example, "should, need, it is necessary, it's high time parties educate... need to respect and accommodate other's views", (Parags 1, 2,3,6,7,9). These highlight the

editorial voice making the prescriptions deemed to be from a morally responsible person. The should and need (Parag1) suggest presupposed collective obligation, and at the same time hint at the authority claim by the editor to speak on behalf of the public. The ideological import of this may be seen from the angle that the role of the media is that of a watch dog of the public on the government and also of actions of the political elites. This could also be consistent with the mission statement of the newspaper as well as what MM, the editor, indicated in the interviews I conducted. The rhetorical mode of this discourse also is accusatory with reference to the political situation in the country. The editor confidently describes events using present tense passive verb are known as in “Party supporters are known for their unwavering backing and over-zealousness that sometimes they lose their rationality-....”

The passive representation also indicates the editor’s modality of certainty, confidently claiming the truth of his proposition as in are “supporters are known for...” This appears to be from someone who knows, thus defining events for the information-hungry public. Here, once again the editor makes a clear-cut distinction between the anti-thetic pronouns, *we* and *they* formulations associating the *they* with moral obligations and negative representations as in (Parag 10). The editor therefore does this negative *Other representation* using the corporate *we* to foreground the solidarity with the people, thereby representing the claim as unanimous and collective. The *us* and *them* discourse is thus evoked here with the editor assuming the same level and in-group membership as the silent majority whom the paper claims to represent. With reference to the Other/outgroup, the editor uses evaluative negative representation “...not in the interest of peace and stability .... their own selfish gains as in “If not, then we can only be convinced that whatever agendas they are pursuing are not in the interest of peace and stability, but for their own selfish gains”.

## 4.5. Textual Analyses of Business and Economic News

The business and economic news reports are often specialized discourses with a focus on “bank presidents and chambers of commerce” as well as financial trends viewed from the economic perspective (Nel 1998: 111, 121). They involve financial matters with some changes from their original focus on only business people to some investigative and analytical aspects (Harriss et al 1992:374, cited in Fourie 2001: 347). Business reports are also about people who are involved in business, and about the manner in which the business environment deals with people’s development programmes. They are concerned with financial news of general interest such as job opportunities, improved transport services, electricity and petrol prices and tourism (ibid.:347). One of the typographical features of a typical business news page is sober headlines. Like other news stories, business and economic news reports have a headline, lead (introduction), ‘satellites’ (paragraphs) and ‘wrap up’ (final paragraph). These conventions and rules make the article part of a ‘hard news’ story (Fairclough 1995:72). The following business and economic news reports have the same formulaic structure as noted above. The headline and lead are visually salient. They are written in bold and larger font. Stylistically, news reports like these ones often incorporate official news reports into their coverage as opposed to the editorials. According to Bruck (1989), the fact that official discourses influence media, depends on the type of discourse in a given context. This influence is more often realized in the news reports than the editorial or features (Bruck 1989, cited in Fairclough 1995: 98). This seems to be the case in the business news texts taken from *Public Eye* to be analyzed below.

## 4.5.1. Rubbish crisis in fly blown Florida December 10-16 2004

### Full Text

#### BY LIBUSENG NYAKA

1. **MASERU-** Parts of Lesotho's capital are beginning to stink because bins have not been emptied for over a month. This particularly applies to some residential areas like Florida- already afflicted by a fly menace and cattle farming carried out within the home area.

2. Nor are the animals restricted to Florida. Motorists find them being herded through the Hooхло robots during the morning rush hour, oblivious of the traffic or road regulations

3. At the weekend cattle, sheep and goats could be seen grazing on the land set aside in old Europa for the national library and archives.

4. Tsepo Mareka, public relations officer for Maseru City Council, who only a fortnight ago promised action against illegal dumping near Maseru Golf Club- where, incidentally, nothing has been done - said - dustbins should be emptied every week but lack of vehicles made it difficult for the job to be done efficiently.

5. When asked about the Florida situation, he promised that within a week the dustbins would be emptied, now that the council was aware of the problem.

6. "I'll believe it when I see it," said one resident. "The same man promised action on the rubbish near the golf course and nothing happened. And, once again, it is *Public Eye* which has had to tell him where things are going wrong. Has the council not got an inspection team?"

7. As far as home farming is concerned, Mr Mareka said there was no law to prohibit people from this; there were only by-laws which were not active. The laws could only be activated with parliamentary approval.

8. Ironically, he said delay in implementation of the by-laws arose because most of the people in authority were the ones doing home farming.

9. However, people, practising home farming who agreed to speak to this paper said the reason they were farming was that their children needed milk.

10. "The council may prohibit the use of any stable, cowshed, pen or side, which in the opinion of the council is unfit, undesirable or objectionable by the reason of its locality, construction, condition or manner of use", says the relevant by-law.

11. By imposing such a by-law, the city council could theoretically have full control over home farming. But actual abolishment can only be achieved through the approval of the cabinet.

The article has a bylined author typical of hard news stories, as noted in 4.4.1. Here multiple voices are embedded within the representing discourse. The latter is the main actual participant voice weaving together other voices into

this text. The voices are differentiated and attributed to named people such as Mr. Mareka, and to institutions such as the Maseru City Council, and to other non-speaking voices such as motorists, residents, and anonymous authorities who are represented as affected by the critical situation in Florida. There are both neutral and evaluative framings which have an impact on the meaning of the discourse.

The news headline Rubbish crisis in fly-blown Florida, is a sentence fragment which is typical of news reporting. Here the reporter implies an unbearably infested area, with serious environmental hazards which need urgent attention. The headline is descriptive and could be translated into something like '*Florida is faced with fly-blown crisis*'. The thematic progression focuses on Florida as *Given* as well as *patient*. The use of lexical items stink, afflicted by a fly menace is resonant with an unbearable situation which puts health at stake. As if writing from an environmentalist perspective, the reporter uses a nominalization rubbish crisis. This phrase can convey a message that the epidemic of flies is really a serious problem facing the city as a result of poor service delivery on the part of Maseru City Council.

In his categorical assertion the reporter's modality is realized by using various tenses such as the present progressive, simple and perfect tenses to indicate the situation in Florida. The verbs are beginning, have not been emptied (*agentless passive*) and applies (*the universal present*) (Parag 2) illustrate how the reporter foregrounds some processes as matters of fact that cannot be challenged. One typical example is 'Ironically, he said delay in implementation of the by-laws arose because most of the people in authority were the ones doing home farming' (Parag 8). Here, focus is on the represented discourse drawn from Mr. Mareka who is an official of the council. The reporter also legitimizes this official discourse by using a neutral and simple quotative verb said, but evaluates Mr. Mareka's claim with ironically. The following also illustrates a neutral framing: "Mr. Mareka said...dustbins should be emptied...". (Parags 4, 7, 8). These are however not blatant framings, though the boundary between reporter's formulation and the reported discourse on which he draws becomes ambiguous for reasons given below.

The adjunct ironically suggests the reporter's doubt about the claim made by the Maseru City Council officer as in Ironically, he said, "delay in implementation" of the by-laws arose because most of the people in authority were the ones doing home farming". Mr. Mareka's statement is unsubstantiated. It may be congruent with what Menz (1989:234) refers to as "mythical group of reference" in discourse. While the report reflects official formulations realized, among other things, by a quotative verb said which signals intertextual chaining, the reporter appears to be foregrounding poor service delivery, lack of law enforcement as well as negligence of environmental safety on the part of the Maseru City Council. This report with its focus on the welfare of the ordinary people is atypical of business and economic news as characterized by Croteau and Hoynes (2001) (see 2.2.3.3 above) .

#### **4.5.2. Leaded petrol to be phased out December 16-22 2005**

##### **BY N TSAU LEKHETHO**

- 1. MASERU- Leaded petrol will be phased out on the Lesotho market from January 1, next year in terms of government's recommendation to discontinue its use by 2006.**
2. "Lead, which has widely been used as petrol additive since the 1920s and is emitted from vehicle exhausts, has great potential to harm human health".
3. "Research confirms that lead is poisonous and toxic," petroleum officer at the Department of Energy, Hlonpho Ntlamelle, told *Public Eye* last week.
4. "It has potential to damage brain nerves of children and increases chances of heart diseases and high blood pressure in adults".
5. Leaded petrol was phased out first in North America and across Europe, and increasingly, the rest of the world. Energy department, principal technical officer Babalwa July said owners of cars unsuited to running on unleaded petrol fuel need not panic.
6. "All petrol supplies will provide alternative lead replacement petrol (LRP), which will be unusable in those cars not compatible with unleaded petrol", she said.
7. The already available unleaded petrol will replace leaded petrol and, as from January 1, motorists will be able to choose between 91, 93 and 95 octane unleaded petrol in all districts.
8. Mr Ntlamelle said a study found that 20 per cent of vehicles use leaded petrol in Lesotho.
9. "One of the main reasons could be the unavailability of leaded petrol in most districts excerpt Maseru," said Miss July.

10. Performance would not suffer when motorists changed from leaded petrol to lead replacement petrol, and they could gain through a reduction in maintenance costs.

11. "It is recommended that drivers of all cars should consult their car dealers for advice on the use of different products of petrol", Mr Ntlamelle said.

12. Research shows that leaded petrol cannot be used by cars equipped with catalytic converters designed to reduce harmful exhaust emissions as lead very rapidly and permanently renders the catalyst completely ineffective.

13. Miss Babalwa said there would not be additional levies on leaded petrol, as refineries would absorb costs.

In the above text, the news headline written in bold and visually salient font, is placed above the bylined writer whose name is written in capitals. The headline is also placed strategically under the BUSINESS & ECONOMY page which is also in bold and uppercase letters. The headline is framed in the form of non-finite clause leaded petrol to be phased out. This headline consists of a sentence fragment, a passive variant in which leaded petrol is the topic, the *Theme* of the news event. According to Fromkin et al (2004:123) the fragmented sentence has no constituents of the grammatical sentence as in *Mary (S) hired (V) Bill (O) SVO*. The sentence can be analyzed into Subject agent, Verb action word, Object patient. The object which is often the last element in the linear order is often optional. The subject can be optional in cases of imperatives. In most cases the fragment has no verb which is the main constituent in the sentence. This headline brings into focus the agentless process to be phased out. It is just summarizing this action without any specific temporal and locative situation, presupposing the established common knowledge to audiences. As Kress (1989:38) points out, in the case of such agentlessness it is left for readers to assume the subject. The statement also performs an interpersonal function in which the reporter informs the receptive audience who may be willing to get the news from the supposedly knowledgeable person.

The lead, which is a summary of the news story, is cast in categorical prediction will, and the temporal circumstances from January 1, next year are given to mark the validity and truth of the reporter's propositions. He makes an assertion positioning the event within specific temporal contexts implicitly

highlighting in nominalized form, the implicit role of the government as in government's recommendation. The nominalization its use which transforms the event in terms of agency into a process, hence allowing focus to be on the leaded petrol in use rather than who uses it, when it is used and the like. Despite the use of these transformations (passives and nominalizations), this lead summarizes the event in terms of what happens, when it happens, why it happens and how it happens. The *whs* are typical of the lead paragraph so as to give the gist of the news story succinctly (Bell 1991:177). Since the temporal and spatial context of the nominalizations cannot be determined, these propositions are therefore rendered suspect; they are ideological in suggesting things happening as if without human intervention. As such they become both objective and authoritative suggesting a neutral and powerful voice, perhaps which the reporter shares.

While the reporter quotes Mr. Ntlamelle (Parag. 3) as one of the voices in this report he does this by incorporating the unattributed Research shows (Parag. 12), thereby shifting between attributed and unattributed formulations in this discourse type. This may make the voicing of the discourse complex, since it becomes unclear whether the reporter purely disseminates official discourse into his reporting discourse here. This ambiguity could show how news reporters sometimes take up the prerogative to determine what becomes a news event and how it can be represented. Reporters also position their perspective by drawing on the source discourses, thereby incorporating other discourses. This process contributes to heterogeneity in texts. This is typical of text production associated with Kristeva's notion of intertextuality. Intertextuality simply means inclusion of properties of other texts within a particular text (Fairclough 2003:218).

The reporter uses intertextual chains directly quoting from the text statements marked by inverted commas which he incorporates into his report. This is called manifest intertextuality (Fairclough 1992:117). An example is "All petrol supplies will provide alternative lead replacement petrol (LRP), which will be unusable in those cars not compatible with unleaded petrol". The reporter uses simple and neutral framing in the form of the quotative phrase "she said".

However, the reporting verb said which is used six times in the whole text might cause ambiguity as to whether it is the reporter's formulation or not. This is because the reporter even uses the same verb in three paraphrased instances of the representing discourse as in (Parags 5, 8 & 13). In such instances boundaries between the representing discourse and the represented discourse become vague because of the double-voicedness.

To mark off the discourse as formal and official the reporter effectively uses first and second names as in petroleum officer, Hlonpho Ntlamelle, Mr. Ntlamelle, Energy department's principal officer, Babalwa July, Miss July and so on (Parags 3, 5, 8 and 9). Using elite actors' names as well as providing scores and schedules serves to legitimize the represented discourse, confirming its facticity and objectivity (Bell 1991:177). This aspect also involves the reporter's self-positioning in relation to the reported discourse and his audiences, an element of formal relationships. The language use by the reporter may be seen as reflecting his intellectual power, and social status which he holds in this particular discourse. He positions himself as knowledgeable; using process type choices such as, performance...replacement... reduction in maintenance costs (Parag 10), though accompanying these with an hypothetical would which hedges his report. The fact that this genre mixes both the official and private discourses makes it conversationalized, that is, having the official discourse colonized by the informal discourses Fairclough (1995:11), more especially as a result of social and cultural changes. This conversationalised discourse may cause contradiction and destabilization to the official discourse as mixing of texts renders the discourse increasingly ambiguous and ambivalent (Voloshinov 1973:119-20, cited in Fairclough 1992:119).

### **4.5.3. Patients to pay more medication pharmacies at risk of closure December 01-07 2006**

#### **BY N TSAU LEKHETHO**

- 1. BLOEMFONTEIN -The Government should review its approach capping medicine prices, because, in particular, predominantly black and disadvantaged people stand to lose on essential medicines when new dispensing regulations come into effect in January, according to a local pharmacist.**
- 2. Talking to *Public Eye* this week, Bonang Tloti of Central Park Pharmacy, acknowledged reports that pharmacies could face closure due to dispensing regulations, a move the United South African Pharmacies heavily criticized last week.**
- 3. "Among other things, the introduction of the regulations would exaggerate prices as most pharmacies will keep themselves afloat by charging patients extra fees," Tloti said. "In fact, it's going to be a lose-lose situation. Pharmacies won't be able to cover their expenses and will close down. Government will also lose on the revenue".**
- 4. Subsequent to the tariffs announcement on October 31, it has transpired that the department of health pricing committee did not make provision for inflation. "It means I can't of course discount anymore," said Tloti. The dispensing fee for medicines with a single exit price (SEP) of R75 would be R4 plus 33 percent of the SEP, while 64 percent of medicines fell into this bracket.**
- 5. The fee on medicines costing between R75 and R250 would be R25 plus six percent; between R250 and R1, 000, R33 plus three percent; and R 1,000 and more, R50 plus1, 5 percent.**
- 6. It is feared that of the 2,467 pharmacies polled, 63 percent of them would fail, 22 percent were "likely to survive", while 15 percent were at a significant risk of failing.**
- 7. "It's really going to have a detrimental effect to the pharmaceutical industry in the long-term," said Tloti. "We are proficient as pharmacists in dealing with patients. We offer individual attention and they can understand our language on how to use their medication. But now they stand to lose."**
- 8. The Pharmaceutical Stakeholders Forum was last week meeting the pricing Committee to discuss resolutions to the regulations. A letter had been written to health minister Manto Tshbalala Msimang and director general of health, Thami Mseleku, to "defer" the implementation of the regulations.**
- 9. At this time, a minimum of six towns in South Africa are without pharmaceutical services as the dispensing fee for pharmacists stipulated in the regulations is considered inappropriate.**

In the above article, the news headline is a summarized sentence fragment typical of news headlines. Expressing a news story, this headline starts with the word Patients which is informationally prominent, taking the first position of

the fragmented clause. As noted earlier, the fragmented sentence has no other constituents of the grammatical sentence. Analyzed in this light, the two-part headline fragments cannot qualify as a grammatical sentence. However, its meaning presupposes an obligation (which is realized by the infinitive phrase to pay) and also that medication has previously been paid for and continues to be paid for, though at higher costs in future. This is realized by the comparative adjective more. The headline also consists of the second sentence fragment disjointed from the former by the *ellipsis* in whose place could otherwise be a causal link to introduce the second part. This presupposes a causal relationship, thus suggesting a cause-effect on the pharmacies. The second fragment could thus obtain as in PHARMACIES AT RISK OF CLOSURE, that is to say, pharmacies could be seen as faced with danger of closing because of this price rise. However, the headline marks no attribution of this obligation imposed on the patients. Nor does it indicate the tense of the proposition.

Like the previous business articles this one has a bylined writer, an attributed voice, to whom the floor has been delegated. Besides, while written from the reporter's perspective which is the main voice in this newspaper, this report uses other voices that are attributed differently. Seen in some parts of this text, these voices are identified by first and second names, institutions as well as by functions. These include the government, black and disadvantaged people, local pharmacies, Tloti, the Minister Manto Tshabalala-Msimang and director Mseleku, the forum and so on. Using names and others' statements reflects the represented voices; this is called dissemination in Fairclough's (1995:58) terms. This also indicates a way of giving voice to the secondary discourse and legitimizing it in this representing discourse. The reporter takes the prerogative due to his preferential access to the discourse.

The lead summarizes some negative effects of the medicine price rise on some blacks, changes which are due in January. That is, it gives the temporal context. The speaker, a local pharmacist uses deontic modality, should taking the prerogative of a morally responsible person urging the government to review its approach capping medicine prices set by pharmacies. He also uses

the universal present tense verb come which here indicates certainty in terms of categorical prediction for the changes to take place. While the lead is attributed to an anonymous local pharmacist, there is no speech punctuation to show a boundary between the representing and represented discourse. This illustrates intertextuality, and has an element of doublevoicing because of the multiple voices involved in this news report. In cases where there is no attributed source within a paragraph, the demarcation line between the voices may be obscured, as in paragraphs 5, 6 and 9.

The writer further incorporates the represented discourse by framing. This is marked by the performative verb acknowledged, which implies an imposed evaluation of the pharmacist's statement. Added to this is the writer's inclusion of epistemic possibility, could in his reformulation of the latter's discourse. The verbs illustrate the fact that the reporter gives voice to the represented discourse though this to some extent makes the boundary between the reporting and the reported discourses blurred, since the discourse is indirect (Parag 2).

The author's unattributed versions can also be noted (in Parag 6), wherein an agentless passive, "It is feared....," hypothetical modality, would and epistemic possibility, "likely to survive" are used. The writer not only makes inferred statements, but he also hedges them, even enclosing the "*likely to survive*" in inverted commas, as if he doubts and/or disapproves of the validity and truth of this proposition. The author's modalised statements are realized by the temporal circumstance At this time. This is an unmarked theme which, according to Fowler et al (1979:207) has a distancing effect, in this particular case showing currency and common ground between the reporter and audiences. The reporter also uses a limiting quantifier, "...a minimum of six..." which despite its precision, is also an evaluative proposition regarding the South African towns affected (Parag 9).

In addition, there is intertextual chaining of both representing and represented discourses in which the author marks off direct quotation with inverted commas. Here, he uses the reporting verb said, by which he disseminates the

report. The said, is used as a neutral and simple framing which also confines the events to the past tenses, hence of limited duration in three instances as in (Parags 3, 4, and 7) respectively. This story includes, among others, medicine prices and their percentages (Parags 4 and 5), which are couched in the hypothetical modality would to reflect hypothetical willingness or uncertainty, as well as precision and objectivity. This also serves to give credibility to this news report as it draws on some technical expertise.

## **4.6. Textual Analyses of Sport News**

Sports news as a genre has certain conventions and features which can distinguish it from other news stories. Typographical features include a bold and salient font typical of hard news stories. There is a formulaic structure consisting of the headline, lead, satellites and wrap up. There is positioning in sports news. Reporting on sport simply as a game the news reporter uses a genre specialized geared towards its audiences. Sports involves a lot of “action including scores, winners, losers, triumph, passion, heartbreak and courage, conflict” and so on (Nel 1998:121). As Andreas H. Jucker (1995) points out, in ‘*Mass Media*’ “sports comments focus on specialized audiences” and they have their own peculiar lexis designed for their audience. Fourie (2001), views a sport genre as the game which is full of colourful language and action (Faure 2001:347). According to this view, sport reporting is put in such a way as to appeal to the human emotion from the perspective of an eye witness account with the reporter addressing different fans, coaches and managers (Faure 2001:353). Here the reporter chooses local items which reflect violence and position participants in a war-like situation. In this light, we will analyze the texts taken from sports news articles of *Public Eye*.

### **4.6.1. Rivals Matlama and Linare share spoils December 10-16 2004**

#### **BY THABANG LOKO**

- 1. MASERU Arch-rivals Matlama and Linare played out a goalless draw in a much anticipated Buddie premier league clash at the Pitso ground on Saturday.**
- 2. The two teams- the crowd pullers in the domestic league- started off the game without either making much of an attempt on the goal of the other.**

3. But on 15 minutes Matlama took the game to the visitors with strikers Hlomelang Theko and Paseka Manyanye shooting from distance. Then Brown Makobe shot wide.

4. Linare were very solid at the back with former Matlama player Rethabile Nkoe at the central back marking Theko tightly.

5. Linare's Thabang Busa and Kabelo Mosothoane caused a rush of blood in front of the Matlama goalmouth, but thanks to the safe hands of Matlama goal keeper Lekunutu Tsoeunyane they were denied goals.

6. Half time: Linare 0, Matlama 0.

The second half kicked off in a heated fashion with both teams fancying an early chance to make a breakthrough. Linare won several corner kicks, but midfielder Molefi Mosebo failed to make use of them.

7. Matlama's coach decision to substitute Pali Tsalong for Thabang Mahlakajoe to give his side a boost worked to advantage. Linare's back wall began to look vulnerable with a communication lapse being a constant thorn of contention between the defenders.

8 However, Matlama's efforts to score a winner despite dominating the game proved futile. Nonetheless they maintained top spot in the league.

9. Elsewhere, Lesotho Prisons Services (LPS) defeated Swallows 2-0 and Lesotho Mounted Police Service (LMPS) beat Majantja 0 by the same score. Rovers edged Bantu 3-2, Lerotholi and Qalo remained goalless, while Lesotho Defence Force blanked Arsenal 2-0. Lioli and Lifefo did not play.

**Sunday results:** LMPS 2 Mphatlalatsane 2, Lifefo 1 Arsenal 0, LPS 4 Lioli 1, Linare 0 Lerotholi 1 Swallows 1 Matlama 1 Bantu 2 Majantja 2 be

In the above article, the headline **Rivals Matlama and Linare share spoils** is a grammatical sentence which involves the SVO constituent structure. The first element which is the compound subject Matlama and Linare, can be seen as an agent doing an action, realized by the verb share affecting the patient spoils. The clause describes social activity thus expressed in the declarative categorical sentence. It is a simple present tense active voice casting the teams as actively involved in the action of sharing spoils. The term spoils (*which is formal or literary*) literally refers to goods taken from a place by thieves or by an army that has won a battle or war. Here the teams are conceptualized as enemies, as a result of a presupposed war, in this particular communicative event. The reporter claims the validity and truth of his proposition which he casts in simple present tense to construe a fact. This is in spite of his reporting to large audiences who include sports fans,

supporters and match viewers of the games in progress. He is positioning himself confidently as someone with the requisite knowledge to narrate dramatic sporting activities in evaluative terms that will be well received by the receptive audience.

The text is represented in the main voice of the bylined reporter, Thabang Loko to whom the floor is delegated. The sports writer, also known as a beat reporter, gives a detailed account of a newsworthy event. He uses lexicogrammatical items from the commentator's perspective positioning himself in narrative terms as an eye witness to the events. In the lead paragraph which is written in bold and salient font, the news writer casts the events in hyperbolic terms further construing players as combatants. These emotionalized items include arch-rivals and clash to represent a conflict (Parag 1).

Sports events are narrated in complete categorical terms in the chronological order in which they happened, with schedules of particular matches and scores indicated. For example, players (Parag 5) are identified as actively engaged in physical activities evaluatively cast in the agentless passives as in "...but thanks to the safe hands of Matlama goal keeper, Lekunutu Tsoeunyane they were denied goals". The discourse is also typified by elaborate figures of scores made by different teams which were involved in the games. The statistical information on scores may be regarded as intertextual inserts from another authoritative source contributing to the impression of precision and objectivity on the part of the reporter. Such discourse may also suggest some technical knowledge on the part of reporter, as well as an ability to use the prestigious language of statistics.

In this soccer sport which is conceptualized as a battle, lexical items which are suggestive of conflict and war are arch-rivals, clash, caused a rush of blood, defeated, beat, and edged (Parags 1, 5, 9). This militarized representation may transform the discourse, thoughts as well as social practices related to sports. This is also used to foreground the heroic and valiant behaviour in sports thereby calling for support for the national team which in turn marks

nationalism and national pride. On the other hand, this militarization of sport discourse presupposes that other teams are positioned as enemies against other domestic teams. This is a manipulative and persuasive strategy used by the media, especially sports commentators to persuade readers to take sides. The reporter presents sports in such a way as to win the support of all the Basotho people.. Sport is being foregrounded with the reporter positioning ideal audiences who share the same devoted spirit to sporting activities and/or strategically manipulating the audiences.

#### **4.6.2. Under 20s put up brave fight in COSAFA Cup**

**December 16 - 22 2005**

##### **Full Text**

##### **BY THABANG LOKO**

**1. DURBAN- Makoanyane XI hopes of clinching the Confederation of Southern African Football Association (COSAFA) cup for the first time were shattered when they lost their final game 0-1 to Madagascar at King Zwelithini Stadium on Sunday.**

**2. The gallant Basotho gladiators blew hot and cold, losing their first game 1-5 to Zambia before trouncing Swaziland 4-0 and Mauritius respectively.**

**3. The team was nominated as the best losers in their group to proceed to the semi-finals with Zambia. Lesotho went on to beat South African counterparts 3-1 on penalties to qualify for the finals.**

**4. On the other hand, Madagascar fared well throughout the tournament. They slaughtered Namibia 7-2 in their opening game, beat Malawi 3-2, Seychelles 7-0 but 0-1 to Angola.**

**5. Madagascar also beat Zambia 4-3 through penalties in the semi finals before their final with Angola.**

**6. During the final game on Sunday Madagascar dominated the game from the on set (sic) with the strikers Voavy Paulin and Ramiadamanana Claudio keeping Makoanyane XI's defence busy.**

**7. However Lesotho midfielder Ralekoti Mokhalane was firm and played as the anchor of the team. He challenged for the ball and supplied passes upfront where Dlomo Monaphathi and Katleho Moleko failed to convert them into goals.**

**8. Makoanyane XI coach Lehlohonolo Thotanyane was forced to replace striker Lehlohonolo Ncheba with Sello 'Scalo' Muso after the player sustained leg injury.**

9. In the 39<sup>th</sup> minute Makoanyane XI's Monaphathi header narrowly went wide after an indirect free kick, while Bokang Lefty Mothoana hit the left bar after a free kick during the 48<sup>th</sup> minute.

10. However it was Madagascar that hit the back of the net in the 70<sup>th</sup> minute through their captain Rajaonison Jean after a numbers of defenders fumbled with the ball inside the box. He coolly tapped the ball past goalkeeper Lerata Tsalong.

11. Afterwards Makoanyane XI pressed hard to equalise but to no avail because Madagascar was physical when they went for challenges. It came as no surprise when their player Randramihaja Eddy was sent off for the second booking.

12. Makoanyane XI coach Thotanyane said the team was satisfied with the result because all players showed commitment and determination to succeed throughout the games.

13. He also pointed out that the team went to the finals with Ncheba, Mokhalane and Mothoana nursing injuries.

14. The team would embark on an exercise to recruit new players because most of the current players would be over 20.

15. Minister of Sports Mathabiso Lepono said the team should be applauded for raising the country's flag high during the games.

16. Even though the team has lost the finals, they need our support to do well in future international games. She added.

17. She also said that Makoanyane XI's success will not only boost the morale of the nation but will also improve standards.

18. Makoanyane XI fared poorly in last year's COSAFA games in Johannesburg, South Africa. They lost to Zimbabwe and Madagascar and were bundled out of the tournament in the first round.

19. However the team went to impress in the African Youth Games in Benin early this year where they reached the quarter-finals.

The news headline is a categorical declarative statement which ideationally projects a mental action by the agent, Under 20s' put up the brave fight as the object of the clause. The text is about Under 20s, as the *Theme* of the clause, while brave fight is the *Rheme* the in the COSAFA cup is a circumstantial element of the clause. The rhetoric of the headline is hyperbolic by using the metaphor put up brave fight, conceptualizing the team as preparing for the fight or war hence having to defend themselves in referring to sports preparations. The clause, written in the simple present tense active voice construes the event, as an unchallengeable reality, and a matter of fact from the well-informed source. In the lead the writer uses the agentless passive with affective tone to foreground the perspective from which he writes,

Makoanyane XI hopes, were shattered when they lost their final game 0-1 to Madagascar at King Zwelithini Stadium on Sunday. Using the agentless passive makes agency inferential since the reporter appears to be foregrounding the transactive role of the team. It also creates an interactive climate, an interpersonal relation between participants. The reporter is positioned as an expert teller with knowledge and authority and the hearers or readers as people who are receptive and willing to be informed.

Writing mainly in the past tenses, the reporter takes up the role of a primary witness. For example, in extract one, the reporter focuses on “Makoanyane XI’s hopes...”. This is the topic of the clause which ends with the agentless passive “...were shattered” (Parag 1) and is foregrounded or asserted information. According to Gee (2005), “an independent clause has as one of its functions that it expresses an assertion that is, it expresses a claim that the speaker is making” Gee (2005:55). The reporter further foregrounds the following paratactic clauses, (those which are equal in status in a sentence (Fairclough 2003:220); one is the active variant, the other, the agentless passive as in “The gallant Basotho gladiators blew hot and cold”, and “The team was nominated”, (see the definite article before the noun phrases). In these clauses he thus confidently places the team as actors in relation to their sporting activities. The reporter’s interaction with his audiences here is that of the expert, informing the ignorant about the facts happening in the sporting circles. He can be seen as doing this by even labeling the players by their first and second names, one feature which is typical of sporting reports.

Even more interesting are the metaphors used in this narrative discourse. “Metaphors structure the way we think, act and our knowledge systems and belief” (Fairclough 1992:194). For example, the reporter’s lexis draws on military discourse: brave fight, gallant, gladiators, beat, all of which may suggest the discourse of war. According to O’ Shaugnessy and Stadler (2002), sports reporting is often couched in violent terminology taking sportsmen as engaging in violent acts not only against others, they are also depicted ready to cope with any violence which may result. As these authors point out “in sport, attention is drawn to male violence and media

representations of male fighting and anger towards others. The culture of pain and masochism is found in sport as one of the defining arenas of traditional masculinity, sport as an endurance: 'no pain, no gain,' male sport is understood in terms of power, strength, and competition- winning and losing...in the process of which wounding also occurs" (ibid.:249-50). The term, "masochism (informal) refers to the enjoyment of something that most people would find unpleasant or painful" (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD 7<sup>th</sup> ed). In this way, the players' engagement in sporting activities tends to be thought of in terms of a fight. As noted earlier, metaphors transform sports discourse, thoughts and social practices.

While this representation is imbricated with the idea of battle, referring to the Makoanyane XI as *brave fighters*, the reporter seems to be selective in representing language used to convey the message. In cases of putting forward their defense, he tends to highlight this with lexical choice as in "...During the final game on Sunday Madagascar dominated the game from the on set with the strikers Voavy Paulin and Ramiadamanana Claudio keeping Makoanyane XI's defence busy" (Parag 6). The question could be "why does the reporter express the Makoanyane XI's defence as being kept *busy* rather than being fought by their opponents?" The idea here may be to avoid presenting this as a kind of cross fighting between the two teams; this is represented in using terms like brave fight and gallant gladiators by the reporter apparently in favour of the local team in this report. This might, likewise, be one strategy on the part of the reporter using certain transformations such as keeping Makoanyane XI busy as seen above. These are manipulative devices used to promote their newspaper's ideology by representing positively the local team versus the hosted teams.

Incorporated into this article are some intertextual features, including graphics, which are typical of sporting reports. These include the reporter's dissemination of the Sports' Minister's speech as in "*Minister of Sports Mathabiso Lepono said the team should be applauded for raising the country's flag high during the games.*" This can also mark the unique label of a discourse type, more especially when heroic activities of Makoanyane XI are

foregrounded in the discourse. The reporter also reformulates the minister's discourse by using neutral and simple framings as in said (Parags 15, 17). Using these he gives voice to the latter without any evaluations and translates it into official discourse.

### 4.6.3. Mphatlalatsane silence Majantja December 01-17 2006

Full Text

#### BY ERNEST THABO

1. Mphatlalatsane FC last Saturday thrashed Majantja FC 2-0 in a Buddie Premier League match played at the former's St Monica's ground.

2. The visitors- who in their minds won the game before kicking the ball- came chanting winning slogans and making noise to boost their psychological morale over their timid opponents.

3. But the home team stood firm and absorbed the first half pressure and turned the wave of the game in the second half to secure two goals that silenced Majantja.

4. Majantja's 'victory' confidence was not unfounded because they came into the game with confidence that made them dominate the entire first half. The home team were found pinned in their own half, chasing the shadows of Majantja's Mpihaneng Thamae and Thabo Mafoso, who terrorised their opponent's defence at will and making the match a dull one-sided game.

5. The visitors overshadowed the home team's midfield and won several set-pieces outside Mphatlalatsane's eighteen area but failed to convert them into goals.

6. Mphatlalatsane only came into the game after their coach breathed instructions to them at break. The second half became lively as they swung the game into the visitors' half using their now rejuvenated midfield.

7. The home team took control after resorting to short passes as opposed to aerial balls that were won by the relatively tall visitors. The strategy immediately worked for them as striker Mpho Mofolo capitalised on the opponent's defence lapse to register the first goal in the 50<sup>th</sup> minute.

8. The goal brought some excitement into the dull first half game as the unexpected goal made the visitors press harder in search of an equalizer; it could have come a minute later after Mphatlalatsane's drawn out keeper was beaten to the ground, only for an alert defender to clear the ball from the goal mouth.

9. The home team's confidence made the match become a balance see-saw game, with both teams fighting hard for ball possession. The visitors' desperate and panicking search for an equalizer cost them a second goal that came after their defence was once again caught napping in the 81<sup>st</sup> minute. This allowed Mphatlalatsane's young enterprising Moeketsi Mathiba to sweep the defence before unleashing the last nail in the visitor's coffin.

This discourse type is a communicative newsworthy event, which reflects a social activity. It is about the match between two teams one of which is positioned as having beaten the other to silence, hence conceptualized as death. This is a news report with a single voice represented by the bylined reporter, Ernest Thabo, as the main voice, teams such as Mphatlalatsane and Majantja, and some players who are identified by full names from each team. Given this, this is a hard news story organized and styled with almost the same formulaic structure as the previous sports articles.

The news headline is a declarative sentence, realized by the present simple active voice in which Mphatlalatsane is presented as the theme of the clause. Two teams are involved, one the *Theme*, that is, *Given*, the already known information. The other is the *Rheme*, *New* information in the clause. Since Mphatlalatsane is about the topic here, it is in the informationally prominent position of the clause, while Majantja is the Rheme. The reporter, from the insider's perspective of an eye witness presents the sport as a dramatic action narrating what happened. He positions the team as having stopped the assumed noise made by the latter team. The reporter's framing could be seen as evaluative, being judgmental of the visiting team's applauses thereby evoking a form of disorder or unbearably noisy excitement on their part.

This is developed in the lead wherein the reporter uses the verb thrashed, a material process with the Home team conceptualized as harshly beating the latter. The verb could evoke emotional or affective tone on the part of the reporter also positioning the Home team transactively (active voice) as in, "Mphatlalatsane FC last Saturday thrashed Majantja FC 2-0 in....". (Parag1).

This can also be noted in the transactive clause "But the Home team stood firm and absorbed the first half pressure and turned the wave of the game...." The nominalizations pressure and wave are also used to render attribution inferential with the reporter backgrounding the agency of the Visitors' team. Here again the reporter starts with a contrastive conjunction but to foreground the positive representation of the Home team despite the pressure under which they might have been at the match. This adversative representation is a

response to what he positions as the *negative Other's representation* as in "The visitors- who in their minds won the game before kicking the ball- came chanting winning slogans and making noise...." With the above, the reporter could be seen as implying outgroup membership of the Visitors as in the verb came thereby expressing his perspective (Parag 2, 3). The came into, used with the Visitors' "victory" confidence with victory marked off by inverted commas, further highlights the author's perspective as an outsider, also describing as dull, the first half of the game. This is realized by the use of the *negative Other representation* as in lexical items such as dominate, terrorised, making the match dull one-sided (Parag 4). The writer's representation also categorically conceptualizes the game as a battle with the Visitors being positioned as losing to their death. The following is also illustrative: "...The visitors' desperate and panicking search for an equalizer cost them...their defence was once again caught napping in the 81<sup>st</sup> minute. This allowed Mphatlalatsane's young enterprising Moeketsi Mathiba to sweep the defence before unleashing the last nail in the visitor's coffin (Parag 9).

On the other hand Mphatlalane's 'fresh' entry into the second half of the game is here presented as revitalizing and making the game enjoyable as in "their coach breathed instructions, became lively as they swung the game....now rejuvenated midfield....some excitement into the dull first half are illustrative of positive *Our representation* here (Parags 6,8). The notion of sports as a battleground (ibid: .362) is recurrent, with players' roles being represented as largely militaristic and war-like.

#### **4.7. Positioning in three genres of the Public Eye**

In this section I start by commenting on positioning in each of the three genres: editorials, business reports and sports. Since only one example of each genre is taken from any given year, in the commentary below the texts will be referred to by their year only.

### 4.7.1. Editorials

Positioning happens very conspicuously in editorials through a number of devices.

Most important is that positioning happens in the interpersonal metafunction of language. Editorials are typically unsigned, though they use first person pronouns. These are primarily the editorial or corporate *we*, *us* and *our*. On occasion direct address *you* may occur. The inclusive first person pronouns, when contrasted with *other representation* can be used as a strategy to achieve manipulative purposes on the part of the editor. As shown, for example, in Fairclough's analysis of Thatcherite political discourse and 'the people', (cf chapter two), the *we* is a construct with which the editor forms an alliance or a relationship of solidarity with the audiences, a feature which may also serve to win the consent of the general public. The use of this device in all three editorials not only manipulatively forges relationships with the unknown audiences, but constructs the editorials as having the power to be the mouth of the people on the topic of their choice. Some typical examples are, ("let's hope....", "we know...." editorials 2004 and 2005 respectively).

Another prominent positioning strategy is the use of deontic modality marked by such modals as *should* and *must*, 'obligation' items (term used by Myhill and Smith 1995:246) which indicate power on the part of the speaker. For example, the editor implicitly prescribes, as if writing from a position of institutional, moral and legal responsibility, what the political landscape should be like in Lesotho. The effective use of such obligational modality indicators as should, need, must and it is necessary indicates the authority of the editorial. These deontic modals have an interpersonal function, with the editor constructing a world in which the ideal readers or listeners have to do something, and are thus placed as subordinates to the editor. The interpersonal function of such speech exchange is meant to have a perlocutionary force on the hearer or reader.

The voice of the editorial is reflective of the theory (cf chapter 2.2.3.2) in that, editorials give out opinions as well as commands. The editorials of 2005 and 2006 are illustrative of this typical prescriptive vocabulary.

The editorials also use demand clauses as in “spare a thought...” and “wait...” (2004). These lexical items also simulate a dialogue with the hidden *you* which the editor uses to evoke direct personal relationships with the readers, hence constructing common ground as well as the power dimension. Phrases like those quoted above can also be used manipulatively to indicate the editorial authority.

Catechistic questions often appear in editorials. See, for example, 2004. In these questions, the author not only asks a known information question, but he demands obedience from the audiences based on the asymmetrical relationships that obtain. Positioning is also very strong in ideational metafunction where editorials speak with authority, confidence in and commitment to the truth of their propositions. This is marked by categorical statements cast in the categorical present tense verbs to evoke universal truth and facts. Relational processes, such as verbs of being *is*, *are* and other forms, definite article *the*, demonstratives *this* and so on in relational clauses as well as existential clauses are some of the examples used by the editor. The 2004 editorial figures such patterns with the editor confirming the existence of, and describing something as in “LESOTHO’S schools close today (Fri), amid much rejoicing, for the long Christmas holidays. The-end-of-year exams are over and there is a buzz in the air”.

In one of the three editorials positioning is reflected by the incorporation of other voices as in direct quotes. Here the editor legitimizes and gives voice to the reported discourse. This feature is somewhat atypical of editorials. As Faure (2001: 346) points out, (see chapter two) the editorial page reflects the paper’s voice and opinion as well as the power of the paper. Nominalizations and passives also feature in the editorial 2004. These features, as McGregor (2003:7) points out, omit information about agents of power at sentence level. As indicated in chapter 2.7.2 and 2.7.3, these features can have ideological significance.

#### 4.7.2. Business and Economy Commentaries

Unlike editorials, business commentaries are always bylined. However, beyond the bylining, positioning happens primarily in the ideational metafunction. Positioning in these business commentaries is mainly cast in objective epistemic modality which serves to make an authority claim to the propositions. The reporter also explicitly attributes some of the processes at intervals. In the event of attributions the reporter uses direct discourse to legitimize and give voice to the reported discourse, hence the use of intertextuality. For example, "One of the main reasons could be the unavailability of leaded petrol in most districts except Maseru," said Miss July (Parag 9.) .This manifest intertextuality is conspicuous in this business report and it is also marked the quotative said, a neutral and simple framing which is recurrent in this discourse type.

Transformations: both nominalizations and passives are also effectively used as in rubbish crisis, recommendation and closure (2004, 2004 and 2006 respectively). While such formulations may have derived from the source discourse, the reporter probably uses them to highlight the phenomena rather than the agents.

The recurrent use of address forms and personal references as in titles, first and second names, and also references to the function and institutional affiliation of role players is also significant here. It contributes to the formal tone, precision as well as objectivity of this discourse type, which in turn makes it credible. Some of the examples are Tsepo Mareka, public relations officer for Maseru City Council (2004), petroleum officer, Hlonpho Ntlamelle, Mr. Ntlamelle, Energy department's principal officer, Babalwa July, Miss July (2005) and Bonang Tloti of Central Park Pharmacy (2006).

The events that are commented on are elitist newsworthy events about the instability and unexpected changes facing the business and investor community. The discourse concerns itself with established institutions and figures as sources for news content thereby making this news elitist in

character. Seen in this light, the reports appear to be lining up with the dominant ideology, which is consistent with what is claimed by analysts within the political economy approach to media production (see chapter 2.2.2 ).

### **4.7.3. Sports Commentaries**

Like business reports, sports are also bylined and are primarily concerned with representation of events in the world, the ideational function of language. However, they imply interpersonal relationship with readers with the reporter often narrating news stories from an eye witness perspective. The most conspicuous form of positioning in this particular genre is spacio-temporal orientation in the narratives. According to Faure (2001:353) the sports reporter, who is also known as a beat reporter, is often an expert in his particular sport coverage and narrates news stories, speaking to readers and viewers from the insider perspective, giving facts as though he is telling audiences who are ignorant but willing to be informed.

The news stories are related, with invocation of dramatic action, often couched in metaphorical language of war and violence. This marks the narrative as discourse of war typical of sports genres as noted in (chapter 2.2.3.4). Metaphors used in the texts involve lexical items such as beat, fight, clash, thrashed, terrorized, striker, battle, blood, coffin, (2004, 2005 and 2006). The players, who are referred to by their full names, are conceptualized as combatants, some as winners, others as losers in this militarized discourse. Reports are mainly cast in the past tenses. However, they include authoritative references to scores and match schedules of anticipated sports events. The identity of the players is also signaled by and associated with their teams, which the reporter describes with confidence and knowledge, hence making a claim to the truth of his propositions. The recurrent mention of place and personal names as well as names of the teams probably signals the precision and objectivity of the discourse type. It is evident that in sports writing there is a mixture of partisanship and objectivity. Hartman believes that sports writing “adheres to the basic rules of news reporting and to ethics of our trade: accuracy, clarity and fairness....”

(Hartman 2005:89). My close analysis of the three reports did not provide evidence that partisanship had militated against accuracy, clarity and fairness.

Unlike in the editorials, in sports reports the writers do not use the inclusive *we*, or *you* to simulate any dialogue and/or explicit solidary relationship with the audiences including the players. Solidary relationship appears to be implicit, signalled by the reporter's *negative Other representation* of the other teams in some instances as in "Voavy Paulin and Ramiadamanana Claudio keeping Makoanyane X1's defence (sic) busy" (2004, Parag 6). Moeketsi Mathiba to sweep the defence before unleashing the last nail in the visitor's coffin (2006, Parag 9). The articles do not include positioning through deontic modality or catechistic questions. The journalists' accounts are largely declarative with categorical statements which are full of colorful and emotional language as noted in the theory in (chapter 2.2.3.4). Instead their reports are couched mainly in epistemic objective modality, at times in nominalized and passivized expressions. These nominalized and passive transformations appear to be used strategically in some cases in which the news writer hedges the forces of the outgroup's team as in "they were denied goals" (Parag 5, 2004). "But the Home team stood firm and absorbed the first half pressure and turned the wave of the game...." (Parag 3. 2006).

#### **4.7.4. Comparative Overview of Positioning in three Genres**

An overview of the three genres reveals some conspicuous patterns reflective of positioning both within and across the genres in each of the three issues. First, some of the most salient aspects marking differences between the editorials and news reports are typographical characteristics as in font, size, bold and layout. Also conspicuous is the difference in attribution: it is signaled by bylining in news reports as opposed to the lack of bylining in editorials. News reports mainly opt for the use of objective modality to achieve positioning in an implicit manner despite their conspicuous attribution below the news headline. Editorials, on the other hand, mainly involve subjective

content which is mainly cast in both epistemic and deontic modality to reflect authoritative positioning.

The use of the editorial *we* along with its related forms: *us* and *our* this feature is exclusive to the editorials analyzed. The use of imperatives, catechistic questions as well as monovocal representation which occurs with greater frequency in the editorials than in the two types of news reports. The editorials thus mainly figure presupposed voices which are not explicitly manifested. However, the editorials are more conversationalized than the other two, the feature which marks the populist character of these discourse types. This is achieved through the incorporation of both official and informal aspects,

In contrast the business news reports are not only formal - a feature which they share with the editorial to some extent - they involve multiple voices. Their intertextuality is manifested in the incorporation of direct quotation. Business news unlike the other two genres involves quotative *said*, the neutral and simple device which indicates little or lack of evaluation. Sports news, on the other hand, features evaluative metaphorical devices, and it does so much more frequently than the other genres.

However, the three genres have certain common features. For example, they all use transformations such as passives and nominalizations for certain ideological investments. Epistemic modality cast in categorical present tense verbs is used much more frequently than deontic modality across the genres. It is the implicit objective modality which is most often used to achieve authoritative positioning.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## CONCLUSION

### 5.1. Introduction

In this study I explored a number of issues with which I provide a concluding discussion of the entire study. The study set out to examine positioning in different linguistic items in editorials, business and sports commentaries in the weekly newspaper, *Public Eye* in Lesotho. I examined three approaches to media production as a way of contextualising the texts used in my study. Fairclough's analytical framework was used for my textual analyses of media texts from *Public Eye*. I identified the linguistic strategies most commonly used in each of the three genres and commented on differences and similarities in methods of positioning across the genres. This study was primarily qualitative, but I did do some frequency counts of linguistic items in order to check my impressions of shifts and/or continuities in methods of positioning in the selected newspaper genres over the past three years. I have looked at how the findings may be linked with the theory.

### 5.2. Summary of key findings

#### **Significance of the positioning patterns**

In this section, I present the findings from the textual analysis. These findings form part of my answers to questions regarding positioning which this study set out to examine. The general patterns just presented above (in chapter 4.6) have arisen from the analysis of texts from the three genres of the issues of *Public Eye*. The following are the three main questions that this study set out to answer: "What kinds of positioning strategies are used in editorials, business news and sports commentaries?" "How is modality used in editorials, business news and sports commentaries to reflect positioning?" "Are there any significant differences and similarities between editorials, business news and sports commentaries in their use of the modality system and other positioning strategies?"

Positioning has been found to be taking different forms in the three genres. The patterns revealed include the editorial *we* which is most significant in the editorials as opposed to other genres. In the editorials also most conspicuous are both epistemic and deontic modality with the editor displaying some degree of authority and power as well as a claim to the truth of his propositions. Linked with the theory on modality (cf chapter 2.7.1) in editorials, categorical modality is cast in strong terms taking both objective and subjective forms from the institutional, legal and moral perspective. The editorial is marked by ingroup designators such as collective *we*, *us*, *our* to foreground common background and shared feelings with the general public. This *we*, which is much more pervasive in editorials than in business and sports commentaries, also presupposes *other representation* which is reflected by out-group designators such as *they*, *them* and *their*. This is linked with the theory in that the editorials in most cases take the prerogative to speak on behalf of the people, identifying with them and also influencing them with the editor's power by virtue having the preferential access to discourse, topic choice and being in the media as an institution. While this is reflective of the generic aspects of the issues, it is also probably because the editorial as the voice of the paper shows the paper's power and knowledge base, and also takes the role of watchdog on the government, business and private sector alike. This role is linked with the liberal-pluralist approach to media production.

In business and economy news, epistemic modality (in most cases taking objective forms) is used with the reporters claiming accurate knowledge and the truth of their propositions. Here, positioning is largely achieved through the incorporation of other discourses into the representing discourse. There is effective use of direct quotes along with address forms and full personal names to legitimize other voices. This marks the formal nature of the genres also coupled by using neutral framing with less evaluated expressions (Scollon 1998:235-36). In the same manner as the editorial, business reports also use a considerable amount of passive and nominalized forms. The fact that business reports quote texts from other sources then incorporate them

into the representing discourse, renders the reports not only precise, but they also appear to be objective and authoritative.

Positioning in sports reports is achieved largely through the use of epistemic modality. Their declarative statements are frequently marked by spatio-temporal representation. This is probably because of narrative nature of the genre as if from the eye witness account in presenting particular dramatic events. These events are highly emotionalized in these reports. Sports reporting is characterised by metaphorical devices through which the reporters represent the reality as if from the insider's perspective, categorically. The use of technical jargon typical of sport in the three articles I examined is probably generic – see chapter 2.2.3.4.

### **5.3. Limitations of the Study**

The study may be critiqued for its scope because it focused on only nine newspaper articles, and because it used interviews for background purposes only. The fact that I conducted only two interviews with regular readers might also make the study face criticism in terms of representativeness. However, the length limit of mini-dissertations made it impossible for me to analyze more articles in appropriate depth, and to make extensive use of interviews.

### **5.4. Recommendations of the Study**

On the basis of my study I want to make some recommendations to my colleagues in the English language teaching profession regarding the benefits of including critical discourse analysis in their syllabi. (These benefits were described in chapter 1.4.).

### **5.5. Conclusion**

In terms of Fairclough's three-dimensional framework as well as of the three approaches to media production outlined in chapter two, the representations of reality in the texts I analyzed would have been shaped by the discursive

practices of this newspaper and also by the wider sociopolitical environment of Lesotho and beyond. In the variety of ways identified in my analysis (chapter 4), the texts express positioning of the editor, news editors, columnists and reporters, and also attempt to position readers. My analysis was confined to *Public Eye*, but the patterns it revealed are consistent with those identified by the theorists on whose work I drew. I hope that this study will inspire further research on the positioning of subjects in media discourse in the developing world.

University of Cape Town

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