ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE ACCENT AND DISCURSIVE PRACTICES I&W

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SEPTEMBER 2010
Final Report

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This report is published in the interest of scientific and technical information exchange, and its publication does not constitute the Government’s approval or disapproval of its ideas or findings.
1. REPORT DATE (DD-MM-YYYY) 16-09-2010
2. REPORT TYPE Final
3. DATES COVERED (From - To) March 2007 - September 2010

4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE
Analysis of Discourse Accent and Discursive Practices I&W

5a. CONTRACT NUMBER FA8650-07-C-6837
5b. GRANT NUMBER
5c. PROGRAM ELEMENT NUMBER 63231F
5d. PROJECT NUMBER 2830
5e. TASK NUMBER 04
5f. WORK UNIT NUMBER 28300416

6. AUTHOR(S)
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7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)
National Security Innovations (NSI), Inc.
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8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER

9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)
Air Force Materiel Command
Air Force Research Laboratory
711th Human Performance Wing
Human Effectiveness Directorate
Anticipate & Influence Behavior Division
Behavior Modeling Branch
Wright-Patterson AFB OH 45433-7022

10. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S ACRONYM(S)
711 HPW/RHXB

11. SPONSOR/MONITOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)
AFRL-RH-WP-TR-2010-0128

12. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited.

13. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES
88ABW/PA cleared on 10 Nov 10, 88ABW-2010-6004.

14. ABSTRACT
This effort was initiated to explore the phenomenon of characteristic "in group" and "out group" discursive patterns which link to future behaviors further, to assess how in-groups and out-groups are indexed and constructed in texts. Specifically, the goal was to develop a systematic methodology for identifying and interpreting in-group/out-group discursive practices in Arabic. The intent was to solidify an approach that could focus analysts' attention on issues of in/out group dynamics, as well as be reproducible and trainable.

15. SUBJECT TERMS Discourse Analysis, In-group, Out-group, Discursive Patterns, Rhetorical Phenomena, Intensifiers

16. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF:
UNCLASSIFIED

17. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT SAR
18. NUMBER OF PAGES 212

19a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE PERSON Laurie H. Fenstermacher
19b. TELEPHONE NUMBER (include area code) NA

Standard Form 298 (Rev. 8-98) Prescribed by ANSI Std. 239.18
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Distribution A: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited. 88ABW-2010-6004, 10 Nov 10
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1.0 SUMMARY

Because 1) discourse is not neutral, and 2) people differentiate between in-groups and out-groups, discourse almost always reflects an individual’s in-group and out-group assumptions. Boundary maintenance between groups that are “good” or “like us” (in-groups) and those that are “unlike us” or “bad” (out-groups) forms a significant – albeit often subconscious – part of discourse. This is true for all languages and societies, including both English- and Arabic-speaking.

This project was initiated at the request of behavior influence analysts at the National Air and Space Intelligence Center (NASIC). NASIC had found the distinction between “in-groups” and “out-groups” useful for their analyses. This effort was initiated to explore this phenomenon further, to assess how in-groups and out-groups are indexed and constructed in texts. Specifically, the goal was to develop a systematic methodology for identifying and interpreting in-group/out-group discursive practices in Arabic. The intent was to solidify an approach that could focus analysts’ attention on issues of in/out group dynamics, as well as be reproducible and trainable.

The research effort proceeded in two phases. Phase I was dedicated to covering the academic literature on discourse analysis and the initial construction of a codebook. The codebook contains a catalogue of linguistic devices used to express in/out group sentiments in Arabic. Phase II was focused on expanding that codebook and integrating insights from linguistically trained Arabic speakers and Arabic speakers with a more colloquial understanding of how in/out group sentiments are expressed; that is, to create a methodology that was natural and did not require formal training or expertise in critical discourse analysis. In addition, a proof-of-concept was conducted of an existing methodology for tracking relations between people and groups, called cognitive or integrative complexity analysis. Cognitive complexity analysis refers to a specific methodology developed in the field of political psychology that is used on the discourse of political elites. It does not provide sentiment analysis, but it does provide indicators of when one group is likely to act violently toward another group. Finally, a survey of alternative methods to consider for future work was completed.

Before developing a methodology/codebook, a literature search (Appendix A) was conducted encompassing social psychology, the history of discourse analysis and other social science literature related to narratives and discourse (e.g., political science related literature on cognitive complexity and integrative complexity). The literature search identified discursive mechanisms related to in-group/out-group. In-group alliance and out-group distancing are reflected linguistically through numerous discourse phenomena. As determined by the review of academic discourse analytic literature and analyzing Arabic newspaper discourse, the most significant techniques that establish in-groups and out-groups in third-person Arabic newspaper analytic prose include:

- Lexicalization (word choice)
- Quotations
- References
- Allusion
Monitoring linguistic phenomena, with attention to these four in particular, can help identify and track alliances and tensions between groups over time. Focusing on these in-group/out-group related discursive mechanisms, a case study was conducted with Arabic documents provided by NASIC to identify the ways in which these discursive mechanisms manifest in Arabic discourse. The result of this was a critical discourse analysis based Methodological Primer for in-group/out-group discourse in Arabic (Appendix C).

In order to validate the extensibility and robustness of this methodology, a subsequent study with more Arabic speakers and more Arabic documents was conducted. This second study resulted in a new methodology (Appendix F) which did not require any training in critical discourse analysis. In developing this second approach, there was the progression from the insights of a single academically trained analyst, to focus groups of academically trained analysts, to a larger body of colloquial readers. The resulting codebook incorporated the insights of both expert linguists and ordinary speakers through the application of grounded theory. From coding Arabic speakers’ analyses during the final phase of the project, a series of ten “factors” was identified along which Arabic speakers assess in/out group alignments in Arabic documents. These factors cue the reader or analyst to understand a particular group as a member of the author’s in-group or a member of the author’s out-group. One of the conclusions of this second study, among other quantitative findings, was that although analyst language level affects which of these factors are noted, there is no statistically significant difference between (self-rated) native speakers of Arabic and near-native speakers in identifying the in-group/out-group factors.

In addition, a proof-of-concept of the cognitive complexity/integrative complexity assessment method was explored. The notion is that this could provide another method to assist an analyst in interpreting discourse. Cognitive complexity measures a subject’s psychological complexity as represented by their public statements and writings, which can be used as an indicator and warning of impending hostilities. Integrative complexity measures the ability of an individual to see multiple perspectives of an issue or situation and integrate those viewpoints or perspectives. Higher integrative complexity has been correlated with cooperative behavior.¹

The critical event used for the proof of concept of integrative complexity assessment was the assassination of former Lebanese Prime Minister Rafic Hariri on February 14, 2005. In particular, the statements of Syrian President Bashar Al-Assad in the interval immediately before and after the Hariri assassination in 2005 were used to assess whether changes in integrative complexity, as suggested by the literature, could serve as an instructive analytical tool in the run up to serious international events. This is a particularly useful case study because of Al-Assad’s denial of Syria’s involvement in the assassination and the international community’s contradictory conclusion that there was some level of Syrian involvement (based upon the Mehlis investigation²). Based upon this Al-Assad case study, National Security Innovations, Inc. (NSI) found a statistically significant (p-value=.01) difference between the period immediately


²The Mehlis Report was the product of the UN mandated investigation (pursuant to UNSC resolution 1559) into the Hariri assassination of February 14, 2005. The investigatory panel was headed by Detlev Mehlis, a German judge, and involved the questioning of Lebanese and Syrian officials. The final report was released on October 20, 2005 and concluded that high-ranking members of the Syrian and Lebanese governments were involved in the assassination.
prior to the assassination of Rafic Hariri (October 2004 thru January 2005) and both Al-Assad’s baseline (October 2003 thru May 2004) or the period following the assassination (February 2005 thru December 2005). This confirms the general research findings in the political psychology literature.

In summary, the following was accomplished:

- Literature search of discourse analysis with a view to applying it to identifying, understanding and interpreting in-group/out-group discourse
- Initial case study of critical discourse analysis methodology for identifying in-group/out-group discursive mechanisms in Arabic and development of primer
- Subsequent case study of Arabic in-group/out-group discourse which identified key rhetorical phenomena and intensifiers
- Development of a phased method for using analysts with different levels of training to produce codebooks
  - Method made use of manually and automatically retrieved web documents
  - Method progressed from a single academically trained analyst, to focus groups of academically trained analysts to a larger body of colloquial readers, enabling the construction of a code book that incorporated both expert linguistic and more common views
- Discovered 10 factors by which Arabic speakers assess in/out group alignments in Arabic news documents, and 13 factors by which Arabic speakers assess intensification of sentiment
- Proof-of-concept of integrative complexity, as developed by Suedfeld and Tetlock, demonstrated the potential to provide indicators and warnings of possible changes in threat posturing through the analysis of leader’s and political elites’ public statements; Bashar Al-Assad’s cognitive complexity shifted as predicted by the literature, with his cognitive complexity decreasing in the period prior to the assassination of Hariri and returning to baseline in the aftermath
- Application and adoption of grounded theory to coordinated analysis
- Exploration of the effect of analyst language skill and linguistic training on coding

Future work will likely employ the discourse methodology and the cognitive complexity methodology in tandem to provide independent streams of evidence concerning how groups are aligned with one another. In addition, some recommendations are made of other potential methods (e.g., narrative analysis, ethnographic approaches) that may be useful for tracking intergroup relations through their discourse.
2.0 INTRODUCTION

No word is neutral. No linguistic choice is neutral. The choice between “stubborn” and “steadfast” betrays a value judgment; the choice between “hits” and “is abusive” betrays a value judgment; the choice between referring to a passage in the Bible or not betrays a value judgment. At the same time, we know that people tend distance themselves from those who are different (and therefore more likely to be bad, “out-groups”) and align themselves with those who are similar to them (“in-groups”). One may have multiple “in-group” identities, as well as different degrees of distancing oneself from people who belong to other identity categories (e.g., a straight rich white person may still be very comfortable with gay people and people of color but highly uncomfortable with poor people). For example, people often choose to live near others of their same race, sexual orientation, or levels of wealth, depending on which in-group identity is most salient, even when it is economically and otherwise feasible to live amongst a different group.

The language that people use in interaction reflects their perceptions about the world as well as how they themselves would like to be perceived. Speakers and authors align and distance themselves from the individuals and groups they discuss. An author’s “in-group” consists of entities (such as countries, groups, and people) that the author likes, with which he is eager to be associated, and with whom he wants to represent a close relationship. The author’s “out-group”, on the other hand, consists of entities that the author dislikes, with which he does not want to be associated, and with whom he wants to represent a distant relationship, if any relationship at all.

Analysts at the National Air and Space Intelligence Center (NASIC) had previously identified discursive patterns that appeared to be correlated with shifts in a group’s attitudes towards behaviors. These patterns can essentially serve as leading indicators of behaviors (e.g., violence toward out-group). The task at hand was to develop a systematic methodology for discourse analysis in various languages that enables an analyst to identify, understand, interpret, and exploit these discursive patterns. The methodology was to be sustainable, trainable, and reproducible.
3.0 PHASE I: A PRIMER OF IN-GROUP/OUT-GROUP DISCOURSE AND LINGUISTIC INDICATORS

Based on a literature review of psychological, discourse and other related social science literature, a number of discursive mechanisms related to in-group/out-group were identified and a historical primer on discourse analysis, including a glossary, was developed (Appendix A). A case study was conducted using Arabic documents from different countries containing discourse surrounding two competing summits held in 2009. There were two main factions in the debate over which summit(s) ought to be held/were legitimate/needed to focus on certain topics/etc. All the summits were dealing with the Israel-Palestine issue and some other issues in the Middle East. The literature search and case study resulted in the development of an initial critical discourse analysis based methodology/codebook documented in the following primer.

In-group alliance and out-group distancing are reflected linguistically through numerous discourse phenomena. As determined by reviewing academic discourse analytic literature and analyzing Arabic newspaper discourse, the most significant techniques that establish in-groups and out-groups in third-person Arabic newspaper analytic prose include:

- Lexicalization (word choice)
- Quotations
- References
- Allusion

Monitoring linguistic phenomena, with attention to these four in particular, can help identify and track alliances and tensions between groups over time. The following sections discuss each of those four phenomena in detail and provides Arabic-based examples and analysis. Other non in-group/out-group indicators and rhetorical devices are also discussed. A table of other discourse phenomena, according to effect, is found in Appendix B.

3.1 Lexicalization

Discussion of one’s in-group tends to pattern with positive terminology and discussion of the out-group tends to occur using negative terminology. This is a result of the linguistic process of lexicalization, the process by which words are chosen to describe a particular event or entity, and is also called word choice (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Self-Glorification</td>
<td>الملك حمد بن عيسى آل خليفة عاهل البلاد المفدى</td>
<td>King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, the king of the beloved country</td>
<td>Rather than using the name of the country, a possessive ending indicating “our country,” or omitting the word entirely, this phrase using المفدى (beloved) informs the audience how precisely they should feel about the country – or, equally, how the “in-group” feels about the country and thus</td>
<td>C17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive (&quot;Like Us&quot;) Naming / Reference</td>
<td>How the audience should feel if they desire to be a part of that in-group.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>His Majesty</strong> (= the owner of reverence / magnificence) the King**</td>
<td>Ditto, with regard to glorifying His Majesty.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>His Majesty</strong></td>
<td>This reference's terminology would be expected from only the king's own people, the in-group; in addition, it intensifies the awe and distance between the king and people, and attributes <strong>جلالة الملك</strong> (majesty) to the king, who is a representative of the nation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the State of Qatar, our sister</td>
<td>This phrase positions Qatar as a sibling, owed all the familial relations due to such a relationship. The phrasing positions Qatar as &quot;one of us.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end of the work of the Gulf summit</td>
<td>The term <strong>أعمال</strong> (work) included in the phrase (despite the grammar not requiring this word) implies actual accomplishments as a result of the Gulf Summit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thousands of martyrs</td>
<td>The term &quot;شهداء&quot; (martyrs) is strongly emotionally colored, and has a rich and lengthy set of both religious and political connotations; use of this term rather than &quot;the dead&quot; or another phrase invokes all these connotations and raises emotions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steadfastness of this heroic people</td>
<td>Rather than an example of including an unnecessary word for an extra-content purpose, the choice of <strong>صمود</strong> (steadfastness) to describe the people in question paints them positively; contrast it, for instance, with <strong>عناد</strong> (the necessary-but-included <strong>بطل</strong> (heroic) to describe the people in question in this quote.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative (&quot;Unlike Us&quot;) Naming / Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>بعد 21 يوما من المحاولة الإسرائيلية في غزة</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>حرب الإبادة</strong> (genocide (=war of annihilation))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
combat the Israeli actions as severely as possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Victimization</th>
<th>على الشعب الفلسطيني الأعزل</th>
<th>against the defenseless Palestinian people</th>
<th>This reference makes salient the lack of control over their own fate that the Palestinian people have.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imposing Interpretation</td>
<td>شدد جلالته الملك المغدّى ... على إدانة وشجب الاعتداءات الوحشية</td>
<td>His Majesty stressed his condemnation and denouncement of the brutal attacks</td>
<td>The author chose the speech act verb شدد (stress) to introduce the paraphrase that follows, rather than a less intense word (simply أكّد (affirm), which is so common as to be more meaningless, or even كرّر (repeat) to indicate that he said something multiple times). Use of the meaningful verb شدد (stress) implies the author this information stressed in the minds of the audience as well – he is not trying to tone it down.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quotations are often introduced by a word choice among **speech act verbs**. Speech acts are words that perform an action simply by pronouncing the word (e.g., “promise”, “dare”, “apologize”, “nominate”), or phrases that perform some sort of action upon uttering them (e.g., “Watch out – the pan is hot!” is a speech act that warns the hearer to be careful). Some speech acts are more limited than others in what they do and mean, and only certain people have access to certain speech acts. For instance, the speech act “say” requires very little formal power and no special social roles to perform. “Announce,” on the other hand, requires that the person be speaking with more authority, on behalf of an entity with authority. “Decree” requires further power – the speaker must be a head of state, and the words carry the force of law.

The author of an article has a choice about how to represent the situation being described. S/he can play up the power of the person speaking by using the speech act verb with the most stringent power-related requirements (decree, require), or s/he can play down that power by writing that a king merely “says” or “agrees” with something.

Additionally in tandem with word choice, it has been found that the more that an action by the in-group fits into a “positive” framework (or an action by the out-group fits into a “negative” framework), the more it tends to be abstracted. Social psychology research has identified a continuum of potential linguistic realizations to describe the same event, ranging from direct action verbs (least abstract), to interpretive action verbs, state verbs, and finally adjectives (most abstract); the use of this continuum is termed “**linguistic intergroup bias** (Table 2).”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstracting</td>
<td>الرئيس صامت وشعب لم يوقف عن الصراخ</td>
<td>The king is silent while the people did not stop crying out</td>
<td>The president is described with a state adjective, rather than a verb – silence is attributed to his character, a set of traits that are constant and belong to him, with little change over time; this is</td>
<td>C19A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Linguistic Intergroup Bias Examples**
linguistic maneuver makes the fact that he has said nothing after 21 days a character flaw (rather than casting it as a crafty political decision, for instance). The people, on the other hand, are active; they are given a verb, they are doing all they can do by way of crying out and yelling about the incident – indeed, the sentence indicates this behavior has been constantly ongoing since near the start of the onslaught. In other words, the people are reacting appropriately to the crisis the way the crisis has been framed so far in the headline, and the president has a serious character flaw that blinds him to speaking out against evil atrocities.

| Victimization | the simple Algerians who suffer | The author chooses Arabic verb form V rather than I. Although they have similar denotational meanings, Form V verbs tend to have more passive meanings (in which the subject of the verb has things performed to it); these passive, strength-less meanings may spread to the phrase used here, to underscore both that the Algerians are suffering and that they do not have control over that suffering. | C19A |

© Pay attention to the wording used in descriptions – does it have positive or negative connotations? Could the author have chosen any other words with different connotations? Are any words included that are not strictly necessary (but since they are nevertheless included, are very likely there to contribute to some discourse goal)?

© Additionally, pay attention to the part of speech used in descriptions – is it a verb or an adjective? If it’s an adjective, is it contributing toward the “us” group being permanently good, or the “they” group being permanently bad? If it’s a verb, how much does the verb abstract from what a photograph would directly capture (e.g. does it simply describe the action itself? Does it interpret that bounded action for you already? Or does it interpret the mental state of the person performing that action for you)? Additionally, if it’s a verb, is the verb form interesting?
3.2 Quotations

Quoting of speakers allows them to speak in their own words. Quotations wrests some control from the author, although the author still frames the information using verbs that direct the attention of the audience (Table 3). Direct quotations imply that the speaker was direct, pithy, and important enough to have their words included in the article, and often the length of quotations can indicate the extent to which the author desires focus on each point of view represented. Authors are more likely to include a large number of quotes from someone they agree with or consider part of their in-group than from someone they are merely quoting to get “all sides” of an issue. Additionally, authors may draw on others’ authority to underline a point by using reported speech or citation of others. The individuals that the author quotes from and cites are often ones in the author’s in-group.

Table 3. Quotations Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identifying In-Group</td>
<td>وقال الأمين العام لمجلس التعاون لدول الخليج العربي عبد الرحمن بن حمد العطية ... أن القادة أشادوا بالجهد</td>
<td>The secretary general of the GCC Abdulrahman bin Hamad al-Attiyah said ... that the leaders praised the efforts</td>
<td>This is one of a set of paragraphs in which the secretary general of the GCC is allowed to speak with his full thoughts included by the author; the GCC is part of the in-group in C17. (The Secretary General is also portrayed as using the speech act verb اعلن (announce).)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>وقال المحمد في كلمته &quot; ... نأمل في التحرك العاجل لتحقيق سلام عادل وشامل ودائم في منطقة الشرق الأوسط &quot;...</td>
<td>Al-Mohamed said in his speech ... “We hope to soon realize a just, complete, and lasting peace and in the Middle East...”</td>
<td>A similar effect is found here – the author allows Kuwait’s Al Mohamed to talk for himself, even going so far as to leave his words untouched (rather that paraphrasing to fit the content better into the aim of the piece). This implies that Al Mohamed’s words are perfectly aligned with the point of the piece, and the author has sufficient respect for Al Mohamed to know what he said and to quote him. Al Mohamed and Kuwait are part of the in-group in this piece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scare Quotes /</td>
<td>&quot;الصمت&quot; الذي التزم به رئيس الجمهورية &quot;باعتباره &quot;معاد&quot; السياسة الخارجية للبلاد</td>
<td>The “silence” committed by the president of the Republic as “support” of the country’s foreign policy</td>
<td>The author is distancing the views of the Republic, which align with views outside the country, from his own views through using scare quotes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying Out-Group</td>
<td>&quot; &quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scare quotes are quotation marks included around an idea to indicate that the author does not agree with the idea or the terminology, and is ironically using them or otherwise criticizing them. Scare quotes can indicate topics, ideas, or phrases from which the author wishes to distance him/her. The group most likely to term something with the words given in scare quotes is often the out-group.
Pay attention to the implications that quotations and verbs convey in descriptions – who gets quoted from? Who has their words paraphrased? What gets quoted/paraphrased? What must be true for a particular verb to be used? Is there another verb that requires more or less power that could be used? Why did the author choose that particular verb to direct our attention? Are there any scare quotes designed to convey skepticism or distance to a certain group’s ideas?

3.3 References

The references that people make can indicate the way they conceptualize their world Table 4. Overt references to “us” and “them”, “ours” and “theirs”, are used along with more subtle indicators, all of which demarcate sides.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identifying In-Group</td>
<td>صاحب الجلالة الملك حمد بن عيسى آل خليفة إمبراطور البلاد المخلّص</td>
<td>His Majesty King Hamad bin Isa Al Khalifa, the king of the beloved country</td>
<td>This reference term would be expected terminology only from the king’s own people, his in-group. Its use here either indicates that the author counts himself among the king’s people, or its use is ironic or in some other way notable (the second hypothesis is not supported by the rest of the article content or the manner in which the phrase is invoked here).</td>
<td>C17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>خادم الحرمين الشريفين</td>
<td>Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques</td>
<td>This reference is the Saudi king’s requested title – its use here indicates that the author is obeying the king’s wishes (and thus indicates that the author considers the king a member of his in-group).</td>
<td>C17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>لنصرة شعبنا الفلسطينيين في غزة</td>
<td>in support of our Palestinian people in Gaza</td>
<td>The possessive ending on شعب (people) indicates explicitly that the Palestinians are deeply bound as part of the in-group of the speaker and the speaker’s “people” (whoever else that might include).</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying Out-Group</td>
<td>الكيان الصهيوني</td>
<td>the Zionist entity</td>
<td>Here the term كيان (entity) is used to refer to Israel, rather than دولة (country) or its very name – many things can be “entities”, and this reference terminology downplays Israel’s status as an independent nation. Its pairing with the term “Zionist” further degrades any positive connotations that the name “Israel” might have in the audience’s mind, resulting in a reference that detracts from Israel’s status as an independent nature while indicating that its salient feature is its political Zionist roots.</td>
<td>T1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>هذا الكيان الخارج على القانون</td>
<td>this entity outside the law</td>
<td>Same as above with regard to كيان (entity); additionally, this reference focuses on the illegal nature of the existence of Israel, as well as Israel’s actions.</td>
<td>T2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References to **particular individuals or organizations** can indicate which groups an individual feels are most relevant to his/her life – whether because those groups align perfectly with his values or because they are diametrically opposed. Often particular titles are reserved for members of the in-group, or certain reference terminology is refused by members of the out-group. “Mr. Bush,” for instance, is widely perceived as disrespectful when discussing the U.S. president.

» **Pay attention to the references** that the author uses to invoke other individuals – does this reference only occur within a certain group? Which part of that person’s personality does it index (and is that different from what would be expected given only the topic of the article)? Does the reference term differ from what would be expected? Does the author assume that the audience is familiar with this person? Are there any explicit references to “us” or “ours” (or “they” or “theirs”)? Which outside groups and individuals are explicitly invoked?

### 3.4 Allusion

**Intertextuality** is the manner in which a particular discourse evokes other discourses. Intertextuality can display shared cultural touchstones and create a feeling of solidarity between author and audience (we come from the same background, this author is part of my in-group, I should listen closely). The author may also use intertextuality to display his/her cultural competence – to demonstrate that s/he is a member of the audience’s in-group or other credentials. Additionally, intertextual references carry with them a sense of the original’s context – they are able to draw on that historical or genre context to make a more poignant point in the present (Table 5).

**Table 5. Allusion Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?##</td>
<td>بحثي بقيت مجرد صرخة في واد</td>
<td>remains just a cry in the valley</td>
<td>This phrase struck me as relatively common, but I can’t seem to place a reference for it. However, Google reveals 53k documents with (صرخة في واد (cry in the valley)), which implies my intuition about it occurring in numerous documents is correct. It might be an overused cliché, or it might be an allusion – I do not have sufficient background to tell yet….</td>
<td>C19A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?##</td>
<td>قاله يقولها بالغم الصريح اسم جمحة ولا أرى طبخاً</td>
<td>As if they say frankly I hear the tumult but I don’t see the pounding</td>
<td>The underlined section seems like “sound and fury” to me, or some other well-known phrase (especially because of the imagery and the sudden first person). I’m not familiar with it in Arabic but a quick googling brings up the phrase in a large number of documents (&gt;13k), so I’m guessing it’s an intertextual reference to <em>something</em> (a previous speech? On this subject? Or a common cultural reference?) – finding the source and source context would be useful. It sounds long enough for an intertextual reference or allusion rather than a cliché, but it might be a cliché instead (even if a cliché, of course, there is meaning to its use – why does the author feel comfortable using a cliché?</td>
<td>C20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is usually no way to identify intertextuality except by recognizing the phrase or word being used. Occasionally it is possible to detect it based on the character of a phrase (one that seems particularly pithy, has a good rhythm, and/or is somewhat out of place), but it is almost always a question of recognizing the reference.

☞ Pay attention to the allusions in content and style that the author deploys – what does the author refer to? What are the context and connotations of the quoted/paraphrased/alluded document? What sense gets added to the document as a result of this allusion or quotation? Is the author trying to demonstrate a category of individuals that s/he feels are his/her “in-group”? Is the author trying to demonstrate to the audience that s/he belongs to their in-group? Both? What does the intertextual reference contribute to the world that the author is conceptualizing? To the author’s discourse aims?

3.5 Other (Non-In-Group/Out-Group) Linguistic Indicators

Numerous other discourse techniques strengthen an overt argument. Some of these techniques work subconsciously to convince readers that the author’s point of view is the correct one, and others are more immediately tangible. Commonly used techniques include:

- Nominalization
- Evidentiality and Authority
- Intensifiers and Attention-Direction

These techniques work to strengthen arguments, and often have sub-techniques. For instance, the “number game,” in which the author provides numbers in support of the cause, is a technique that falls under “establishing evidentiality and authority of claims.”

These techniques do not contribute directly to establishing an in-group or an out-group. However, using these techniques establishes an in-group or out-group more strongly. These techniques can indicate the depth of divide between in-group and out-group, and the author’s concealed arguments and assumptions.

3.5.1 Nominalization

Nominalization is the process by which a verb or adjective becomes a noun (“nouncing” a verb). Authors have a choice to use the verb or a noun version of the same idea to express something; people often (sub)consciously choose between the options based on their discourse aims (Table 6).
## Table 6. Nominalization Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increasing Responsibility</td>
<td>ما ارتكبه وتترتكب من جرائم حرب ضد الإنسانية</td>
<td>the war crimes against humanity it perpetrates and perpetrates</td>
<td>The author, like many other authors on this topic, refuses to simply nominalize with regard to Israel's actions – or even to avoid any verb whatsoever (with же́рами хёбё уз азь энсаниэ) and no mention of Israel committing any action. The verbs used here – and especially the repeated verb – stand to emphasize Israel’s mindful choices to commit these actions (and thus also emphasize Israel’s responsibility for the consequences).</td>
<td>C4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreasing Responsibility</td>
<td>وكان في استقبال سماهه ...</td>
<td>At the greeting of his majesty were ...</td>
<td>Rather than allowing those who attended his majesty’s arrival the agency of a real verbal action, those individuals are reduced to scenery with a nominalization, a preposition, and no real action (كان وعَرَجَ على) They are positioned as less important than the king himself (whose behavior does warrant a verb), and they are lacking agency and therefore any sort of responsibility.</td>
<td>C4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing Permanence</td>
<td>في انتهاك صارخ لكل القيم والنظم العالمية وتهديد للسلم والأمن الدوليين</td>
<td>in flagrant violation of all values and world systems, and a threat to international security and peace</td>
<td>The nominalization of انتهاك صراخ (flagrant violation) emphasizes the violation and makes it bigger, bulkier, and more tangibly real.</td>
<td>C17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>الموضوع المتدهور</td>
<td>the deteriorating situation</td>
<td>The nominalization allows the adjective متدهور (deteriorating) to be easily attached to the situation, and implies that the situation is both deteriorating and will continue to deteriorate (permanently), with the unspoken aim “unless something is done.”</td>
<td>C4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presupposition</td>
<td>بعد 21 يوما من الحرقة الإسرائيلية في غزة</td>
<td>21 days after the Israeli holocaust in Gaza</td>
<td>The use of a definite marker early in the article and its positioning near the beginning of the sentence mark the holocaust (الحرقة) as presupposed information that the author expects the audience to a) not question, and b) share with the author, such that the parallelism of this event with the Holocaust doesn’t</td>
<td>C19A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nominalizations have three main uses:

- **Implying permanence.**
  - Nouns refer to “touchable” things. They are very solid and permanent (e.g. “table”). However, verbs and other parts of speech are less solid and permanent, because they by nature disappear quickly and/or must be attached to some other part of speech (e.g. “kick”, “slowly”). By nominalizing impermanent words, those words are processed cognitively as more permanent. They can also be possessed by people or interact with people as entities of their own.
  - Compare, for instance, “the waiter moved slowly; it upset me” with “the waiter’s slowness upset me”. The second variation makes “slowness” both more lasting and a property of the waiter.

- **Decreasing responsibility.**
  - Nominalizations reduce agency (and therefore responsibility for an act), because a noun, in contrast to a verb, simply exists. The grammar doesn't require any agent -- the nominalized thing is simply there.
  - Compare the non-nominalized "After I helped pass the Patriot Act in 2001" with "After the passing of the Patriot Act in 2001." The nominalized version reduces the speaker’s responsibility for the controversial act by making the act’s existence independent of the speaker.

- **Presupposing information.**
  - All discourse flows from “given information” to “new information.”iii By compacting information into the first, “given,” part of a sentence, the author treats it as known and accepted by all the participants. Nominalizations work well to compact information in this way; such information enters the conversation through presupposition.
  - Compare the nominalization in the phrase "Her inability to drive sanely caused the crash," with the phrase "she was unable to drive sanely so got into a car crash." The nominalized version treats the entire idea that “she was unable to drive sanely” as shared and accepted information; it also compacts it into a state of being rather than a concrete act.
  - This phenomenon is also the basis for loaded questions, such as “When did you stop beating your wife?”

Additionally, given information can be referred to with definite markers (ٖ); new information may not be. If information is portrayed using a definite nominalization, the author expects the audience to be familiar with it – either because that information was provided earlier in the article, or because it is part of the expected common ground of day-to-day life at the time of the article.

➤ **Pay attention to whether nominalizations are used** in descriptions – are verbs being used to underline responsibility? Are nominalizations being used to detract from it? Do any nominalizations give a(n unwarranted) sense of permanence? Is any information or
interpretation being presupposed (through appearing with a definite ال marker and/or the “given information” section of the sentence)?

3.5.2 Evidentiality and Authority
Authors have a number of techniques they can use to establish their authority or credibility. Amongst these is the “number game.” In the number game, authors include numbers in their prose to establish a sense of objectivity or a sense that the author knows what s/he is talking about. Numbers help to establish credibility and to drive the particular point being made home (Table 7).

Table 7. Evidentiality and Authority Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establish Authority</td>
<td>The Israeli newspaper “Jerusalem Post” wrote on January 6th this month...</td>
<td>The use of a reference to the content of an Israeli newspaper, as well as the inclusion of the newspaper’s name, establish that the author reads Israeli news as well (thus making the author more informed and credible), and bases the author’s argument in information that the “other” itself provides (thus making that information more credible as well).</td>
<td>T1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The use of numbers – especially here, with the high sum included – substantiates the author’s argument, the author’s credibility (in that the author has access to the numbers), and the victimization of the martyrs themselves.</td>
<td>T2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>which extends to dozens of countries on all continents</td>
<td>The numbers and citation of other countries used here verify that many other countries all over the world are also in support of the spin on the information being presented, thus contributing to a sort of peer pressure in which the reader is more likely to accept the argument.</td>
<td>T3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after 21 days of the Israeli holocaust in Gaza</td>
<td>The use of numbers solidifies the victimization being portrayed in this statement and makes it increasingly tangible to the audience, thereby manipulating their feelings</td>
<td>C19A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>but ... it remains substandard in the view of Algerians</td>
<td>Here the author reports the sentiments of the “Algerian people”. Rather than citing some person in particular, or a poll or other study, the author simply makes the overarching statement about how Algerians feel. This linguistic choice</td>
<td>C19A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
carries all the peer pressure effects of the other potential choices, but requires even less accountability; the author simply cites his/her own perception of Algerian sentiment, regardless of how true or false that perception is overall.

Authors can also draw on the authority of others to help underline their point. This is another place in which **reported speech** is very useful – by calling on the words of someone with some authority, popular mandate, or popular appreciation, the author attempts to convince the audience that his/her own argument is more acceptable. **Citing others** can have this same effect.

Finally, audiences like to be entertained. Although anecdotes are not data, they are often perceived as such. Engaging **anecdotes**, examples, **illustrations** and **narratives** create a sense of involvement on behalf of the reader and encourage him/her to identify with the author and the interpretations of the world that the author is framing for the reader.

**Pay attention to any attempts at inducing certainty** that the author deploys – where does the author use/call on/create numbers to substantiate a point? Does the author cite anyone? If so, who and on what topic? Are there any quotes or paraphrases used to attribute a repeated thought to someone else as well? Are there any anecdotes, examples, illustrations, or narratives? How do they work to help the audience connect to or otherwise believe the author?

### 3.5.3 Intensifiers and Attention-Direction

Authors will also sometimes use **linguistic intensifiers** that indicate what s/he feels needs most particular attention – whether because the author believes an issue has not been given adequate shrift by the other media, or because the author feels it is inherently important and wants to draw the reader’s attention to it (Table 8 and Table 9). There are particular linguistic intensity markers (potentially grandiose ones) that the author can use, including terminology such as “very,” or “extraordinarily,” or universalizing predicates. **Litotes** or deliberate understatement can have a similar effect. In Arabic in particular, **lists of synonyms** can also serve an intensifying purpose, and **ما من** can direct attention to a particular subset of items that the author feels are particularly important. However, the author can also use **non-linguistic clues** to draw the reader’s attention to particular areas, using devices such as bolding, positioning on the page, imagery, and other visual features. These techniques draw a reader’s conscious attention to a particular discourse point.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intensification</strong></td>
<td><strong>وقف العدوان الإسرائيلي على غزة فورا</strong></td>
<td><strong>stop the Israeli aggression on Gaza immediately</strong></td>
<td>This phrase underlines the need for an immediate end to the aggression, which focuses on the need for action that is not currently being taken.</td>
<td>C4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.  Intensification Examples
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>والانسحاب الفوري، والشمل لقوات الاحتلال من غزة وفتح جميع المعابر ... ووقف كافة أشكال التطبيع مع إسرائيل</td>
<td>the immediate and complete withdrawal of occupation forces from Gaza, and the opening of all borders ... and an end to all forms of normalization with Israel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مجازر تحت سمع الحكم العربي، وبصر وه!</td>
<td>massacres under the noses of Arab leaders!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>واخيراً يهيب الحزب بابنا شعبنا</td>
<td>Finally, the party calls on the sons of our people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>كما يهيپ الحزب موقف الشعوب العربية والإسلامية، وشعب العالم في أوروبا وأمريكا الجنوبية والشمالية وفي أفريقيا وأسيا</td>
<td>the party supports the position of the Arab and Islamic peoples, and the peoples of the world in Europe and South and North America and in Africa and Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ينفعي تجارب حال الضعف، العجز، التبعية، التخاذل، والانقسام</td>
<td>should overcome the state of weakness, disability, dependency, inaction, and division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الخلود لشهداء غزة</td>
<td>Immortality to the Martyrs of Gaza</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This sentence focuses on the need for a complete change from the current political stance and the need to eliminate the Israeli presence entirely from the lives of like-minded Arabs – both reiterating a common theme and underscoring it once more as an important aspect of the necessary (or at least popularly desired) outcomes of the talks.

The exclamation point underlines the point of the article where this caption appears once more: although terrible things are happening under their noses, officials do nothing.

This phrase underscores the fact that the entire world is feeling on behalf of the Palestinians in Gaza against the Israeli aggression (and goes on to demonstrate that they are feeling so strongly that they are even demonstrating in the streets). It’s a powerful call to identify with these diverse people and call yourself on your government to force Israel to accountability.

Here a series of weak and victim-oriented words designed to elicit pity/empathy are strung together to focus yet again on that aspect of the crisis – not just the aggression of Israel, nor the reaction of other people, but also its effect on the people of Gaza.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directing Attention to a Particular Place</td>
<td>الاعتداءات الوحشية التي اقدمت عليها اسرائيل</td>
<td>the brutal attacks that Israel committed</td>
<td>In addition to indicating through the verbal form of the sentence that Israel is especially responsible for its own actions, the placement of Israel last in the phrase leaves the reader with a focus on Israel and Israel’s responsibilities, intensifying the disapproval.</td>
<td>C17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>المجازر الوحشية التي ترتكبها اسرائيل</td>
<td>the brutal massacres that Israel perpetrated</td>
<td>Similar effect here – both verbal and leaving resultant focus beam strongly on Israel.</td>
<td>C4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>السؤال الذي يطرح نفسه هو: ...</td>
<td>the question that arises here is: ...</td>
<td>The effect here is quasi-topicalization and quasi-rhetorical question – the lengthy setup informs the reader that what will follow the colon will be big.</td>
<td>T3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Attention-Direction Examples

By using the phrase (that ...) the author is able to focus attention on a particular aspect of the sentence through repeating it twice and maneuvering it to the end of the sentence (where information becomes most salient). Here the author’s grammar clearly allows an additional level of focus on what would otherwise be simply very vivid bloodshed.

T3

The author is able to focus attention on a particular aspect through repeating it twice and maneuvering it to the end of the sentence (where information becomes most salient). Here the author’s grammar clearly allows an additional level of focus on what would otherwise be simply very vivid bloodshed.

T3
and important to recognize, something that matters deeply to the author.

The author, however, can also influence a reader’s conscious and subconscious attention through syntactic and other linguistic manipulations. **Topicalization** (moving the topic of a sentence from its normal place in the sentence to the beginning of the sentence – “That potato dish, I made it last week.”) is allowed to varying degrees in different languages, and the linguistic method itself puts extra focus onto the topic of conversation. **Passivization**, likewise, can be used to place particular elements of the sentence in the informationally-salient final position reserved for the “information focus” (the new important information added to each sentence). **Repetition** and **rhetorical questions** can likewise direct the reader’s attention toward a particular thought or response.

☞ **Pay attention to what the author intensifies** – what does the author present as important? Where are extra words added for the purpose of intensifying the effect of the words? What sorts of synonyms are repeated? What is bolded / centered / highlighted / italicized / set off in an image / set off in a headline? Why is the author focusing on this information – out of a desire for self-aggrandizement, because the author thinks the information is especially important, because the author wants to remedy a lack of attention elsewhere, something else?

☞ **Pay attention to where and how content appears in a sentence** – do any sentence structures move particular content forward or backward in the sentence? What content is moved where, and why did the author choose that sentence structure? What effect does it have on ordering the importance of the content? Are there any repetitions or rhetorical questions, which specifically ensure that the audience understands which point is being made?

---

1 For instance, an author describing the act of hitting a child could use a host of phrases. The author might choose a specific verbal description of the action itself (“he hit the child”) or might abstract to adjectival judgments of the character of the agents in the action. Whether the actor is perceived as one of the “in-group” or one of the “out-group” will affect which linguistic choice is made, and thus how the audience is influenced to think about the event in question. Potential linguistic choices for the same “hitting” event might include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Positive Interpretation</th>
<th>Negative Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct action verb</strong></td>
<td>He hits the child.</td>
<td>He hits the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretive action verb</strong></td>
<td>He punishes the child.</td>
<td>He beats the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>State verb</strong></td>
<td>He steers the child.</td>
<td>He hates the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adjective</strong></td>
<td>He is strict.</td>
<td>He is violent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He is just.</td>
<td>He is abusive.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The description choice will depend on how the author perceives the original action and whether the author perceives the actor as a member of the “in” or “out-group.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Positive Interpretation</th>
<th>Negative Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct action verb</strong></td>
<td>In-group Impermanent positive action</td>
<td>In-group Impermanent negative action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretive action verb</strong></td>
<td>Impermanent positive action</td>
<td>Impermanent negative action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>State verb</strong></td>
<td>In-group Permanent positive character</td>
<td>Out-group Permanent negative character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adjective</strong></td>
<td>Out-group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An author who perceives the hitting as a good act, but performed by an out-group member, will tend to characterize it as a surprising positive action performed by the out-group member. However, if performed by an in-group member, that same positive action will often become a positive characteristic of the individual. Negative actions, likewise, are characteristics of the out-group, but surprising and uncommon actions of the in-group.
I am not sufficiently familiar with what these references might be to in order to postulate their discourse effects; analysis of intertextuality requires a high level of familiarity with the source, how it is being invoked, and where else it tends to be invoked within the culture, and thus often requires an up-to-date linguistic and cultural native.

"Given information" is information that the author expects the audience to already know; it is a foundation on which to build new knowledge. In sentences, this phenomenon can be traced explicitly. Even using the above set of sentences we can see this phenomenon:

(Shared knowledge of document and context.)

All discourse flows from "given information" to "new information."

"Given information" is information that the author expects the audience to already know;

it is a foundation on which to build new knowledge.

Here we move from discussion of "discourse" generally to the introduction of a new phenomenon. We focus on one aspect of that now-introduced phenomenon ("given information") and provide further information about it, again referring back to our shared knowledge about the context of discourse. We continue to invoke that same concept as a basis on which to include additional information. The pattern also occurs with the use of "that" and "on which", and because of the previous mention of "new information", it would be possible in the last clause to use the phrase "on which to build the new knowledge."
3.6 Additional Rhetorical Devices

A number of additional rhetorical devices were found that do not necessarily map to the Positive/Negative or Us/Them continuum. Each was cited at least once in the bibliography below.

- Characterization
- Comparison
- Contingency
- Counterfactuals
- Counterpoints
- Double-bind
- Fallacies
  - Ad hominem
  - Argument from ignorance
  - Begging the question
  - Black-or-white/extremism fallacy
  - Burden of proof
  - Equivocation
  - Face value
  - Genetic fallacy
  - Ignoring the issue
  - Jumping to a conclusion
  - Loaded questions
  - Misrepresentation of references
  - Post hoc ergo propter hoc
  - Straw opponent
- Foreshadowing
- Humor
- Imagery
- Introduction & Conclusion
- Irony
- Narrator
- Oxymoron
- Pacing
- Paradox
- Personification
- Plot development
- Questions
- Sarcasm
- Style/tone/voice
- Tenses
3.7 Literature Search Bibliography


Doandes, M. (2003). *Profiling for Belief Acquisition from Reported Speech*. Master's, Concordia University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.


4.0 PHASE II: SECOND CASE STUDY AND DEVELOPMENT OF NEW METHODOLOGY

The original approach to developing a methodology for identifying, understanding, interpreting and exploiting discursive patterns related to in-group/out-group was to work under a discourse analysis rather than a content analysis framework; that is, the focus was on how things are said, rather than what things are said. In Phase II, a second study was conducted to capture and explore the means by which diverse Arabic speakers perceive in/out group distinctions as drawn by authors of Arabic online news texts as the final phase of this project. As part of this phase, a focus group was conducted with a set of ten Arabic speakers who had discourse analysis experience, as well as a subsequent in-depth document analyses with a set of 33 Arabic speakers, most of whom did not have discourse analysis experience. In this process, the same 97 documents were used as for the initial case study and methodology documentation in a primer in Phase I. These documents were originally provided in three sets: two sets of documents focused on a particular event of interest and its implications, with a difference in genre distinguishing each set, and one set consisted of randomly selected Arabic news documents.

4.1 Methodology

This study focused on how Arabic speakers beyond an academically trained linguist perceived and understood authorial alignments and distancing in Arabic language news articles. Alignment occurs between the author and his “in-group” (those he likes and with whom he desires to be associated), and distancing occurs between the author and his “out-group” (those he dislikes and with whom he desires not to be associated). This project was designed to explore and then formalize how Arabic-language news producers represent their in-groups and out-groups in prose, in support of NASIC; who had found that tracking in/out group discourse was useful to their work but did not have a schema for understanding that discourse.

In this study, a systematic qualitative research methodology was used, rather than quantitative methodology. Due to three specific factors, use of an experimental paradigm would have been inappropriate: 1) the documents provided to NSI to analyze were not based on a clear “sample population;” 2) there was no assurance of “random sampling” during the collection of those documents; and 3) there was not enough a priori information about the phenomenon in question to state meaningful hypotheses regarding how Arabic speakers would perceive an author’s alignment/distancing to and from groups.

Grounded theory (see Strauss and Corbin, 1990, among others) provides an appropriate and systematic methodology for early qualitative research. Grounded theory is an inductive method concerned with constructing theory rather than testing it. In grounded theory, rather than beginning with a hypothesis, the scientist first collects data. Research participants are selected to be a source of data (they are considered experts on the phenomenon being studied because they experience it). Participants respond to a series of questions that focus them on the research concern. The data generated by participants are then marked with a series of codes, which are
themselves extracted from the text. The codes are grouped into similar concepts and categories, which form the basis of a theory (a reverse-engineered hypothesis).  

In this paradigm, generalizability is developed on the basis of “theoretical saturation” rather than random sampling and generalizable sample sizes. Under theoretical saturation, researchers continue to collect interviews and information from participants until they no longer add new concepts to the theory being developed. In other words, the sample size is large enough when all new participant responses retell the same story. At that point, new samples will not contribute anything more to the theory; the existing sample size is sufficient for the theory to be grounded.

4.2 Document Selection

For this study, documents were provided in three waves by both NASIC and SSA (Social Science Automation), a sub-contractor (Figure 1). Ten documents were analyzed in detail to seed the theory/codebook schema, and then conducted two focus groups and in-depth data collection with respondents, further developing the codebook through analysis of participant responses.

\[\text{Figure 1. The Codebook Development Process began with Documents from NASIC, SSA, and given Input from Focus Groups and Readers, became a Finalized Codebook}\]

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3 Tools for qualitative research such as NVivo and MaxQDA can be of assistance in this process.
The first wave of documents was selected by NASIC analysts to focus on a particular event of interest and its fallout. The second wave provided by SSA as they worked to develop an analyst cueing tool for discourse analysis, was a selection of random articles crawled from the websites of six Arabic news organizations (Al-Ahram, Al-Ittihad, syria-news.com, Al-Jazeera, Al-Manar, and the Palestinian Information Center). The first two waves were analyzed by NSI earlier in the study, in support of the Methodological Primer (Appendix C). To ensure a fair representation of multiple article genres in the corpus, the third wave was selected by NASIC analysts to a) contain a larger proportion of editorial and non-traditional news articles, including blogs, and b) relate to that first event of interest.

Once the 100 articles were identified, NSI then checked each of the 100 articles to ensure they actually referred to external entities. Three irrelevant documents were eliminated from the corpus (one short story, one poem, and one weather report), leaving 97 documents in total. The precise breakdown of articles provided vs. used follows, along with graphics detailing the corpus characteristics.

- Original NASIC documents, from early 2009 (40/40 articles)
- SSA web-crawler, from mid 2009 (31/34 articles)
- Additional NASIC documents, from early 2010 (26/26 articles)

Appendix D contains a list of all 100 articles, as well as a table of subtotal and percentage breakdowns by source countries and news sources. The breakdowns by source countries, news sources, and document dates are shown in Figures 2-4.

![Figure 2. Source Countries included in the Corpus.](image1.png)

Five countries issued more than half the articles (Qatar, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and Lebanon).

![Figure 3. News Sources included in the Corpus.](image2.png)

Five news sources issued more than one third of the articles (Al-Jazeera/Qatar, Al-Manar/Lebanon, Al-Ahram/Egypt, the Palestinian Information Center/Palestine, and Al-Alam/Iran). About one quarter of the sources only provided one article.
4.3 Participant Selection

The participants were solicited through direct personal email and listserv emails at Georgetown University (in Washington, DC) and University of California (in Los Angeles, CA). These two universities were identified as two domestic universities with strong programs in both discourse analysis and Arabic. Following the initial distribution of emails, recipients also passed on the information to peers and colleagues elsewhere.

Potential participants received a short message explaining the study and the available remuneration. The message directed them to an online application form where they provided demographic information about themselves, information about the extent to which they spoke Arabic, and information about the extent (if any) to which they had formally studied or conducted a discourse analysis, and asked about which phase(s) of the study in which they desired to participate (focus group vs. document analysis).

Weak applicants, including those lacking in English or Arabic skills, were removed from the pool. Then focus group participants were selected from the interested people currently in country who 1) said they had discourse analysis experience, and 2) had cogent responses to follow-up questions about that experience. All of the ten applicants who met those criteria were selected for participation. Thirty three document analysis participants were then selected from those applicants who were interested in that portion of the study, according to the order in which they applied. People who were interested in both parts of the study were allowed to participate in both segments of the study (six participants did so). Additionally, as some participants dropped out of the study, the most active people from the waitlist were given an opportunity to replace them.
Study consultants were selected in order of application, once inappropriate applications were removed. Study consultant demographic information is shown in Figure 5. The consultants involved in focus groups were more likely to be native speakers for whom Arabic was a primary home language, and either currently graduate students or employed full time. The consultants involved in document analyses tended to rate themselves as “advanced” speakers who had spent time in an Arabic-speaking country; although document analysis consultants also tended to be graduate students, there was a wider range of age and experience in the document analysis group.

Figure 5. Demographic Information on Study Consultants

4.4 Initial Codebook

The first step in developing the codebook was to formally code 10 documents\(^4\) for linguistic choices that the authors made as they described different groups. This coding focused specifically on how the authors positioned each group as an “in/out group” through the language used to describe that group.

Following the coding of linguistic indicators in these 10 documents, the team combined the codes into broader “rhetorical phenomenon” categories. This formed the original codebook, which was then refined with the results of consultant participation in focus groups and analysis questionnaire responses.

4.5 Consultant Focus Groups

Two focus groups were conducted with 10 Arabic speakers in total. All participants had discourse analysis/linguistics experience; this particular intersection of backgrounds is rare. A

\(^4\) NSI had previously explored these documents during the Methodological Primer production.
focus group allowed us to explore their thinking and thought processes thoroughly, interactively, and quickly.

4.5.1 Focus Group Methodology

The participants were given two articles ahead of time to read and analyze, and were instructed to read and analyze a third article during the 2-3 hour session as a group. The first two articles were provided multiple weeks in advance; the third article was provided to all participants shortly before the focus group began.

The first (#64) document was very colloquial and very dismissive of Arab leaders; it came from an Arab American online news source in early 2009. The second (#26) had the format of a typical Arab news document, but originated in Iran, from the paper Al-Alam in early 2009. The third (#84), which focus group participants only received during the focus group, dealt with Egypt building a 59-foot-deep steel wall along its border with the Gaza Strip. The article defended Egypt against attacks that it did not care about Gaza residents, and was issued from a publishing company with ties to the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Egypt. All documents’ contextual information, including source information and date, was removed from the distributed documents and re-introduced during discussion.

At the same time they received the first two documents, the participants also received a two-page guidance document that explained the sort of analysis that was at the heart of the study (example in Appendix E). This guidance document contextualized the study; it asked participants to focus on “how an author distances himself from or aligns himself with the people he discusses” and explain the clues in the language and presentation that they draw on in understanding the dynamics of the text. It reminded all participants that there is no “wrong” justified answer, and that people were chosen deliberately, to ensure a diversity of responses, in order to encourage varied responses. It also reminded them that the primary interest was not in outside knowledge about alignments between groups, except as it bears out in the language used. This was done in an attempt to reduce analyses of little utility.

Because participants were scattered across the country, the WebEx internet teleconferencing tool was used to allow everyone to share the same document and annotations on that document. WebEx also allowed the recording of sessions for later analysis. The first focus group had 3 consultants attending virtually and 3 attending in-person in Washington, DC (with the WebEx tool displayed on a projector). The second group had 4 consultants attending virtually.

At the meeting itself, the shared “welcome” screen prompted participants with the levels of linguistic analysis, again in an attempt to ensure the participants were focused on language-based analysis. The prompt addressed all levels of language, from how words are formed and chosen, to how the words are organized, to how the document is organized and connects to the outside world. In particular, this top-level guidance was provided:

5 http://www.webex.com
• **Lexicalization (Word Choice):** Does the word choice at any point in the document tell you anything?
• **Morphology & Syntax:** Are there any meaningful word or phrase forms?
• **Syntax:** Does the order that information is presented tell you anything? Order that sentences are structured? Any repetition?
• **Stylistics:** Does the style tell you anything?
• **Presentation:** Are there any meaningful presentational choices?
• **Connection to world outside prose:** To what extent is the document self-contained?
• Are there changes in any of these things through the documents?

This framework was not verbally addressed until the very end of the focus group, when it was revisited for what the participants might add or subtract from it (no substantive changes were noted).

The participants were asked to begin by explaining the most interesting aspects of the first text. As people began participating, comments led to other comments. When the discussion died down, they were prompted with an aspect of language from the list above that had not been thoroughly covered by their discussion yet. The discussion on each document was limited to 30-45 minutes.

The focus groups were led by Pamela Toman, the Arabic-speaking team member, and assisted by Tessa Baker, who has had significant focus group experience. Larry Kuznar also supported the focus groups. During the focus groups themselves, the NSI team members avoided biasing the participants through praise or responses to questions about our own interpretations. Meeting notes were taken by hand. Additionally, WebEx provided audio recordings synched with the notes that were drawn on the shared screen, which was also used for later analysis.

The focus group discussions produced numerous categories, examples, and types of linguistic methods used to position entities. The categories, examples and linguistic methods were then used to augment and refine the developing codebook.

### 4.6 Consultant Document Analysis

Thirty-three Arabic speakers were recruited to read and analyze the 97 documents in the corpus for the methods by which the authors align/distance themselves from the entities they discuss. This approach enabled additional people to examine the same corpus that had previously been analyzed and to conduct the same analyses to find overall overlaps and differences.

#### 4.6.1 Document Analysis Methodology

Each of the document analysis participants was assigned seven documents randomly. The original participant assignments ensured that each document would be read at least twice but no more than four times. However, due to participant drop-outs and replacements, each document in the set was in fact read between 1 and 5 times. Ninety-eight percent of the 97 documents in
the corpus were read by two or more people, with nearly two-thirds (62%) read by two participants, one quarter (23%) read by three participants, and about a tenth (12%) by four participants (Figure 6). Each document averaged 2.48 readings.

Figure 6. Distribution of Readers Document

In addition to their document assignments, the consultants were issued a two-page guidance document. It was similar, but not identical, to the guidance document issued to the focus group participants. The guidance document was designed to inform the participants of the purpose of the study. It instructed them to focus on identifying and then articulating the methods by which news authors align and distance themselves from the entities they discuss.

The participants were then directed to an online form by which they could submit their analyses of those methods in their assigned documents (Figure 7). A SharePoint survey was developed on a Discourse Project NSI extranet portal to collect responses; the SharePoint survey allowed the responses to be exported to Excel. In order to ensure that all the consultants analyzing a particular document provided content on the same set of entities, we predefined a list of entities of interest in each document.
Figure 7. Document Respondent Survey. For each document they read, the respondents filled out a survey. The first section of the survey asked them to rate each of the entities in the document according to a 6-point “out”/“in” scale. The second section of the survey asked them to explain their rationale for each rating.

The form itself had two sections, one requesting ratings and the other requesting explanations. In the first section, the respondents were asked to “Rate the author’s portrayal” of each of the entities in the document on a 6-point scale ranging from “Out” to “In” \(^6\) The worry was that, without this section asking respondents to categorize the entities along this scale, the respondents’ answers to the free response explanation would be unfocused and/or unrelated to the in/out group dichotomy. First forcing a choice along this dichotomy demonstrated to participants that they were in fact able to place entities mentioned in the document along a scale. It also provided a clear focus to improve the results of the more-important free response section: following the scale section, participants were engaged in defending and explaining their personal choices with specific examples, rather than in brainstorming in the abstract.

The second section was a free response section, in which the respondent was asked to “Explain your rationale regarding …” each of the entities listed in the scale question. Respondents provided prose explanations of their ratings, tied as tightly to the texts themselves as possible. To ensure the responses were all as useful as possible, as respondents provided new rationales, members of the NSI team reviewed those rationales and offered feedback to the respondents to help improve their responses.

\(^6\) We chose a scale with an even number of options in order to force a choice regarding “neutrally portrayed” entities. A six-point scale was chosen for two reasons: 1) to reduce as much as possible “neutral” responses, which we feared otherwise would be a “safe” option for respondents and therefore take up the bulk of our response base, and 2) to influence people as much as possible to be thinking along the binary when they filled out the real portion of interest, which was a free response regarding their rationale for that rating.
4.7 Further Codebook Development

The document analysis consultants were not able to actually code the documents themselves, because the shared, vetted codebook was not finished yet. (The goal of document analysis consultant participation was to help create a codebook, not to utilize one.) Instead, participants provided qualitative input data, rather than already-coded output data. They supplied prose responses to prompts, which then required further analysis/coding for repeated arguments.

A sample response to document 82 is:

In this context, the author takes Abbas' point of view in which Hamas is a rival. He quotes Abbas several times as lamenting the fact that the Qatari press always takes the side of Hamas in every issue, while constantly attacking the Palestinian Authority.

Each specific rationale in the response received a code. The codes were shared across documents and responses, so that a particular code could (and did) occur multiple times. The justifications that occurred to this response include the fact that the author 1) takes Abbas’s point of view, 2) is therefore de-aligned with Hamas, 3) quotes Abbas, 4) is therefore de-aligned with Qatar/the Qatari press and 5) again de-aligned with Hamas because Hamas is aligned with Qatar, and 6) is aligned with the Palestinian Authority. In other words, there are two types of codes found in this response: amount of representation (which deals with issues like whose positions are presented and who is quoted) and groupings between entities (which follows the overt content about alignments between groups to its clear conclusion).

That response to document 82, with each entity classified according to the final schema, is as follows:

In this context, the author takes Abbas' point of view (ABBAS:POS_REPRESENTED) in which Hamas is a rival (HAMAS:NEG_GROUPING). He quotes Abbas several times (ABBAS:POS_REPRESENTED) as lamenting the fact that the Qatari press always take the side of Hamas in every issue (QATAR:NEG_GROUPING; HAMAS:NEG_GROUPING), while constantly attacking the Palestinian Authority (PALESTINIANAUTHORITY:POS_GROUPING).

Appendix G contains three documents that have been fully and directly coded in this manner; the coding in these documents is not based on the intermediary layer of consultant responses. Those three coded documents are provided as a “gold standard” example for analysis.

Specific sub-code indicators for particular methods of argument were also developed to assist in the process of assembling and disassembling the larger codes. For instance, sub-codes for the positive aspect of the code “reference terminology” include use of titles that indicate respect or praise (such as “his highness”), the use of an entity’s own desired title (such as “Custodian of the

7 Some responses were too vague to be coded specifically. Those received a “general in-group” or “general out-group” tag. We checked responses as they were submitted to minimize such responses through guiding participants individually.
Two Holy Mosques” for the Saudi king), or words that remind readers of the humanity of the referent (such as “Palestinians” instead of “Palestine”). Additional sub-code findings are provided alongside their codes in Appendix G.

4.8 Theoretical Saturation

The consultant responses continued to introduce new indicators and rationales. The codebook was developed according to the content of consultant responses. In retrospect, the state of theoretical saturation was reached after 90 responses to entire documents (about 500 responses to specific entities) (Figure 8). However, we continued to code all the responses available for additional sub-codes and to ensure we had not missed any major codes.

Figure 8. Theoretical Saturation. By the time we had coded 30 documents (approximately 90 responses to entire documents), we had found all the codes we would ever find; in retrospect, that would have been a sufficient sample size. However, without the benefit of this knowledge a priori, we continued to code responses and completed the entire corpus.

4.9 Second Study Results

Consultant responses were analyzed for repeated ideas, using sampling techniques from the qualitative literature. Theoretical saturation rather than inferential statistics was used as the criterion to ensure our sample size allowed for generalizability. The thematic categories were developed iteratively and grouped together as appropriate, based on an initial seeding of categories from NSI analysis and focus groups, with the final data-driver portion of the study derived from document analyses.

4.9.1 Codebook of In/Out Group Positioning in Arabic

Analysis of the 1500 consultant responses revealed ten factors on which an entity can be attributed in/out group status:
• the amount of attention paid (that is, whether an entity is represented more or less than their due in an article),
• to what extent their opinions are explicitly represented,
• to what extent the reference terminology for that group is respectful and humanizing (for instance, whether the author uses the entity’s desired term of address, refers to the entity as a “people”, or uses a depersonalizing reference like “Zionist entity”),
• with whom they are grouped (whether with groups previously defined as “good” or “bad” entities),
• to what extent the author draws close to them in his language (for instance, whether the author represents that group as a close family member or as supported by the world at large),
• to what extent they are attributed power/involvement, virtue, and neutral/cooperative motivations, and
• to what extent they are victimized (vs. the perpetrators of victimization).

These factors can measure the extent to which someone is positioned as an in/out group in a particular Arabic media document.

The factors are in fact scales. An “in-group” representation of a certain group falls along one side of the scale, and an “out-group” representation of a group falls along the opposite side of the scale (Table 10). (For the purposes of the consultant qualitative response analysis, we presumed only a binary distinction; the responses were not detailed enough for greater granularity, as respondents had not been instructed on this scale before beginning their analyses.)

Table 10. Ten Factors were Repeatedly Identified by Consultants in their Analyses as Contributing to their Understanding of the In/out Group Dynamics of a Text. These factors can be represented as binary categories, or as a series of scales on which each entity in a document can be rated from the author’s perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-Group</th>
<th>Out-Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Amount of attention</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much attention</td>
<td>Not represented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opinions represented</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully represented</td>
<td>Not represented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reference terminology</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respectful, human terminology</td>
<td>Disrespectful, inhuman terminology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Groupings</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With “good” entities; against “bad” entities</td>
<td>With “bad” entities; against “good” entities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intimacy</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to “us”/the world</td>
<td>Distant from “us”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed power</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerful/involved</td>
<td>Weak/useless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed virtue</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glorified/canonized</td>
<td>Immoral/irresponsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed motivations</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-neutral/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Particular specific indicators for the in/out group ends of the scale are available in Appendix F, as derived from multiple consultant responses. Lengthy descriptions of each end of the scale, with extended examples, are also available in the codebook/manual.

Additionally, we identified thirteen factors that address the “intensity” of sentiment (Table 11).

**Table 11. Thirteen Factors were Identified that are Associated with Strengthening an Argument, rather than with any Particular Argument; we Termed these Factors “Intensifiers”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Author’s Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Increases salience | Includes in title  
|               | Focuses attention  
|               | Notes first or near beginning  
|               | Notes last  
|               | Involves photo  |
| Substantiates | Focuses on quantity/numbers  
|               | Uses examples/stories/imagery  
|               | Cites expert testimony/validating sources  
|               | Indicates naturalness of +/- grouping  |
| Intensifies   | Uses intensifier/indicator of large magnitude  
|               | Uses repetition  
|               | Uses lists  
|               | Uses nominalization  |

4.10 Implications of Finding

In addition to finalizing a codebook which develops a schema for in/out group dynamics, NSI ran a series of quantitative assessments of our analysts’ assessments. Our intent was to determine the mechanisms that allowed a consultant to notice any particular argument being deployed. In other words, we explored document-level and demographic differences that drove different interpretations of the author’s methods of in/out positioning.

We found both content-related and analyst-related driving factors. On the content level, some tags are commonly recognized regardless of the content (such as attributions of virtue). On others, the topic does matter (the grouping tag patterned differentially based on topic), as does whether the entity being described is an “in” or an “out” entity (the reference terminology
patterned differentially based on extent of in/out group attribution). On the analyst level, self-declared discourse analysis background matters, as does self-rated level of Arabic. However, native and near-native speakers were interchangeable in their language analyses.

There are numerous caveats to these results. First, these results do not describe what is “in the corpus” or “what Arabic authors do”. Instead, they describe what consultants recognized without any training: the “state of nature” of the documents has been filtered through the brains of untrained Arabic speakers. If we could repeat the study with the completed codebook and training for all speakers, then we could also have more faith that our results showed what was objectively “in the corpus” in correct percentages.

Second, on any particular document, the “code set” available to use was under development, and may have differed significantly from the “code set” available to annotate any other document. However, the quantitative findings in this section were developed on the basis of large sample sizes (N > 300 codes for all, with most at least three times that number), with the content and demographic variables in question randomly distributed between each group. As a result, we presume that the biases are homogeneous between groups, and that as a very preliminary analysis, these results of statistical significance are tenable. However, further research is recommended.

Additionally, the following claims are not normative. We cannot say whether any of these groups is “better” at understanding in/out group dynamics without having a clear sense of what is desired as “best” for a particular purpose. As a result, these findings are descriptive, and should be interpreted that way.

Finally, on the topic of inter-annotator agreement, it should be clear at this point why inter-annotator agreement statistics are not indicated by the current study. The consultants did not themselves annotate the documents (so there are not multiple annotators to assess); consultants were not trained on or provided with a consistent codebook (so there was no clear standard against which to mark); and each article’s codes were drawn from a different version of the codebook (so there is not a constant underlying codebook). Assessment of inter-annotator agreement metrics would, however, be indicated by a following phase in this study, in which the codebook developed during this phase were first vetted in a short phase, then trained, and then used by trained Arabic speakers to annotate additional documents directly.

4.10.1 Some Cues are Commonly Recognized \textit{A priori}

Without any training, Arabic speakers tended to pick up most on:

- \textbf{Attributions of virtue}, regardless of whether it is positive virtue or lack of virtue, are noted by analysts as indicating in/out group positioning about 10% of the time. The topic does not affect this percentage significantly.

- \textbf{Victimization}, regardless of whether the agent is victimized or victimizer, is noted by analysts as indicating in/out group positioning more than 10% of the time. In Arabic news genres, the topic seems to influence, but does not determine, this result; documents
focused on one particular conflict showed only about 5% more attention to victimization than a random collection of multi-themed news documents.

- **Intensifiers** are noted by analysts as strengthening in/out group positioning about 10% of the time. In Arabic news genres, the topic seems to influence, but not determine, this result; documents focused on one particular conflict showed only about 5% more attention to intensifiers than a random collection of multi-themed news documents.

These three phenomena are likely to be among the scales that need little training.

4.10.2 Some Dues are Recognized Differentially Depending on the Topic

Topic affects how authors are perceived to align themselves with the groups they discuss. The documents provided by NASIC focused on a particular event and the Arab world’s reaction to it; the documents provided by SSA were randomly selected from a number of newspapers regardless of topic. A comparison between the NASIC I and SSA documents reveals a statistically significant difference in codes used, with $p = 0.000 \, (\chi^2 = 32.62)$.\(^8\)

As a result, we hypothesize that some topics may have quintessential patterns of tag usage (Figure 9). For instance, topics focusing on Palestinians affected by Israeli actions may use high percentages of “victimization” and “virtue” tags, and topics focusing on official meetings may use high percentages of “grouping” tags.

![Figure 9. Topic Affects how Authors are Perceived to Align Themselves with the Groups they Discuss.](image)

8 Because the first set of NASIC documents was randomly interspersed with the SSA documents, we expect no bias related to time-of-evaluation on those two sets of documents. However, the second set of NASIC documents were all assigned numbers above 75, making them more likely to be read and coded last during this study. As a result, we cannot use the second set of NASIC documents in a comparative quantitative way.
formal events, tend to use larger proportions of the “grouping” and “victimization” tags than the SSA documents, which were randomly selected from numerous Arabic language newspapers.

Of the tags that were used most often, the biggest topic-related difference is:

- **Grouping**, whether with “good” or “bad” entities, is commonly found in the documents that focus on a series of summits and their attendees (23% of tags in the NASIC set are of this sort). However, “grouping” is less commonly found in the random-topic documents, although it is still common (12% of tags in the SSA set are of this sort).

- The very fact of having one’s viewpoints represented in the article contributes to in-group categorization in a larger percentage of the randomly-selected documents. This may be because the “amount of representation” is relatively constant through all articles but other tags were more extensively used in the NASIC documents, lowering the percentage for “representation” (which focused on an event in which in/out group positioning was very salient).

- **Attributions of negative motivations** contribute to out-group categorization more extensively in the randomly-selected documents than in the focused NASIC documents, which appeared to use other means of derogating the out-groups. (There is no real distinction between groups concerning attributed positive motivations).

### 4.10.3 Entity’s Level of In/Out Group-ness Causes Differential Recognition of Cues

The same codes can be applied to in- and out-groups. However, certain tags are more frequently applied to in-groups, and certain tags are more frequently applied to out-groups.

The results demonstrate that: 1) there is a significant difference between how codes are applied at each step on the in/out scale ($p = 0.000; \chi^2 = 349.6$), and that 2) each tag has a distinct distribution along the scale (Figure 10).
Figure 10. Each Score has an Associated Pattern of Tags and each Tag has an Associated Distribution across the Scores. Some tags tend to be used more with “in-groups”, some with “out-groups”, and some cluster their bulk in the center or on the edges of the range.

In particular, amount of attention /representation has a “positive/in-group” skew. This tag is most likely to be used to bolster in-groupness, rather than to bolster out-groupness. (The finding is not surprising, as the opposite of “much attention/representation” is “no attention/representation”, and the first is more likely to stand out to analysts unless they have been trained to assess for the latter as well.)

Attributed motivations have a “negative/out-group” skew. As a result, we know that analysts are more likely to notice a negative motivation being attributed than they are to notice a positive motivation or neutrality being attributed. This may be the result of the analyst’s mind, or it may reflect the reality of what information is included in Arabic language newspapers.

Some tags were associated with entities that we marked as extremely “out” or extremely “in”. These polarizing tags include reference terminology and victimization. When authors use reference terminology worthy of being noticed, it thus seems that they do so almost purely to demonize or glorify their subject; there is little neutral ground in noticeable references. (This is not surprising, as the neutral ground is likely taken up by non-noticeable references.) Regarding victimization, the victimizer is portrayed as highly negative, whereas the victimized tends to be portrayed as only quasi-positive. The lack of symmetry may be due to the fact that victimized people often lack self-determination or agency in the documents; analysts noted that they are used as pawns in the author’s writing, rather than as fully actualized real people.

The groupings tag had an opposite pattern to polarization: much of its bulk was located just on either side of neutrality. Although the tag is common and contributes to perceptions of in/out
group positioning, it is not a polarizing tag. About 1/3 each of the quasi-neutral 3s and 4s were associated with a “grouping” response.

Less important are tags relating to attributed power, virtue, intimacy and nature. **Intimacy** and **attributed nature** are stable across all scores, implying that they do not contribute differentially to any particular strength of interpretation. **Attributed power** is relatively stable across most scores, especially the in-group scores of 4-6. However, it makes up a smaller proportion of the scores as they approach 1 (“highly out-group”), implying that it is not “lack of power” that in fact completely demonizes an entity in analysts’ minds. **Attributed virtue** is similar but reversed; it is mostly stable on the “out-group” scores of 1-3, but it makes up a larger proportion of the scores as they approach 6 (“highly in-group”), implying when an entity is portrayed as having much virtue alongside other positive traits, it tends to be catapulted over scores 4 and 5 into being understood as highly in-group (score of 6).

### 4.10.4 Analyst Background in Discourse Analysis Causes Differential Recognition of Cues

About a third (30%) of our document analysis consultants claimed “background in discourse analysis,” including four people who had not been involved in the focus groups. This group differed significantly from the rest of respondents who claimed no background in discourse analysis ($p = 0.026; \chi^2 = 17.47$) (Figure 11). People with background in discourse analysis were relatively more likely to notice differences in **amount of attention/representation** and in **intimacy** than people without this background, and were relatively less likely to call attention to **victimization**, **attributed virtue**, and **attributed motivations**. However, these results are all relative; it may well be that people with discourse analysis background are picking up on all the same things that others pick up on, and then are able to make use of additional cues as well. Unfortunately our current dataset does not allow this theory to be tested in a meaningful way; additional work is indicated on this count.

![Figure 11. Background in Discourse Analysis Drives a Differential Recognition of Cues](image-url)
Additionally, although people with discourse analysis background were especially likely to rate themselves as near-native speakers, it is discourse analysis background rather than near-nativeness that drives this differential recognition of cues: near-native speakers did not recognize cues in a significantly different way compared to people at other levels of Arabic.

4.10.5 Analyst Language Level Causes Differential Recognition of Cues

The language level of the consultant affected which cues they recognized. However, this was only true regarding out-group tags. Level of Arabic had no impact on what people were seeing regarding in-groups; there were large p-values for comparisons between various levels of native and non-native groups (p-values between 0.20 and 0.57) (Figure 12).

Figure 12. We Found the Analyst’s Level of Arabic to Affect the Out-group Cues Noticed (Especially in terms of overt content like groupings vs. more subtle content like reference terminology and representation); level of Arabic was not significant factor regarding in-group cues.

However, the statistically significant out-group finding (p = 0.002) implies that, regarding negativity, natives and near-natives read between the lines in Arabic texts differently than do advanced students of Arabic. Advanced students are more likely to focus on overt content, such as groupings between nations, whereas native and native-like speakers focus more extensively on particular reference terminology, amount of representation, and intensifiers. This aligns with findings in applied linguistics and is likely the result of language level, as those who are still “learning” the language (even at an advanced level) are inherently less capable than native or near-native speakers of reading between the lines. Advanced speakers are thus more likely to rely on overt textual cues for insight into the textual dynamics.
4.10.6 There is no Statistically Significant Difference between “Natives” and “Near-natives”

We found no statistically significant difference between consultants who rated themselves as “native” speakers and those who rated themselves as “near-native” speakers \( (p = 0.348; \chi^2 = 8.931) \). This implies that both native and near-native speakers see the same cues in the same proportions, regarding both in- and out-groups. The near-natives do not significantly deviate from the natives, despite not having grown up speaking Arabic and rarely using it as a primary language. (“Advanced” students, however, are significantly different from natives and from near-natives, as are “intermediate” students.)

4.10.7 Quasi-Validation: Visualized Alignments between Countries

The following two images (Figure 13 and Figure 14) address the question of “who is aligned with whom, given their written prose?” Countries that are visually close together are similar in their in/out group assessments of the 92 entities in our corpus. Similarly, entities that are very far apart from each other in the image, do not agree in their in/out group assessments of the 92 entities; one of the disagreeing sources might perceive a number of countries as “strong out-group” whereas the other disagreeing source might label that same set of countries as “strong in-group”.

![Figure 13](image-url)  
**Figure 13. Visualization of Similarities between Sources with Commonalities Cast into Three Dimensions (all sources included).** The third dimension (depth) is represented by the brightness of the spheres. Countries that speak about other countries in a similar way are positioned closely together in this image; for instance, this visualization indicates that Qatar and Syria (center) tend to share similar in/out group assessments of the 92 distinct entities that occurred in the 97 document corpus. There seems to be a dividing line from the upper-left to
bottom-right corner that separates two main groups from each other, with Iran possibly forming its own group with regard to its opinions on other entities.

Figure 14. Visualization of Similarities between Sources with Similarities Cast into Three Dimensions. This is the same graphic as Figure 13 but only includes source countries with a large N (>5 different source documents and >10 different respondent analyses). As in the other figure, countries that speak about other countries in a similar way are positioned closely together in this image. There seem to be three or perhaps four groupings here – between Qatar and Syria, between Saudi Arabia and Palestine/the Palestine Information Centre (and perhaps the UAE and Egypt, which are similar to each other), and between Iran alone.

The images were generated in the computer program Mage on the basis of the quantitative assessments provided by the consultants. A table was constructed with each row containing a country source, and each column containing a different entity from the 92 contained in the corpus. The cells contained the averaged quantitative scores from the consultants for each entity from the perspective of each country. UCINET was then used to calculate a similarity matrix on the rows. The resulting similarity matrix was fed into a Metric Multi-Dimensional Scaling algorithm, with dimension = 3. The resulting coordinates were then ported into Mage for visualization purposes.

Should these images indicate similar groupings to the ones that NASIC has found during their analyses, it would be another quasi-validation of this approach and results. If the groupings are similar, then our independent method of instructing analysts to focus on particular linguistic cues reveals the same alignments between entities that NASIC is seeing.

4.11 Conclusion

The second study explored the possibility of developing a methodology to identify, understand, interpret and exploit in-group/out-group discursive patterns that did not require a formal grounding or training in critical discourse analysis. The result of the focus groups and subsequent study is a more organic method. Through deploying ten “factors” that provide
information about how an author is positioning the entities s/he discusses, an Arabic language author can indicate someone he discusses to be part of his in-group or an out-group. Thirteen “intensifiers” also provide information about the extent to which the author stresses those positionings. Additionally, NSI found demographic and textual influencers for the use of particular factors and intensifiers.

The ten “factors” cue the analyst to understand a particular group as a member of the author’s in-group or a member of the author’s out-group, and include: amount of attention provided to the entity, extent to which the entity’s opinions are represented, the respectfulness/humanness of reference terminology surrounding the entity, the other entities grouped alongside the entity, the author’s amount of portrayed intimacy with the entity, the extent to which the entity is portrayed as powerful and involved, the extent to which the entity is canonized or portrayed as virtuous, the extent to which the entity is portrayed as having neutral-to-positive motivations, whether the entity is portrayed as having a fundamentally “bad” or “good” nature, and the extent to which the entity is portrayed as a victim vs. victimizer.

The thirteen “intensifiers” which serve to intensify the positive or negative sentiments indicated in the ten factors (e.g. respectfulness/humanness). Some intensifiers increase the salience of a particular message (such as when a factor occurs in the title space, has attention focused upon it, is noted first or near the beginning, is noted last, or is emphasized with a photograph). Other intensifiers substantiate a particular message (such as when an article provides information about quantity/numbers, when it uses examples/stories/imagery, when it cites expert testimony or validating sources, or when it points to the “naturalness” of a particular grouping). The last set of intensifiers simply “intensify” a particular message (such as when an article uses an indicator of large magnitude like “very”, uses repetition, uses lists, or nominalizes particular references to make them grammatically sturdy nouns rather than other parts of speech).

Quantitative analyses revealed that the consultants’ analyses depended on a number of characteristics inherent in a) the documents and b) the consultant doing the analysis. In particular, the factors noticed by Arabic speakers are partially determined by self-rated language level (although native and near-native speakers were indistinguishable from each other) and by previous experience in discourse analysis. In accordance with the findings of applied linguistics, self-rated “advanced” and “intermediate” speakers of Arabic differed significantly from “native” and “near-native” speakers. The non-native-like group focused more extensively on overt textual representations of dynamics, which is likely the result of their still-developing language skills.

Some factors tend to indicate extreme in/out attributions, some tend to indicate quasi-neutral in/out attributions, and others tend to map to particularly negative or particularly positive representations of an entity. Additionally, although all factors appear in all sorts of documents, the topic affects the extent to which certain factors are noticed by Arabic speakers. Unfortunately, the data set did not support an exploration of this last finding in depth.

Ultimately, the result of this second study was a systematic positive in-group/negative out-group discourse analytic approach to understanding texts that is much more natural, repeatable and easy...
to train. The study produced a number of other findings regarding the effect of demographics on the understanding of in-group and out-group representation. Now that initial theory has been created, further deductive research on these topics is indicated. In particular, the following are suggested:

- An empirical study regarding the identification of the ten factors described here. An empirical study designed according to the scientific method is now possible, given that there is now a theory to test. An empirical study may show mistakes or misunderstandings in the theory, thereby indicating necessary refinements to the theory.
- An information-gain-based assessment of factors. It may be possible that equally-good results can be had without using all ten factors; given a well-designed empirical study as identified above, it should be possible to assess which factors best discriminate between positive in-group/negative out-group sentiments.
- A further exploration of demographic influences on perception of in/out group differences. Further understanding of how language level and training affect analyst understanding will help clarify organizational needs, such as in realms like analyst diversity and training.
5.0 COGNITIVE/INTEGRATIVE COMPLEXITY PROOF-OF-CONCEPT

Discourse analysis focuses on the structure of an interaction between a speaker and his/her audience. Cognitive complexity analysis, however, focuses on the structure of the content itself and the underlying psychological engagement of the speaker that the structure indicates. Cognitive complexity functions as a window into a speaker’s mental processes and attempts to lay bare the level of mental resources dedicated to a concept or idea.

The more cognitively complex a text is, the more connections the author is making between concepts, their consequences or influence, and potential outcomes. Cognitive complexity (alternately, “integrative complexity”\(^9\)) is defined in terms of two components: differentiation and integration. Differentiation refers to the number of characteristics or dimensions of a problem that are taken into account when considering an issue. High differentiation occurs when a person views an issue from multiple perspectives. Integration, on the other hand, depends on whether the individual perceives the differentiated characteristics as operating in isolation (low integration) or in multiple conditional patterns (high integration) (Van Hiel & Mervielde, 2003).

The methodology for measuring cognitive complexity is relatively simple to apply. Given ten or more paragraphs from a particular policymaker, decision-maker, or non-state actor, two trained analysts read and assess the “cognitive complexity” of the author according to a 7-point integration-differentiation scale (following Tetlock and Suedfeld, et al. 2004, discussed in Section 5.5). The result is a cognitive complexity data point for that source. Analysis should be completed for regular intervals of time. Regular collection of data points can provide an indicator over time of the leader’s complexity. Each new set of cognitive complexity results is then graphed; changes in levels of cognitive complexity indicate changes in internal cognitive engagement.

5.1 Historical Background and Literature

Cognitive complexity as a specific, systematized measure in international relations does not enter the literature until the mid-1970s, but it draws from psychological works emanating from the 1950s and likely much earlier. Early developers of experimental test-measures for cognitive complexity include Schroeder and Streufert, who created paragraph completion tests and scoring rubrics to determine whether test subjects were high or low complexity thinkers, similar to the abstract-concrete cognitive continuum that was popular in primary education in the 1990s.\(^{10}\)

These cognitive complexity and paragraph completion rubrics were later applied by political psychologists and international relations specialists to the speeches and public statements of political leaders. It should be noted that various scholars have used cognitive and integrative complexity interchangeably; nonetheless, integrative complexity is the more common label

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\(^9\) Cognitive complexity will be the term used throughout the remainder of this document. However, it should be noted that terms have evolved and many of the scholarly works written in recent years have used ‘integrative’ complexity rather than cognitive complexity as the accepted term.

\(^{10}\) See: http://www.pesdirect.com/Learning_Styles.pdf
today. There is more than three decades of literature on the application of cognitive complexity to political leaders. However, much of the work was produced in the 1970s and ‘80s with a special focus on Soviet leadership and Middle East leaders during conflicts like the Seven Days War and Yom Kippur War in the 1960s and ‘70s. Based upon basic academic searches, this methodology has been less frequently applied to recent events and political figures.

5.2 Key Cognitive Complexity Findings in the Literature

Based upon NSI’s literature review, it is evident that in some regards, this mode of research operates in two different worlds: domestically, as it relates to parties and domestic policy decisions, and internationally, as it relates to international conflict and strife. This review will largely focus on the latter.

If cognitive complexity can be appropriately operationalized it may be possible to acquire some predictive power, by recognizing subtle cues of threat posturing. However, since all of the studies we have reviewed have applied this cognitive complexity analysis methodology post-facto, it is unclear whether an analyst would ever be able to disentangle which party a government or organizational representative is posturing towards. Cognitive complexity assessments indicate only that some psychic crisis is affecting the cognitions of a particular leader.

Among the literature reviewed in the process of this work, the following conclusions have been reached:

- Surprise attacks are typically accompanied by declines in an attacker’s complexity between three months and 2-4 weeks before the attack. Complexity increased for attacked nations between 1-4 weeks before the surprise attack and dropped to the approximate level of the attacker on or immediately after the attack (Suedfeld & Bluck, 1988).
- The outbreak of war is reliably preceded by decreased integrative complexity of national leaders and diplomats. There is no pattern of reduced complexity during crises that are eventually resolved peacefully (Astorino-Courtois, 1995; Maoz & Shayer, 1987; Suedfeld & Tetlock, 1977).
- Representatives of nations that are only marginally involved in the coming or actual conflict, and have relatively less at stake, show little or no decrease in complexity (Suedfeld & Tetlock, 1977).
- During periods when their country is at war, members of the national elite exhibit reduced integrative complexity in public and private communications, even if they have no decision-making role in the government (Porter & Suedfeld, 1981).

Interestingly, in a 2002 study of statements relating to the 9/11 attacks, researchers found that terrorists operated at much lower complexity than coalition (Western) leaders. Additionally, as expected, the Taliban/Al-Qaeda coalition had reduced complexity as the Western coalition began its offensive in Afghanistan. However, Osama bin Laden showed no significant changes in complexity from his relatively low baseline during the offensive, which they attributed to his
relatively low baseline complexity and radicalization among other potential causes (Suedfeld & Leighton, 2002).

5.3 Benefits of Cognitive Complexity

Cognitive complexity researchers have found that:

- Decreases in the cognitive complexity of policymakers and non-state actors are associated with outright conflict between three months and two weeks prior to conflict onset (Suedfeld & Bluck, 1988). In particular, surprise attacks are typically accompanied by (Suedfeld & Bluck, 1988):
  - Declines in the attacker’s complexity are observed between three months and 2-4 weeks before the attack.
  - Increases in the attacked nation’s complexity between 1-4 weeks before the surprise attack.

- Increases in the cognitive complexity of key policymakers are associated with shifts to more cooperative behavior. While decreases in complexity are often associated with a greater proclivity towards conflict and violence.

Leaders can lie in their public actions and statements, but they do not typically control changes in their cognitive complexity. By applying vetted cognitive scoring methodologies to the statements of leaders and elites of interest it may be possible to evaluate psychological clues at a more subtle level than overt threats to another country or group. Rather than observing troop deployments and obvious breakdowns in negotiations, cognitive complexity may allow analysts to recognize changes in threat posturing that are far more nuanced than active and apparent threats.

The Suedfeld and Tetlock approach to measuring cognitive complexity is eminently trainable, replicable, and well documented in the academic literature. The potential benefits of applying this methodology include:

- Cognitive complexity is easy to train with a manual and a significant body of research;
- Cognitive complexity can capture meaningful changes in a leader’s psychic posturing before other strategic observables, like troop deployment, can be noted;
- Cognitive complexity can cue analysts, providing a leading indicator of possible state action; serving as a flag for analysts to focus more attention on a particular country or set of leaders, because their underlying cognitive complexity is changing;
- Cognitive complexity provides an easily interpretable and usable graphic for changes in psychic postures with fluctuations often apparent over time.

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11 For instance, one researcher noted that even when communications were aimed at impression management, they still revealed the "true state": “The actual complexity scores derived from these communications [aimed at impression management, where a leader attempts to display an image different from his/her internal ambitions] have been found to predict the actual strategy that was later pursued rather than the image that the source presumably wished to project” (Suedfeld & Leighton, 2002).
Overall, this systematic approach provides an added level of rigor to analytic work, helps identify potential areas of concern and geopolitical risk, and makes for quantifiable metrics of cognitive posture change.

5.4 Caveats

While this research has a significant body of literature buttressing it, cognitive complexity has only been assessed in retrospect (given a clear event of interest at a clear point in time), rather than in real-time. Additionally, changes in cognitive complexity can occur for a multitude of reasons including personal stress or domestic political stress, so even if contemporaneous shifts are detected in complexity it is necessary to investigate the true cause of the change. Core issues relating to the application of this research to real world, contemporary scenarios are as follows:

- **Applicability:** More research is necessary to investigate whether cognitive complexity methodology is transferrable to non-state actors like Al-Qaeda or the Taliban and determine the predictive power this tool has vis-à-vis contemporaneous events. Only one paper has applied integrative complexity to Al-Qaeda and Osama bin Laden. 12 This deficit means that there is a need to determine the appropriate data collection time intervals (daily, weekly, or monthly). Further research is needed to assess whether the object of changes in cognitive complexity can be discovered and disentangled.

- **Reliability:** Closely associated with concerns regarding applicability are issues related to reliability. How reliable is this measure in predicting changes to threat posturing or conflict dynamics? Does predictive power improve with more cases or data collection with greater frequency? Such questions can only be addressed once this tool has been implemented to provide real-time assessments and there are sufficient data-sets to assess the ongoing validity.

- **Value-Added:** Leaders can lie, but intrinsic psychological cues do not. The final caveat stems from our concerns about both applicability and reliability: provided this method proves reliable and applicable, what does it add to the analytic arsenal available to analysts? Does cognitive complexity capture something not already available from other resources and methodologies? Is it efficient?

5.5 Scoring Methodology, In Brief

The traditional approach to scoring texts (speeches, public statements, journals/diaries, memoirs, etc.) within the literature employs a 7-point scoring system. Odd-number scores (1, 3, 5, 7) correspond to four critical differentiation points of integrative complexity from simple to most complex, with even number scores corresponding to writings in transition between each node. At a score of 1, the most simple, a subject handles an issue “unidimensionally, with no gradations, shadings, or alternatives” (Suedfeld & Granastein, 1995). Content that is scored at a 3

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reflects “differentiation, in which different aspects or qualities of the issue are recognized but no relation among them is perceived;” a score of 5 reflects “differentiation with some understanding of linkage across dimensions;” and a score of 7 reflects a subject’s “multi-level set of cognitive schemata integrating the differentiated dimensions” (Suedfeld & Granastein, 1995).

Table 12 shows paragraphs representing cognitive complexity at each major node (1, 3, 5, 7) of the scoring scale, drawn from an article by Tetlock & Boettger (1989). In addition, the table provides a brief rationale for the score.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sc.</th>
<th>Example Paragraph</th>
<th>Rationale for Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Serious deformations piled up in the planning field. The utility of the plan as the main tool of economic policy was severely undermined by subjectivist approaches: a lack of balance, instability, a striving to embrace everything right down to trifles, and an abundance of decisions made outside the plan. Lacking scientific foundations, plans often fell far short of the ambitious goals that had been defined by the central authorities.”</td>
<td>This paragraph shows little differentiation other than a clear division between the inadequate plans and the “ambitious goals… [of] the central authorities.” Additionally, much of the content is an extended list of “subjectivist approaches” without acknowledging any positive component to those approaches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>“The psychology of stagnation also had an impact in literary and artistic spheres. Criteria used in evaluating artistic creativity were eroded from two different directions. On the one hand, there was growing penetration of our society by bourgeois mass culture, which instills vulgarity, primitive tastes, and spiritual callousness. On the other hand, the situation was also complicated by unfounded bureaucratic interference in purely creative processes and by sympathies and antipathies based on personal tastes, while influence and leadership were replaced by arbitrary decisions.”</td>
<td>Two perspectives (offset by “on the other hand”) are identified for the causes of the erosion of creativity; both are viewed as equally relevant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>“Soviets possess enormous potentials for control. They must increase adherence to democratic principles, the effectiveness of regular reports, and the practice of deputy inquiries. But it is also necessary to regulate the various check-ups and inspections raining down on organizations like an avalanche, taking people away from their business, and introducing nervousness into people's work. To achieve the beneficial effects of accountability while minimizing the negative side-effects, our focus must be on the quality of inspections and not their quantity.”</td>
<td>By offering multiple potential causes for the failure of the Soviets to live up to their potential for control, the author demonstrates differentiation. Moreover, by identifying the interplay between inspections and work productivity, the author is beginning to integrate. Indeed, by synthesizing the potential causes of Soviet failure the author integrates more thoroughly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>“Two opposite tendencies paradoxically existed in cadre policy in recent years- stagnation and high turnover. Though cadre stability is necessary in principle, it must not be carried</td>
<td>The author immediately defines two opposite tendencies, differentiating between stagnation/stability and high...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to extremes—an artificial stability which can create stagnation. On the other hand, high turnover rates of directors of organizations occurred due to arbitrary, rash judgments of cadre capabilities or because of intolerance of independent action and thinking. We must learn from Lenin to reward competence and experience without allowing stagnation, to ensure timely turnover without sowing confusion, and to promote new energetic leadership without hasty evaluation or disagreement with the local leadership. Only by being at once principled, demanding, and attentive can we balance these contradictory needs.

5.6 Text Preparation

In order to prepare texts for scoring, NSI recommends the following steps:

1) Select texts for the relevant individual for the relevant time period (any material is relevant, including speeches, interviews, public statements, personal correspondence, journals, memoirs, etc.).

2) Compile all available paragraphs so that a random selection methodology can be employed.13

3) From the compiled texts, randomly select at least ten paragraphs for scoring.14

4) Within the selected paragraphs, strip identifying information including names and dates15 and reorder paragraphs such that all material from one source or one person is not scored sequentially to minimize reader bias as much as possible.

5) Score each document according to the manual (Baker-Brown, Ballard, Bluck, de Vries, Suedfeld, & Tetlock, 2004) or the rubric provided below, and address any discrepancies between scorers on each relevant paragraph.16

6) Compile each score into a database and average complexity over each relevant time interval to establish the author’s cognitive complexity index for that period of time.

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13 In our pilot study, all relevant paragraphs for each interval was copied into an Excel spreadsheet and numbered, with source information associated with each case. Excel facilitates reordering and sequencing according to date as the database grows and was selected specifically because of its ease of use and manipulability.

14 A random number generator can be used as a selection criterion, with the paragraphs corresponding to each randomly generated number being pulled into the code set. Excel has a =RANDBETWEEN() function that can be used for this purpose.

15 Dialectical markers should not be eliminated (like idioms and colloquialism, unless these provide sufficient identifying information such that an analyst can identify the subject of the analysis), but specific references like “when last I spoke to the Parliament of Egypt” should be generalized to just “Parliament” in order to reduce bias on the part of the readers wherever possible.

16 Ideally three people, rather than two, would participate in cognitive complexity scoring; the third person would compile the texts, randomize, and clean the texts while two analysts could undertake the cognitive complexity scoring.
7) Evaluate difference of mean over time and other relevant statistics to establish whether significant change has occurred. Regression analysis may be employed to differentiate potential causes of fluctuations in cognitive complexity within any given interval or over time.
### 5.7 Detailed Scoring Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Explanation</th>
<th>Critical Indicators</th>
<th>Specific Indicators</th>
<th>Content Flags</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unscorable</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author's rule structure for drawing inferences or making decisions not evident</td>
<td>1. <strong>Cliches</strong> (when paragraph consists solely of cryptic or glib remarks or cliches)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. <strong>Satire and Sarcasm</strong> (when ambiguity about either the object or thrust of a satirical passage)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. <strong>Quotations</strong> (exception when author comments on the quotations in sufficient detail to reveal nature of his/her own thinking)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. <strong>Definitions</strong> (however, definitions that stray beyond merely the literal meaning are scorable)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. <strong>Descriptions</strong> (when a paragraph merely reports the occurrence of events and provides minimal clues about the author's perspective)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. <strong>Breakdowns in Understanding</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Score of 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no sign of either conceptual differentiation or integration. The author relies, without qualification, on a simple, one-dimensional rule for interpreting events or making choices</td>
<td>1. <strong>Compartmentalization</strong> (when stimuli are evaluated in an all or none fashion, without consideration of possible exceptions to or qualifications of the evaluative rule)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) <strong>Categorical rejection of perspectives or dimensions</strong> (when author denies that reasonable others could disagree or that an issue has aspects or dimensions that the author has not considered)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) <strong>Setting up and knocking down a “straw man”</strong> (when author acknowledges the existence of different ways of looking at the world, but dismisses them without serious consideration or qualification)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) <strong>Inclusion-exclusion rules</strong> (when simple inclusion-exclusion rules preclude the possibility of interactions, complex conditionals, or subtle gradations of response to ambiguous or difficult-to-classify stimuli)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. <strong>Dominance of Single Evaluative Rule</strong> (when value judgments permeate the discussion of specifics)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) <strong>Lack of response differentiation</strong> (author does not respond in a differentiated manner to the two or more dimensions that he or she distinguishes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) <strong>Lists</strong> (although a number of dimensions/perspectives are listed, they are used merely as illustrations of a particular evaluative point of view or as evidence designed to conform to the evaluative rule)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. <strong>Conflict Avoidance</strong> (desire to avoid conflict may be plainly stated in the text)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. <strong>Prescriptive Generalizations</strong> (when author offers far-reaching advice on how people should think/feel/act with no recognition that this advice might need to be qualified in particular circumstances or that the advice may be bad in some circumstances)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. <strong>Temporal Sequencing</strong> (note that causal or temporal sequencing is not sufficient)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Score of 2

The author recognizes the potential for looking at the same issue in different ways or along different dimensions. The author may qualify a normative rule or causal generalization or display an awareness of alternative futures. The author may also discuss past events in a way that suggests, but does not develop, new interpretations.

- Accepts different perspectives or dimensions, but only potentially / conditionally.
- Does not develop the alternate dimension(s) or perspective(s).

1. **Conditional Acceptance of Other Perspectives or Dimensions** (when the author implies or states that acceptance of a position or policy proposal need not be all-or-none, but a matter of degree that, in turn, hinges on the degree to which a particular condition or goal has been satisfied)
2. **Conditional Statements** (when the conditions for acceptance are left open-ended, rather than given by an absolute rule)
3. **Conditions for a Hypothetical Outcome** (when the author considers possible outcomes that may arise in hypothetical states of the world—in so doing, the author demonstrates at least an implicit awareness of alternative pasts, presents, or futures)
4. **Exceptions to the Rule** (when the author qualifies a generalization or stated perspective or dimension)
5. **Emerging Recognition of Alternate Perspectives or Dimensions** (when the author recognizes that others may hold different perspectives, but does not specify exactly how these perspectives are different)
6. **Increased Tolerance for Ambiguity** (when the author is comfortable with or at least willing to tolerate a degree of open-endedness or uncertainty in judging events or in making plans)

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### Score of 3

The author clearly specifies at least two distinct ways of dealing with the same information or stimulus. However, there is no evidence of conceptual integration. Differentiation is the critical aspect of a score of 3.

- Recognizes alternative perspectives or different dimensions
  - Accepts these alternative perspectives as being relevant, legitimate, justifiable, valid, etc.
  - However, still only one way of looking at the world is considered legitimate / reasonable.

1. **Multiple Alternatives**
   a.) **Multiple perspectives** (when the author recognizes that “reasonable persons” can view the same problem or issue in different ways (the “truth” is not all on one side))
   b.) **Multiple dimensions** (when the author recognizes more than one dimension of an event, situation, issue, person or object)
   c.) **Multiple perspectives and multiple dimensions**
2. **Alternatives and Conditions for Application** (when the author engages in complex conditional reasoning, specifying conditions under which two or more alternative outcomes are acceptable or likely to occur)
3. **Probability Statements** (when the author provides conditional statements that specify independent causes or determinants of the likelihood of some event)
4. **Temporal Perspectives** (when the author recognizes how new perspectives or approaches can grow out of older ones, or recognizes that although perspectives on a problem have changed, neither the earlier nor the later perspective can be simply dismissed as wrong)
5. **Increased Tolerance for Ambiguity** (when the author considers a number of parallel or contradictory perspectives or dimensions, and different perspective is no longer automatically wrong, bad, or identified with a disliked out-group: absolutism is disliked in

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Conjunctions such as:
- but, nevertheless, while, however, and though

Qualifier adjectives and adverbs such as:
- probably, almost, usually

All content flags for “2.”

Additional flags include:
- alternatively, either/or, on the other hand, meanwhile
### Score of 4

Integration begins to emerge. There must be a clear representation of alternatives as well as an implicit recognition of a dynamic relationship between or among them. There is only a suggestion that interaction exists between the alternatives; there is no overt statement specifying the nature of this interaction.

- Indicates that multiple perspectives or dimensions exist, and also that they could interact.

1. **Withholding Judgment** (when the author notes that further information is needed before one can make explicit statements about the relationship between various alternatives)
2. **Tension Between Alternatives** (when the author shows tension / a dynamic relationship between the alternative perceptions or dimensions)
3. **Integration Expressed Probabilistically** (however, the probability statement (“it is likely that”, “it seems possible”, etc.) must be supported by text that meets the requirements outlined in the general explanation)
4. **Integration Expressed as a Superordinate Statement** (the author provides a broad statement encompassing the multiple perspectives or dimensions, usually as the introductory statement in the paragraph)

### Score of 5

Integration is included explicitly.

- Alternative perspectives or dimensions are viewed interactively, as well as held in focus simultaneously.
- Multiple alternatives are all to some degree legitimate.
- Combines multiple alternatives to produce a result that none of the alternatives could produce alone.

1. **Mutual Influence and Interdependence** (when the author shows two or more alternatives in a dynamic relationship, in which each perspective affects and is affected by the other; the author must clearly recognize the reciprocity of the relationship)
2. **Negotiation** (when the author realizes that a “give and take” strategy must be used and that tradeoffs must be made by both sides in order to reach a resolution, and either outlines a strategy that could be used or explicitly describes the trade-offs that could be made to reach a resolution; the author is able to tolerate ambiguity and does not force a speedy resolution)
3. **Causal Attrributions** (when the author attempts to explain why “reasonable persons” view an issue in different ways; the author may use a unifying statement to explain two contradictory but valid perspectives or dimensions; the author may developing a higher-order concept that defines the common element in alternative perspectives (a comparison rule))
4. **Synthesis** (when the author generates a novel product, which may be expressed as an insight, new policy, or the unexpected result of the interaction of the two dimensions)

### Score of 6

The author is clearly working with multiple levels of schemata, indicated through inclusion of a high-level

- May contain an explicitly presented global overview
  - Specific dynamics of alternatives are only

1. **Comparison of Outcomes** (when the author is aware of two alternative courses of action and is able to compare their outcomes with regard to long-term implications—each alternative is reasonably considered even if one is favored over the other)
2. **Systematic Analysis** (when the author describes how an existing relationship network, or system can be affected by changes in an internal or external variable)
interaction. Alternatives are expressed as plans, processes, or courses of action made up of several moving parts (systems/networks).

- Conversely, may contain explicit details about the dynamic interaction between alternatives
  - Global overview is only implicit

3. **Hypothesis Testing** (when the author’s understanding of the relationship is expressed through an explicit hypothesis about how the system would accommodate some new information, action or change over time)

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**Score of 7**

The author has an overarching principle or perspective pertaining to the nature (not merely the existence) of the relationship or connectedness between alternatives.

- Contains an overarching viewpoint that explains the organizing principle of the problem/concept
- Discusses the ways in which levels of the problem or concept interact
  - Contains specific and dynamic descriptions
  - Thus demonstrates the validity of the overarching perspective

1. **Hierarchical Integration** (when the author shows the presence of two or more organizing principles, which are themselves integrations and which are then synthesized to form an overarching view; this level of complexity requires principles or concepts that offer an explanation for a particular event, problem or theory)

2. **Comparison of Outcomes** (when the author takes a global view of the events in the situation and relates these events to an organizing principle; the specific nature or dynamics of at least one of the events must be outlined in some detail)

3. **Systematic Analysis** (when the author explores specific complex interactions within a complex system, using an overarching global view as a way of uniting these observations; the effect of one action on other levels throughout the system is then clearly explained, and the general and specific consequences of this ‘ripple effect’ are delineated)

4. **Complex Trade-offs among Conflicting Goals** (when the author is able to step back from the situation sufficiently to engage in a cost-benefit analysis of several conflicting goals or strategies and includes an explanation for making comparisons among them)
5.8 Preliminary Study

In order to evaluate the utility of cognitive complexity scoring in a recent scenario of interest and to examine areas for further study, NSI conducted a pilot study using the Baker, et al. 2004 manual as a guideline. Larry Kuznar and Tessa Baker scored 90 paragraphs of Bashar Al-Assad’s speeches, public statements, and interview responses for cognitive complexity in the period surrounding the 2005 Hariri assassination. Based on this pilot study, NSI reached conclusions consistent with those found in the literature, with a significant decline in cognitive complexity in the period immediately preceding the assassination of Rafic Hariri on February 14, 2005. Although President Bashar Al-Assad has consistently denied any involvement in the assassination, his cognitive complexity results suggest a significant psychic crisis around the same time period as the assassination and its run-up.18

5.9 Methodology

Internet, LexisNexis, and Open Source Center searches were used to find all available translated Al-Assad texts for the period between October 2003 and November 2005. Search parameters were as simple as “Al-Assad” and “President of Syria” for the time period between 2003 and 2005. Only English language results were searched and incorporated into the database. This decision was based upon the finding in the literature that translated texts are just as reliable for scoring as texts in the original source language. In all, 13 documents (280 paragraphs) were selected to be incorporated into the corpus.

Once the entire database was collected, 89 paragraphs were randomly selected from each of three time periods: 30 from the period October 2003 to May 2004 (as the baseline), 2919 from the period October 2004 to February 13, 2005 (as the run-up to the assassination), and 30 from the period February 14, 2005 to December 2005 (immediately following the assassination). These randomly selected paragraphs were entered into a second database and randomized such that paragraphs from each interval were intermixed.

In addition, during the data preparation process identifying information was stripped, including source and date. Each paragraph was assigned a unique document identification number such that it could be matched back to its identifying information at the conclusion of the scoring phase of the research effort. All paragraphs were read in English translation, with some content

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18 The official UN investigatory commission concluded that the assassination was “carried out by a group with an extensive organization and considerable resources and capabilities. The crime had been prepared over the course of several months.” Additionally, based upon their investigation, the panel noted that “there is converging evidence pointing at both Lebanese and Syrian involvement in this terrorist act” and “given the infiltration of Lebanese institutions and society by the Syrian and Lebanese intelligence services.....it would be difficult to envisage a scenario whereby such a complex assassination plot could have been carried out without their knowledge” (http://www.un.org/News/dh/docs/mehlisreport/pdf/conclusion.pdf).

19 This represents the entire corpus for this time period.
originally having been delivered in English and the remainder of the content mostly delivered in Arabic.\(^{20}\)

Each paragraph was then coded by two coders. Any scoring discrepancies of +/- 2 points were discussed by the coders until a common score was agreed upon. In all, 89 paragraphs were coded, with two paragraphs being unscorable.

### 5.10 Data Set and Coding Experience

One member of our research team spent one week attempting to collect all of the available English translations of Bashar Al-Assad speeches, public statements, and interviews for the fall of 2003 and the years 2004 and 2005. The average word count for the entire collected universe was 141 words per paragraph with a minimum word count of 26 and a maximum word count of 664. The randomly selected coding set had a mean word count of 143 and a minimum word count of 26 and a maximum word count of 474. Table 13 summarizes these sample statistics for the universe and coding set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Universe</th>
<th>Code Set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Avg. word count</td>
<td>140.76</td>
<td>142.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Min word count</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max word count</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Dev.</td>
<td>94.40</td>
<td>90.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>N=280</td>
<td>N=87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on a t-test (t=.21), there is no statistically significant difference in average word count between the complete corpus and the randomized code-set. However, it should be noted that all available paragraphs for the critical period between October 2004 and February 2005 were included in the code set due to a difficulty in obtaining speeches from this time period.

The search parameters for defining the universe were sufficiently loose such that we have a high degree of confidence that we have collected all of Bashar Al-Assad’s publically-available-translated into-English speeches and comments of adequate length between October 2003 and November 2005. Based upon the literature and the available data, three apparent divisions were made: Phase I represents the period of time from October 2003 to May 2004; Phase II represents the period from October 2004 thru the end of January 2005; and Phase III represents the period

\(^{20}\) Bashar Al-Assad is fluent in Arabic, speaks English (having married an Englishwoman) and appears to have proficiency in French as well. Wherever possible, the source language was noted during the data collection process.
immediately following the attack (2/28/2005 is the first data point) to the end of 2005. These seemingly arbitrary divisions fall along natural breaks in the available data as well as mirroring the critical periods identified in the literature: a baseline of sufficient time prior to the event of interest to provide adequate grounding; a period immediately prior to the event of interest; and the period afterwards. Due to the vagaries of data collection, there was more content in the universe from the baseline period and the period immediately following the assassination than there was in the period immediately prior to the event as demonstrated by Table 14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 14. Phase Breakdown of Sample and Universe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time Period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Larry Kuznar and Tessa Baker served as the principle coders for this test study of the utility of cognitive complexity in evaluating threat posturing in decision-makers and policy elites. Using the Suedfeld et al. 7-point scale, each reader independently scored 89 paragraphs, which were reduced to 87 due to two unscorable paragraphs. Throughout the process, the coders maintained contact and discussed discrepancies of greater than two points in an effort to achieve consensus scores. The two coders were in complete agreement in 52% of the cases; in the remaining 42 cases (48%), the readers were within one point of each other. The intercoder agreement, in terms of correlation, over the entire coded set was 0.78.

5.11 Results

After coding the entire sub-sample, readers’ scores were averaged for each phase to create an indexed score for each individual paragraph. Overall, for the entire sub-sample, Bashar Al-Assad averaged a mean cognitive complexity score of 1.92, with a standard deviation of 0.92. The minimum score was 1 for the entire sample and the maximum score for any of Bashar Al-Assad’s statements was 5. The distribution was unimodal with a median of 2 for the entire sample.

A score of 1 (Figure 15) was the most common, occurring in 41% (71/174) of all scores made by the readers. Only one paragraph received a score of 5 from one reader. Three-quarters (75%) of all paragraphs received a score of less than 3, which represents the critical juncture between differentiation and integration. When the two reader’s scores are combined into a mean score for each paragraph, the distribution spreads slightly as Figure 16 illustrates.

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21 The entire sub-sample for Phase II was originally incorporated into the coding set; however, two paragraphs were determined to be unscorable, leaving 27 paragraphs in the dataset.
When composite scores are evaluated against time period there appears to be a significant decrease in cognitive complexity in the 3 months immediately prior to the assassination of former Prime Minister Hariri. As Figure 17 indicates, there is a significant decline in complexity during Phase II, in the period immediately prior to the assassination, as is expected in the literature.
The cognitive complexity score for Phase II is statistically smaller than both Phase I ($t=2.13$, p-value=.02) and Phase III ($t=2.28$, p-value=.01). The mean cognitive complexity in Phase I and Phase III (pre- and post-assassination) do not differ significantly.

Figure 18 disambiguates cognitive complexity by date, for dates with more than two scored paragraphs, demonstrating a significant drop from 1.92 on December 3, 2004 (N=9 paragraphs) to 1.25 on January 17, 2005 (N=2 paragraphs), with a slight recovery to 1.57 on January 28, 2005 (N=7). Despite these apparently significant shifts, there is insufficient data to make a statistical claim. Nonetheless, the blue line in the graph indicates the approximate date of the Hariri assassination, with a low point in cognitive complexity exactly 4 weeks prior to the assassination on January 17, 2005 and a demonstrable and large improvement in cognitive complexity in the immediate aftermath of the event with a score of 2.58 on February 28, 2005 (N=3) and a score of 2.80 on March 5, 2005 (N=5).
Interestingly, while one would expect prepared statements in the form of speeches or joint statements to demonstrate greater complexity (see Suedfeld, Tetlock, and Streufert, 1992); it appears that the opposite is true for President Al-Assad. In the sub-sampled scored-set, there were 41 paragraphs derived from prepared speeches, 37 paragraphs from interviews, and an additional 9 paragraphs from a joint statement with the President of Brazil. The mean complexity for speeches was 1.82 and the mean cognitive complexity score for interviews was 2.02 (Table 15). Most theorists in this field have generally concluded that planned speeches are likely to reflect greater complexity than those that are delivered extemporaneously. Thus, this statistically significant difference between speeches and interviews suggests that there may possibly be underlying elements within the Syrian establishment that can exercise greater control.

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22 “In general, higher complexity scores are found in material that has been generated after some thought or planning has taken place and under conditions of little or no time constraint. Lower complexity scores are found in material that was generated with little prior thought and under strict time-limiting conditions. Written accounts tend to have higher scores than oral material (i.e. transcription of interviews)” (Suedfeld, Tetlock, and Streufert, 1992).
on speeches than they can on interview responses. It is also possible that Al-Assad is more complex when speaking extemporaneously or outside the country (like in an interview) than he might otherwise be when he is more constrained by institutional forces, or this apparent change in complexity might be due to Al-Assad targeting a more complex foreign audience. More than half (25/37, 68%) of all interview paragraphs included in the coding sample came from western sources (the New York Times, CNN, Italy’s La Repubblica). This finding is an area for potential further research among leaders in totalitarian regimes with significant control over information streams.

Table 15. Mean Complexity by Source Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complexity (Mean)</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speech</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public/Joint Statement</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, while scholars have generally concluded that the numbers of words are significantly correlated with the complexity scores; most have also concluded that this association is only responsible for a small portion of the total variance (Suedfeld, Tetlock, & Streufert, 1992). However, other studies have concluded that there is no relationship between the length of paragraphs and the ultimate complexity of a paragraph (Tetlock & Boettger, 1989).

Our results, on the other hand, suggest a strong relationship between the length of the paragraph scored and the score it receives. In our study, the 31 paragraphs with fewer than 100 words received a mean cognitive complexity of 1.56, while the 14 paragraphs with 200 to 300 words received a mean score of 2.21 and the 37 paragraphs with 100 to 200 words received an average score of 2.02. The five paragraphs with 300 or more words received an average cognitive complexity score of 2.55 (Table 16).

Table 16. Mean Complexity by Word Count

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complexity (Mean)</th>
<th>Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;100 Words</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100-200 Words</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200-300 Words</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300+ Words</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indeed, when word count is regressed on the cognitive complexity score, the beta for word count is small (.003) but significant (t=2.60, α=.01). However, because the R^2 for the model is only
.074, Suedfeld et al. (1992) appear to be correct in asserting that word count by itself accounts for little variation in cognitive complexity scores. However, word count is likely to be a significant covariate of cognitive complexity.

The causal significance of these correlations is unclear and debated in the literature. It could very well be that when one is cognitively complex, it takes more verbiage to express this complexity. Alternatively, temporally or otherwise constrained discourses may not allow the expression of cognitive complexity. The causal relationship between passage length and complexity is clearly another area of needed research.

5.12 Conclusions
This effort was aimed at exploring the applicability of cognitive complexity methods, as developed by political psychologists such as Peter Suedfeld and Phillip Tetlock, as an alternative methodology for analyzing language. Cognitive complexity methodology has been validated in the academic literature through successful retro-diction of historical events. The main literature findings include:

- Cognitive complexity decreases 2-4 weeks to 3 months before violent action by national leaders; and
- Cognitive complexity decreases when attacked.

A well-developed methodology has been vetted in the academic literature and has accompanying online learning resources, supported by an active community of scholars. We found that this methodology was easily trainable and required no special educational background. Its data outputs were easily analyzed with simple statistics, and the resulting data were easily and intuitively interpretable. Academic research indicates that analysis can be done in the vernacular of the research subject(s) or on translations, although we believe that this issue should be further researched and verified.

Our initial effort included a proof-of-concept demonstration of the method and results. Our case study concerned the cognitive complexity of Syrian President Bashar al Assad before the assassination of former Lebanese Prime Minister Rafic Hariri. United Nation’s investigations have left open the possibility of Syrian knowledge of or involvement in the assassination plan. Our case study demonstrates a successful implementation of the methodology. The cognitive complexity of Syrian President Bashar al Assad decreased weeks before the assassination of the former Lebanese Prime Minister Rafic Hariri, as predicted.

While our review of this methodology and proof-of-concept were successful, we identified several areas of future research that would be advisable before this methodology were implemented in actual analysis. As noted in the literature review component of this report, there remain many unknowns regarding the applicability of this methodology in proactive fashion. While this case study illustrates the utility of cognitive complexity scoring in a non-traditional context, it does not address issues relating to predictive application of this approach, nor does it address the issue of disentangling potential cognitive complexity modulating stimuli. Future research should attempt to clarify the connection between sourcing (whether there is a persistent
difference between speeches and interviews), target audience (whether an Arab leader speaking to a Western audience has significantly different complexity), and word count as well as other issues relating to the optimal periodicity of data collection and the potential for this method to be used predictively.

In conclusion, cognitive complexity is a methodology that has been validated in the academic literature, is imminently trainable, and is potentially applicable to a wide range of both state and non-state actors. We recommend supporting further research on the methodology to resolve unanswered questions and to tailor this method to topics of interest and the workflow of analysts.

5.13 Areas for Further Research

Beyond these initial areas of concern, there are additional questions that can and should be answered by ongoing research following the initial testing and training phases. These questions include:

- **How refined is cognitive complexity?** Does cognitive complexity drop in all realms, i.e., do speeches on different topics during the same time period reflect similar levels of change in cognitive complexity? Additionally, are there specific topics of discussion or modes of delivery that provide unreliable data (e.g., a blog entry rather than an editorial)? Likewise, are there certain topics that consistently result in low or high complexity scores? (e.g., do discussions of religion generally result in low or high complexity scores, etc.?)

- **What content is usable?** Does this methodology transfer well to personal communications rather than publicly-made statements? Although Suedfeld & Granatstein (1995) and Suedfeld & Porter (1981) have retrospectively evaluated cognitive complexity in journal entries, personal memoirs, and personal correspondence, it has not been definitively established whether this method can be fruitfully applied to personal correspondence of target officials predictively.

- **Can conversations between individuals be used?** Can cognitive complexity be applied to dialogues between individuals? Or does it only work in disconnected situations where speakers are somewhat distanced from their audience and/or making an effort at impression management, such as in speeches, interviews, or letters?

- **Are there language- or culture-specific influences on the scoring of cultural complexity?** While multiple sources show that scoring documents as translations does not alter the research finding (Suedfeld & Tetlock, 1977; Suedfeld & Leighton, 2002), it would be useful to evaluate any additional nuance garnered by scorers trained in the source language. Are there any cultural differences that are systematically apparent across research subjects?

- **What is the minimum staff required?** In the literature, researchers always have at least two readers read each text and score it, with disparities discussed to ensure score-validity and reliability. Are two distinct readers truly necessary? What is gained by having more scorers? What is lost by having fewer?
5.14 Annotated Cognitive/Integrative Complexity Bibliography


- Increases in the cognitive complexity of key Arab and Israeli [or any] policymakers are associated with shifts toward more cooperative state behavior, and decreases are often associated with outright conflict. This research looked at public statements, speeches, and utterances of Arab and Israeli leaders during the 1970s, and formalized cognitive maps using adjacency matrices and matrix multiplication, rather than a 7-point scale (following Maoz, 1987, and Moaz and Astorino, 1992).


- Training manual for cognitive complexity scoring: demonstrates the methodology with basic rules for reaching cognitive complexity scores and multiple examples. Each score is also illustrated with a prototypical sample that matches many of the rules outlined in each scoring section.


- Applies cognitive complexity research to the domestic political setting of Poland and determined that politicians with less advanced cognitive skills tend to hold more competitive attitudes, while those with higher, more advanced cognitive skills tend to use cooperative attitudes in a neutral scenario and sought to avoid further involvement after an emotional attack.


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23 Annotations are provided for the most insightful/useful articles in the literature reviewed.
• Found that significant declines in complexity occurred from 1946 to 1962 only in the immediate intervals prior to the two major crises over Berlin.


• Using archival documents from nine international crises in the twentieth century that culminated in a surprise attack, the researchers found that attackers showed declines in complexity between three months and 2-4 weeks before the attack. Attacked nations increased in complexity between 2-4 weeks prior to the surprise attack, dropping to approximately the same level as the attacker on and immediately after the day of the attack. The authors conclude that a "drop in the integrative complexity of the communications issued by an opposing government thus may be one predictor of imminent strategic surprise."


• In this study, the authors score complexity in messages from selected leaders prior to the 9/11 attacks and a month after those attacks. This study represents the first application of integrative complexity scoring to hostilities other than state actors or civil wars.


- Concluded that changes in integrative complexity provided a good early warning sign of the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait. "Dovish" leaders showed higher levels of complexity than their more "hawkish" counterparts. This research further confirmed the "general proposition that reductions in the integrative complexity of leaders' communications provide a useful indicator of the presence of disruptive stress during a crisis."


6.0 OTHER APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Since issues of grievance, relative deprivation and cooperativeness have emerged as important themes in studies of insurgency, terrorism and social conflict, we were tasked to search for ways that discourse has been used to measure these social phenomena. We did not find discourse-related methods that explicitly measure grievance, relative deprivation and cooperativeness, although different forms of the analysis of discourse are used to provide insight into cultures and peoples.

From the literature, several example analyses of the discourse of insurgency, terrorism, and social conflict stood out. These studies include:

- Richard Jackson’s critical discourse analysis of War on Terror speeches and documents
- Tom Johnson’s narrative analysis of Taliban night letters (*shabnamah*)
- George Lakoff’s analysis of how political discourse reveals categorization schemes
- Joseba Zulaika and William A. Douglass’s ethnographic perspective on the study of terror

These studies may provide alternate approaches to understanding of a culture, or subculture, through its discourse. The summary that follows is not meant to be a comprehensive literature review of published analyses of the discourse surrounding insurgency, terrorism and social conflict. Rather, it provides other possible directions to be explored.

Richard Jackson explored the way that Western media and governments construct a discourse regarding “terrorism,” in order to uncover how the media and governments manipulate people through the language they use (such as “terrorism is war”). Jackson examined approximately 300 texts from political speeches of Western leaders, writings of think tanks, and academic writings from a critical discourse analysis perspective, focusing on the way that “terrorism” is constructed in the West. Jackson’s methodology is similar to ours and demonstrates how critical discourse analyses on specific topics can provide insight regarding how people understand the world and also how they construct the world for their audiences, through their ideologies.

Tom Johnson’s study of Taliban night letters (*shabnamah*) focuses on how the Taliban reaches the Afghan people through invoking historically important figures and themes, as well as the medium of Pashtun poetics. He explores the Taliban’s culturally attuned messages and instructions to the Afghan people through an approach to discourse known as narrative analysis. The key themes he identifies include:

- Resistance to foreign “invaders”
- Cosmic struggle between the righteous (Taliban Muslims) and the infidel (Karzai government)
- Foreigners as crusaders
- Self-sacrifice for Afghanistan
• Fighting for honor
• Support for the enemy being prohibited

Through his narrative analysis of Taliban *shabnamah*, Johnson provides an understanding of Taliban world view; he then teases out its implication for the continued conflict in Afghanistan. Narrative analyses can identify the cultural touchstones and repeating content themes that people in a culture accept and share.

George Lakoff identifies the categories that underlie language and allow people to structure their worlds and construct meaning. The main thrust of his work explores basic conceptual metaphors such as “argument-as-war” (e.g., “I demolished his argument”; “your claims are indefensible”; “he shot me down”). Lakoff also applies his analysis of metaphors to American political discourse. His goal is to understand why certain clusters of viewpoints combine as conservative/liberal viewpoints (such as opposition to abortion but support for the death penalty) and why each side sees the other as largely incoherent. Lakoff argues that all the differences center around the central metaphor of “nation-as-family”, and that conservatives and liberals have different conceptualizations of the role and nature of “family.” His analysis of the two forms of a single shared underlying conceptual metaphor explains why people regularly see the coherence only in their own amalgam of positions. His conceptual metaphor approach, while not discourse analysis per se, can provide insight into the cognitive structures through which individual people understand their world, and provide insight into the common threads that bind positions together in a way that may seem contradictory to an outsider.

Additionally, a study of terrorism from an anthropological viewpoint contributes an alternate method of interpretation regarding the study of terrorism. In “Terror and Taboo: The Follies, Fables and Face of Terrorism,” Joseba Zulaika and William A. Douglass present an ethnographic perspective on the study of terror. They attempt to get at the shared myths and symbols of the West that “terrorism” relates to and is understood through. Zulaika and Douglass also explore the allure of the terrorist to the general population: they are equivalent to “witches, shamans, [and] tricksters” as beyond the realm of ordinary humankind. This study reveals the shared myths and symbols through which such a topic is understood in a society.

In summary, we found no case where a well-defined and explicit language-based methodology was used to measure grievance, relative deprivation or cooperativeness. However, in the literature we reviewed, we found examples of discourse analyses that can identify major cultural themes and the way in which individuals make sense of their world.

6.1 Other Discourse Analysis Methods Bibliography


APPENDIX A: Discourse Analysis: A Historical Primer

Discourse analysis is an extremely broad and cross-disciplinary field. The study of discourse focuses on the meanings and structures within written, oral and even visual communication, and the field has sources in many disciplines, including philosophy, anthropology, and sociology, to name only a few fields. The realms in which discourse analysis techniques are applied are yet broader.

This primer provides an introduction to key concepts relevant to primarily written discourse involving expressions of in-group and out-group attitudes. It is not a comprehensive review of the field of discourse analysis. This review will use the work of influential scholars in the history and development of discourse analysis to structure this presentation and present the historical development of key discourse analysis concepts, grouped into sections on Foundational Thought, Theoretical Approaches to Discourse, Discourse Phenomena Used in Analyses, and Significant Applications and Findings. It also contains a Glossary.

Foundational Thought

Rhetorical Strategies (Aristotle) (ca. 350 B.C.)

Aristotle provided a basic schema for analyzing discourse over 2000 years ago, positing three rhetorical strategies for argumentation:

- **Ethos** – appeal to ethics/credibility
- **Pathos** – appeal to emotion
- **Logos** – appeal to logic/reasoning

Elements of these strategies can be found in later discourse schema (i.e. Teun van Dijk, page 81).

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Aristotle’s key work in this area was *Rhetoric*, available at http://classics.mit.edu/Aristotle/rhetoric.html.

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Structuralism & Semiotics (Ferdinand de Saussure) (1857-1913)

Saussure established many of the foundations of modern linguistics. His key insight was that language could be studies as a formal system, analyzable in terms of its elements (the **structuralist** approach to linguistics in particular traces its roots back to Saussure).

Saussure differentiated the elements of the linguistic **sign** (a discrete unit of meaning that conveys information to others), which he decomposed into the **signifier** (the “shape” of a word, such as the sequence of letters or sounds, which is arbitrary), the **signified** (the idea that appears in our minds when given the signifier – not synonymous with the **referent**, or the actual object in
the world pointed out by the signifier). The distinction drawn by Saussure between the signifier and the signified is fundamental to work in the linguistic and philosophic subfield of **semiotics**, or the study of sign systems and meaning.

Saussure noticed the difference between the speech of daily life or speech-in-context (*la parole*), which may contain missteps or even mistakes, and the shared abstract system of a language (*la langue*), a distinction central to today’s linguistics and sociolinguistics, of which discourse analysis is a part. According to Saussure, *parole* emerges from the individual and is subject to the practical requirements of speaking on the fly, whereas *langue* constitutes the shared rules of a language and is regulated (unknowingly) by the group’s language conventions.

Saussure’s key work was *Course in General Linguistics (Cours de linguistique générale)*, published posthumously in 1916.

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Tagmemics, Etics, and Emics (Kenneth Pike)
(1912 – 2000; primary affiliation: University of Michigan, Summer Institutes in Linguistics)

Pike’s **tagmemic discourse theory** is founded upon axioms about human behavior and language use that emphasize the influence of social context on all communication, and the inseparable interactions of communicators, their audiences, and the varied worlds they construct through the use of language. Pike drew a distinction between *emics*, the subjective understanding of language possessed by native speakers, and *etics*, the objective, scientific analysis of language. (To take a non-social example, few native English speakers perceive a distinction between the *n* in *ten* and in *tenth*; although there is an objective, etic, difference, the two sounds are subjectively the same within English.) Pike stressed the necessity of studying language in its social context, in contrast to those who study independent sentences within language for their syntax, without additional context.


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Systemic Functional Grammar (Michael Halliday)
(1925 – present; primary affiliation: University of Sydney)

Halliday developed **systemic functional grammar** in the 1960s, which one approach to understanding human language. Systemic functional grammar is meaning-focused; it looks to understand how the continuous emission of sounds/characters construes meaning that can be understood. It views language as a network of systems for making sense, and focuses on the meaning of words, sentences and paragraphs, rather than on formalizing the ways in which nouns and verbs come together within a particular clause. Systemic functional grammar is concerned with the many choices that the grammar gives speakers and writers and how they choose between them. Language is analyzed in three different ways (“strata”): **semantics** (meaning), **phonology** (form of the sound), and **lexicogrammar** (words and structure).

### Theoretical Approaches to Discourse

Numerous threads of discourse analysis were spawned in the mid-20th century, as social and philosophical theorists began to investigate the role of language in the topic in which they were most interested. Each approach formalized its own methods of thinking about language use, as well as rules and frameworks describing how people can understand interaction. Below we address four of numerous such approaches: interactional sociolinguistics (grown out of sociology), ethnography of communication and ethnomethodology (grown out of anthropology), variationism (grown out of linguistics), and critical discourse analysis (grown from interdisciplinary roots with focus on power relations).

#### Interactional Sociolinguistics

John Gumperz  
(1922 – present; primary affiliations: University of California Berkeley, University of California Santa Barbara)

Gumperz is a linguistic anthropologist who contributed to the approach to understanding discourse known as interactional sociolinguistics. Interactional sociolinguistics emphasizes the importance of social context and expectations/presuppositions on language interpretation. Although people may share the same grammatical knowledge, they may still differently contextualize what is said (missing or misreading contextualization cues, such as rising intonation that signals a request for encouragement, or code-switching to another language/dialect/level of formality that invokes new cultural associations (c.f. Myers-Scotton (page 88)). As a result of non-shared context, individuals may understand very different messages.

Gumperz’s key publications include *Directions in Sociolinguistics: The Ethnography of Communication* with Dell Hymes, as well as “Social Meaning in Linguistic Structures” with Jan-Petter Blom.

Erving Goffman  
(1922 – 1982; primary affiliations: University of California Berkeley, University of Pennsylvania)

Goffman is a sociologist; his discourse analysis also contributed to the interactional sociolinguistics approach. Goffman is known for symbolic interactionism, the concept that people act toward things (symbols) and that they derive meaning from their interaction with these symbols and others. He coined the dramaturgical perspective, which posits that one’s self is a social/interactive construction, acted out in relation to specific time, place and audience. Goffman theorized that the maintenance of self and face (the presentation of self which an
individual would like to project for others) is built into the fabric of social interaction; the concepts of **negative face** and **positive face** are particularly important in the politeness theory put forward by Brown and Levinson (page 85). Goffman’s work on **frames** was also a precursor to many framing theories.

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Goffman’s early work *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* was published in 1959, and his perspective on frames, *Frame Analysis*, was published in 1974.

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**Ethnographic Approaches**

Dell Hymes
(1927 – present; primary affiliations: Harvard, University of California Berkeley, University of Pennsylvania)

Hymes was the key figure in the creation of the approach to discourse analysis known as the **ethnography of communication**. This approach applies ethnographic methods to understand the communication patterns of a group. It insists that no detail of a conversation or piece of discourse can be neglected as unimportant *a priori*, and that discourse analysis must be done on the vernacular – not on translations.

As part of his work on the ethnography of communication, Hymes developed the **SPEAKING grid**. The SPEAKING method is a classificatory grid that offers a methodology for decomposing the potential components of discourse. Through such decomposition it becomes possible to discover “what counts” as communicative events within a particular culture – that is, the taxonomy of bound “units” of discourse within a particular community.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>setting (physical circumstances) &amp; scene (subjective definition of an occasion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>ends (purposes &amp; goals, outcomes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>act sequence (message form &amp; content)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>key (tone, manner)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>instrumentalities (channel, forms, styles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>norms of interaction &amp; interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>genre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Hymes’ key publication was his 1974 *Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach*. His SPEAKING grid was introduced in a 1972 chapter “Models of the interaction of language and social life,” in Gumperz and Hyme’s book *Directions in Sociolinguistics: the Ethnography of Communication*.

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Harold Garfinkel
(1917 – present; primary affiliation: University of California Los Angeles)
Harold Garfinkel is a sociologist who developed ethnomethodology. Ethnomethodology is the description of the ways in which people make sense of their world, display that understanding to others, and produce a sense of social order. Conversation, which has order and manifests its own sense of structure, plays an important part in this process. Garfinkel stressed that socio-cultural background information influences discourse and its interpretation; it fills in what is left unsaid. He also emphasized the indexicality (the notion that an utterance only refers to some state of affairs) of language, and that the interpretation of what is said depends on the context, or setting, in which it is spoken. Garfinkel’s ethnomethodology became the basis for additional significant work specifically regarding conversations, now known as conversation analysis.

Garfinkel’s key publication is his 1967 Studies in ethnomethodology.

Variationist Approach

William Labov
(1927 – present; primary affiliation: University of Pennsylvania)

Labov is the father of variation analysis, an approach to discourse that quantitatively identifies how texts are structured, analyzes text-level semantically-equivalent variants, and addresses how text constrains other forms. One of the main tasks in variation analysis is to discover constraints on alternative realizations of underlying forms (car vs. automobile, Mary vs. she vs. the child’s mother, going vs. goin’, It’s easy for him to talk vs. For him to talk is easy), through counting the circumstances in which each appears in natural data.


Critical Discourse Analysis

Teun van Dijk
(1943 – present; primary affiliation: Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona)

Teun van Dijk has been a major proponent of critical discourse analysis, which is a qualitative approach to defining rhetorical devices used in creating and maintaining unequal power relations between groups. Since the 1980s, van Dijk’s work has focused on racism. He has proposed a categorization schema of 27 rhetorical devices used in discourse to create in-group/out-group distinctions of inequality. Key to many of these devices is the derogation of out-group members and speaking positively about in-group members.

Fundamental to van Dijk’s work is the idea that social power is control (for instance, control of scarce social resources such as force, money, status, fame, information, etc.). Social power also
has an effect on discourse: the groups that control the most influential discourse also have the most chances to control the minds and actions of others.

Van Dijk notes that studies have revealed remarkable similarity between verbal derogation across discourse types, media, and national boundaries, and he lists a number of areas and the typical racist discourse of them (for instance, people tend to hesitate and repair their conversation when mentioning the out-group).

Van Dijk’s studies of racist discourse demonstrate that:

- Public elite discourses are crucially involved in the (re)production of racism
- Elites translate popular confusion/resentment into racist discourse that enables them to retain their own power and status (e.g. unemployment blamed on immigrants rather than political/economic decisions)
- Discourse about minorities/immigrants has topics usually limited to: difference, deviance and threat
- Positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation (as opposed to negative information about self or positive information about others) tends to be explicit, precise, specific, asserted (not presupposed through nominalizations or other means), detailed (not dealt with in abstractions)
- Headlines are important – heavily tend to emphasize the negative characteristics of minorities, diminish Our responsibility for negative actions
- Typically, negative information about Us will not be topicalized (and vice versa), where topicalization is the movement of the topic to the beginning of the sentence
- Negative Other representations are correlated with being: selected, emphasized, explicit, detailed, specific, direct, blatant
- Positive Self representations are correlated with: mitigations, disclaimers, denials
- Presentation of knowledge as “generally shared” works to persuade the audience of the general validity of one’s group “knowledge” (which is seen by others as merely attitude/ideology)
- Speech acts (see Searle (page 84)) and rhetorical questions may express political identity/relationships
- Further enhancements of biased propositions through: exaggeration, numbers, contrast, and metaphor, etc.

Methodologically, van Dijk stresses the use of multi-modal texts (language, visual, etc.) for capturing the full meaning of a discourse. Through analysis according to the four-quadrant framework of Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90), it is possible to identify what a particular culture accepts as “given” vs. “new”, and what they accept as “real” vs. “ideal”. Van Dijk also stresses that, to unify CDA analyses, it is necessary to unite the macro and micro (e.g. through examining relations of members-groups, actions-process, context-social structure, personal and social cognition.)
Van Dijk’s key publications include *Discourse as Structure and Process*, “Discourse and Racism,” “Political Discourse and Political Cognition,” and “Critical Discourse Analysis”.

Ruth Wodak  
(secondary affiliation: Lancaster University)

Wodak, alongside a number of colleagues, elaborated the discourse historical approach within critical discourse analysis, which analyzes the change in discourse practices over time and in various genres. This approach is doggedly interdisciplinary, multi-methodological, and uses empirical data as well as background information.

A paper applying this approach to racist discourse (below) advises people to determine the specific contents of a discourse (its topics), and then investigate the discursive strategies used on those topics. After the strategies are identified, the linguistics means should be investigated (as types, or a general “sort of thing”), followed by the specific linguistic realizations (as tokens, or particular and countable instances of types) of the discriminatory stereotypes. Analysts are urged to play close attention to:

- Naming and reference
- Attributions of traits/characteristics
- Arguments/argumentation schemes used to justify/legitimate the discrimination
- The perspective from which views are expressed
- Manner of articulation (overt, intensified, mitigated, etc.)

Wodak’s key overview publication is “Discourse and Racism” in the 2003 *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*.

**Discourse Phenomena Used In Analyses**

There are numerous phenomena in discourse that recur in analyses from any of these approaches. Some approaches are more tightly bound or related to the use of certain phenomena; however, any phenomenon is ripe for analysis – from the tracking of how references are invoked, to the web of interconnections evoked in a particular stretch of discourse, to the meanings grammatically encoded in the layout of a page, and many more. Highlighted below are those that are particularly useful, or that are closely connected with one of the theoretical approaches to discourse analysis summarized in the previous section.

**Linguistic Phenomena**

Conversational Maxims & Pragmatics (Paul Grice)  
(1913 – 1988; primary affiliation: University of California Berkeley)

Grice, a philosopher of language, worked in the area of pragmatics, or the study of how we are able to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. His work, like Pike’s (page 78), is
founded on axioms of human linguistic behavior. Grice’s prime universal axiom is the **cooperative principle**: “Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.” In other words, people make contributions to conversations that are appropriate and that serve to carry the conversation forward, and others expect this behavior; without that cooperation, interaction is quickly meaningless.

The cooperative principle can be divided into four maxims (**conversational maxims**, also **Gricean maxims**) that describe specific principles that enable effective communication:

- **Maxim of Quality** – be truthful
- **Maxim of Quantity** – be informative\(^{24}\)
- **Maxim of Relation** – be relevant
- **Maxim of Manner** – be clear

Breaking or bending the maxims results in **conversational implicatures** of additional meaning. For instance, if A asks, “Where is Paul?” and B answers, “He is dating someone in New York,” B’s response does not obey the maxim of relation (the statement is not directly relevant). However, because A and B obey the cooperative principle, A is able to understand B’s implicature: B thinks Paul is in New York.

Grice’s key publications in this area include “Logic and Conversation” (published in 1975) and “Further Notes on Logic and Conversation” (published in 1978). Both works are reprinted in the collection of most of Grice’s important works *Studies in the Way of Words*, by Harvard University Press in 1989.

Politeness Maxims (Geoffrey Leech)

(primary affiliation: Lancaster University)

As part of some of his work in **pragmatics**, Leech defined politeness as forms of behavior that establish and maintain the ability of participants to engage in interaction with an atmosphere of relative harmony. He defined six **politeness maxims** that he asserted individuals follow to ensure harmony:

- **Maxim of Tact** – “Minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other; maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other.”
- **Maxim of Generosity** – “Minimize the expression of benefit to self; maximize the expression of cost to self.”

\(^{24}\) Elinor Ochs Keenan noted that Gricean maxims are not necessarily universal. The maxim of quantity (be informative) is regularly violated in conversations in certain areas of Madagascar without resulting in any implicatures, due to different cultural standards of conversation. At the conclusion of that article, Ochs Keenan underlines the need to investigate the specific situational constraints operating in each society that undergird the use of the maxims. See: Ochs Keenan, E. (1976). The universality of conversational postulates. *Language in Society*, 5(1), 67-80.
- **Maxim of Approbation** – “Minimize the expression of beliefs which express dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other.”
- **Maxim of Modesty** – “Minimize the expression of praise of self; maximize the expression of dispraise of self.”
- **Maxim of Agreement** – “Minimize the expression of disagreement between self and other; maximize the expression of agreement between self and other.”
- **Maxim of Sympathy** – “Minimize antipathy between self and other; maximize sympathy between self and other.”

The politeness maxims are not universal, and what is polite in one culture may be strange or rude in another.

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Leech’s key publication in this area is *Principles of Pragmatics*, 1983.

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Politeness (Penelope Brown & Stephen C. Levinson)
(secondary affiliation: Brown/Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics; Levinson/Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics)

Social anthropologists Brown and Levinson identified two different kinds of politeness, derived from Goffman’s concept of *face* (page 79). **Negative politeness** can be understood as “showing respect” and corresponds to **negative face** (the desire for autonomy/freedom from imposition). Negative politeness can be used to make a request seem less infringing (through use of apologetic language, honorifics, **indirect speech acts** and hints, **hedging** to avoid disagreement, showing deference, etc.).

**Positive politeness**, on the other hand, can be understood as “showing solidarity” and corresponds to **positive face** (the desire for connection with others). Positive politeness stakes a claim for a degree of familiarity between the speakers (through finding **common ground**, hedging to avoid presuming, demonstrating shared **in-group** status by using familiar terms of address, slang, jargon, contractions/ellipses of information, or the in-group language or dialect, etc.).

Brown and Levinson outlined numerous strategies for achieving these different levels of politeness. The use of these strategies varies by language; for instance, Atawneh’s 1991 dissertation finds that Arabic employs fewer modals as **hedges** than does English, and instead substitutes other politeness strategies. Although they present the theory as universal, its universality has been criticized, especially by linguists working with East-Asian languages such as Japanese.

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Brown and Levinson’s key publication in this area is *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Use* (published in 1987).
Speech Acts (John Searle)  
(1932 – present; primary affiliation: University of California Berkeley)  

Searle is a philosopher whose early work focused on the philosophy of language, and specifically on speech acts, or the class of words that perform an action simply by pronouncing the word (speech act verbs include “promise,” “dare,” “apologize,” and “nominate”). He notes that there are felicity conditions that must be met in order for a speech act to be valid (“felicitous”) – for instance, only a minister can pronounce a couple “man and wife” and have that be an act rather than simply speech.

Searle distinguishes between illocutionary force and propositional content of an utterance, following J. L. Austin in this distinction. For instance, the sentences (Searle 1969, 22):

1. Sam smokes habitually.  
2. Does Sam smoke habitually?  
3. Sam, smoke habitually!  
4. Would that Sam smoke habitually!

each contain the same propositional content (Sam smoking) but differ in the illocutionary force indicated (a statement, a question, a command and an expression of desire, respectively). People commonly use expressions that indicate one speech act, but actually contain the illocutionary force of another speech act. These are indirect speech acts. For instance, “John, can you reach the window?” is a question speech act; however, its force is a request to change the state of the window (to open or close it).

In intentionality, Searle stresses the relation between mental states or meanings and their associated objects, and the importance of the Background, a collection of presuppositions shared between speakers that enables their speech to be mutually intelligible (similar to anthropologist Pierre Bourdieu’s notion of habitus).

Searle’s key publications include Speech Acts (published in 1969) and Intentionality (published in 1983).

Transitivity and Foregrounding (Paul Hopper & Sandra A. Thompson)  
(primary affiliations: Hopper/University of California Los Angeles, Thompson/SUNY Binghamton)

Transitivity is the property of a clause such that an activity is transferred from an agent to another agent. Transitivity is a central relation in human languages in general. A more active clause is characterized by a more active transfer (active voice, volitional, potent, affected, individuated), and is more transitive. High transitivity is associated with foregrounding, and can be used to identify key concepts of concern in discourse.
Hopper and Thompson’s key reference is “Transitivity in Grammar and Discourse,” which was published in *Language* in 1980.

Reference Tracking (Talmy Givon)  
(1936 – present; primary affiliation: University of Oregon)

Talmy Givon is one of the founders of **functional grammar**, which analyzes discourse in terms of three primary functions: **semantic functions** that describe states of affairs and relations between entities, **syntactic functions** that define subject/object relations, and **pragmatic functions** that define the status of entities based on the context of discourse. Givon provides a general methodology for **reference tracking** (tracking the occurrence of a word or theme throughout a discourse) in order to identify key concepts in a particular discourse.


Pronoun Tracking (Michael Halliday)  
(1925 – present; primary affiliation: University of Sydney)

Halliday’s **systemic functional grammar** (page 78) was one of the first grammars to codify the well-recognized linguistic pattern of starting from known information and moving to new information. Halliday discussed this phenomenon in terms of the **theme** (known or **given** information) and the **rhemé** (new information). Discourse progresses from the theme to the rheme – that is, from given/known information to new information, which is based on the old information.

Through this distinction, Halliday laid the groundwork for much future research on how linguistic cues betray the source’s assumptions about the level of audience familiarity with a subject through pronoun choice. At the “low familiarity” end of the spectrum are descriptive noun phrases in which extensive information about meaning is given directly. At the “higher familiarity” end of the spectrum we find entities such as pronouns. (Pronouns convey little meaning; they are limited to indicating gender (*he* vs. *she*), number (*he* vs. *them*), animacy (*she* vs. *it*), and case (*they* vs. *them*).) As a result, when pronouns appear in the theme, or the first part of a sentence, the speaker/writer believes the hearer will be able to infer the entities that are being referred to. (These entities are mainly those that are recent and topical in the text, and therefore part of the **common ground** shared between the speaker and the hearer – c.f. Clark 1992).

Halliday’s key reference regarding systemic functional grammar is *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, whose third edition was published in 2004.
Supra-Textual Phenomena

Code-Switching (Carol Myers-Scotton)
(1934 – present; primary affiliations: University of South Carolina/Michigan State University)

Myers-Scotton is best known for her studies on code-switching, the use of multiple language varieties in the same stretch of discourse, with her specific focus on the Bantu languages of Eastern and Southern Africa. Her work theorizes on both the social motivations for code-switching and the grammatical constraints on code-switching. According to the markedness model, language users choose a language that marks their rights and obligations relative to others in the conversational setting. Often there is an unmarked choice, but when there isn’t, code-switching occurs to explore the possibilities (for instance, when outside the home and speaking to a sibling, someone may choose the language of the greater culture rather than the language spoken in the home to distance their relationship and invoke non-sibling roles). According to the matrix language frame model, code-switched utterances have one dominant language at work; although content morphemes can belong to any language, “system morphemes” (like determiners, prepositions, and intensifier adverbs) must all belong to the matrix language.

Myers-Scotton’s key references are Duelling Languages (1993) and Social Motivations for Code-Switching (1993).

Intertextuality (Norman Fairclough)
(1941 – present; primary affiliation: Lancaster University)

Fairclough, along with Teun van Dijk (page 81), is a primary proponent of critical discourse analysis (CDA). In addition to stressing the ways in which power relations affect the content and structure of writing, Fairclough stresses the intertextual nature of discourse, or the manner in which a particular discourse evokes other discourses.

Fairclough cites the distinction used by French discourse analysts into manifest (explicit presence of other texts) and constitutive intertextuality (configuration of discourse conventions) (c.f. Autheir-Revuz 1982 and Maingueneau 1987). Fairclough discusses manifest intertextuality in relation to: discourse representation (which may represent style/context of utterances as well as message content), presupposition, negation, metadiscourse (which he notes is most common in discourse types where there is a premium on displaying oneself as in control), and irony, whose use varies by discourse type. He pays special attention to the role of ambiguity in intertextuality; he discusses an example of “double-voicing” in which who is voicing a headline is unclear, as well as examining how multiple conflicting discourse types manifest themselves into an integrated whole. Fairclough notes that news media have been broadly shifting to act as “mediators” between officials and their documents to popular speech, as newspapers become more consumer-focused, and begin affecting the ideological work of transmitting the voices of power in a disguised and covert form that is more acceptable to mainstream readers; this points to other works on CDA of news.

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Particular linguistic features utilized by Fairclough that may prove useful in creating a list for future analysis include: subject matter, use of references (names/direct second-person address/other references we can track – see Talmy Givon (page 87)), tenses, hedging, nominalization (which can be used both for presupposition and hedging), scare quotes, verb choice (reporting with speech act verbs imposes an interpretation on represented discourse – see Searle (page 84)), definite articles, negation, marking texts as belonging to other texts/other conventions, metaphors and how they are marked, paraphrase/reformulation of expression (which enables semantic engineering).

Fairclough’s work on intertextuality references earlier scholarship such as Bakhtin, who found heteroglossia/multiple meanings in each text, and Kristeva, who coined the term “intertextuality” (1966) and distinguished between “horizontal intertextuality” (primary texts that are more or less explicitly linked, e.g. genre, character, content) vs. “vertical” (primary text and other texts of a different type that refer explicitly to it) intertextuality.

Fairclough’s key references in intertextuality include the chapter “Intertextuality” in his 1992 book Discourse and Social Change, as well as “Linguistic and Intertextual Analysis within Discourse Analysis.”

Metaphor (George Lakoff)
(1941 – present; primary affiliation: University of California Berkeley)

Lakoff’s work most relevant to discourse analysis is his work on the way metaphor constructs meaning in language. He argues that meaning is derived from overlapping metaphors that people creatively use in order to extend and fill out the meaning of discourse (for instance, much of our discourse around “argument” reflects an understanding of it as “a struggle”, and much of our discourse around “anger” reflects an understanding of it as “a hot fluid in an enclosed container”); these conceptual metaphors are fundamental to our thought patterns. Lakoff’s work on categorization is also relevant to discourse analysis. It is founded on the notion that categories are based on prototypical examples (e.g. “robin” as prototypical bird) upon which radial categories of elements who bear a “family resemblance” are constructed whose elements become less and less prototypical, and that can even overlap with other categories (e.g. Ostreich as bird-like).


Semiotics

Although this section is not properly within the realm of linguistics, it is nevertheless within the multi-disciplinary approach of discourse analysis. Semiotics deals with the way in which
meanings are produced and understood within a culture through symbols, which are most often construed to be verbal or visual.

Social Semiotics (Michael Halliday)
(1925 – present; primary affiliation: University of Sydney)

Halliday’s influence extends beyond linguistics into the study of visual and multimodal communication: he also founded the field of social semiotics. Languages and other systems of communication for Halliday emerge as systems of “meaning potential” – sets of resources for a speaker/writer within a given social context. There are grammars that govern communication such that the audience can understand; these grammars are seen as socially formed and changeable, and they are shaped by three semiotic metafunctions identified by Halliday for systemic functional grammar: ideational (ideas being expressed), interpersonal (the manner of expression), and textual (internal organization of the text).

Visual Semiotics (Gunther Kress & Theo van Leeuwen)
(primary affiliations: Kress/University of London, van Leeuwen/University of Technology, Sydney)

Kress and van Leeuwen are two of the main developers of the field of social semiotics. In particular, Kress and van Leeuwen have built on the approach to grammar presented by Michael Halliday to formalize a visual grammar of English – that is, they are leaders in visual semiotics, or the way in which visual elements are arranged in Western culture such that we understand particular meanings. The rules by which we do this are shared but often-unarticulated, and are learned socially. Kress and van Leeuwen’s work on visual semiotics offers an analysis of Western visual metaphor that we take for granted.

Kress and van Leeuwen formalize the use of space in the West into four interpretive quadrants. On the left for cultures that write left-to-right, we find “given” information (information that is already known by the audience). “New” information appears on the right. This follows the tendency of languages to always move from “given” to “new” information, a fact that has been known in the field of linguistics for many years. They then note that the top of a field is the place for the “ideal”, and the bottom of a field is the place for the “real.” This can be clearly seen in Western religious art, for instance. As a result, a page or artwork can be divided into four interpretive quadrants that express what, for example, the writers take for granted as an ideal, or think of as new information about reality. (They also formalize other realms of visual representations, such as social distance, relations of power, and so on.)

Kress and van Leeuwen’s key reference is Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design, which was published in its second edition in 2006.
Significant Applications and Findings

Interpersonal Communication

Women & Men (Deborah Tannen)
(1945 – present; primary affiliation: Georgetown University)

Tannen is famous for her general-audience books on interpersonal communication using an interactional sociolinguistics framework. Her work on how women and men communicate has been especially well-received. Tannen sees men as growing up in a world in which conversation is a contest whose goal is to gain the upper hand (or at least to avoid being pushed around). In other words, men see the world as a place where people try to achieve and maintain status. For women, she asserts, conversation is rather a way to exchange confirmation or support; they see a network of connections needing support and consensus. Each approach to reality is reflected in the conversational patterns of women and men. As a result, men and women often interpret the same exchange differently, which can lead to conflict and misunderstandings (such as men offering solutions when women voice problems, rather than offering the emotional support the woman intended to engender by opening the conversation).

Tannen’s key publication in this area is You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation, published in 1990.

Narrative Analysis

Narrative Structural Segments (William Labov)
(1927 – present; primary affiliation: University of Pennsylvania)

In addition to being the father of variation analysis, Labov also pioneered the study of narrative structure and studies of language and class in New York City, focusing on African-American Vernacular English (AAVE). Through variation analysis, Labov identified the most typical English oral narrative structure as:

1. Abstract (what was this about?/short description of point of narrative)
3. Complication (then what happened?)
4. Evaluation (so what?)
5. Result (what finally happened?)
6. Coda (returns the listener to the present, ties narrative back into previous state of conversation to enable the listener to respond and continue discussion)

There is additional substructure within each of these categories. This structure is not universal, but different languages do tend to have similar structuring.

Labov’s key publications include “The Transformation of Experience in Narrative.”
Organizing Dimensions of Narrative (Elinor Ochs Keenan & Lisa Capps)
(primary affiliations: Ochs Keenan/University of California Los Angeles; Capps/University of California Berkeley)

Anthropological linguist Ochs Keenan and psychologist Capps have also worked on narrative structure. Ochs Keenan and Capps proposes that narratives are organized around five dimensions that account for the ways in which everyday narratives are related around the world:

- **tellership** (narrative as social activity between potentially-many active tellers),
- **tellability** (some narratives are more notable than others; tellability depends on goals, teller’s rhetorical skills, and social sensibilities),
- **embeddedness** (boundaries between personal narrative and other discourse are permeable; narrative may be woven into prayer, classroom instruction, etc., and narrative will be influenced by these other genres),
- **linearity** (desire to sheathe life experience with soothing linearity vs. desire for authenticity of experience; often narratives are imbued with linear causal/temporal structure though they might not resonate with those participating in the life events), and
- **moral stance** (often narratives are imbued with conventional moral stance as well).

Ochs Keenan and Capps’ main publication in this area is *Living Narrative*.

Foreign Discourse

Understanding Foreign Texts (Ali Rahimi & Rahman Sahragard)
(primary affiliations: Rahimi/Kashan University, Iran; Sahragard/Shiraz University, Iran)

Rahimi and Sahragard (2006) begin their work from the premise that close textual analysis through critical discourse analysis (in the approach of Teun van Dijk (page 81)) reveals the ideological stances of writers; they believe that this analysis is a useful tool for students in understanding the full meaning of texts. Their analysis begins with exploration of positive self-representation through what they term “euphemization,” as well as negative other-representation through “derogation.” They initiate this process through identification of ideologically-laden terms (i.e. “amazing” vs. “appalling” in a description of the Pope’s sway over people). They note that an exploration of metaphors, allusions, and intertextual references (see Norman Fairclough (page 88)) produce a more developed understanding of the source text, and that the other strategies noted in van Dijk 2006 (“Politics, Ideology and Discourse”), such as the number game (use of numbers to seem more authoritative), national self-glorification, and lexicalization, are also useful. They also note that a close reading requires awareness of the writer’s socio-political background, the historical setting, and cultural overtones of writing.

Rahimi and Sahragard’s publication on this topic is “A Critical Discourse Analysis of Euphemization and Derogation in E-mails on the Late Pope,” published in 2006.
Ideology and Discourse (Mansoor Moaddel)  
(primary affiliation: Eastern Michigan University)  

Moaddel relates ideology to discourse in a new model for understanding revolutionary action. He treats ideology as an episodic discourse, or a particular institutionalized way of thinking that occurs between certain epoch-changing events in a cultural memory. Episodic discourse encompasses general principles, concepts, symbols and rituals used by actors to address problems in their particular historical context; the discourse manifests itself in the way people talk. He then argues that revolution is a specific mode of discourse that negates both the powerholders and the routine means of negation, thereby separating it from ordinary oppositional political discourse in a democratic election. His theory follows the Foucaultian understanding of discourse. Moaddel argues that revolution is a particular mode of historical action constituted by the revolutionary ideology. He uses the Iranian Revolution as his sample analysis case using this model of ideology and revolution, examining the rise of the discourse of Shi’i Islam and how it was used to negate the principles, concepts, symbols and rituals of the Shah and others in power (that is, others’ discourses).


Semiotics of the Middle East

Nisba Naming in Morocco (Clifford Geertz)

Geertz discusses the term “nisba,” a linguistic device in Arabic that adds a word to the end of a person’s name as a specifier. He argues that the nisba contextualizes the Moroccan by identifying him/her through ascription/attribution. He asserts that the construction classifies persons without revealing what they really are, and leads to a hyperindividualism in public relations – yet it leaves the rest of someone’s character to be filled in by the process of actual interaction with that person, by only giving a vague sketch that contains nothing more than one of that person’s relations.

Geertz’s publication on this topic is From the native’s point of view, published in 1976.

Nicknames & Moral Code (Richard Antoun)

Antoun analyzed the practice of giving titles and nicknames in an Arabic village, which he then asserted are mechanisms for classifying individuals according to ethical categories. He notes that the practice of naming as a moral code is largely unconscious and that people will deny its meaningfulness, yet it is still structured.
Antoun’s publication on this topic is “On the Significance of Names in an Arab Village,” published in Ethnology in 1968.

“Up” & “Down” in Algeria (Pierre Bourdieu)

Bourdieu studied the Berber house in Algeria and identified a symbolic ordering of space that betrays that culture’s mental universe. He notes an identification of “up” with: high, culture, fertilizing, male, day, light, fire, cooked, masculine; and an identification of “down” with: low, female, feminine, natural, animal, wastes, water, raw, shadow, night, able to be fertilized. According to Bourdieu, the mythic projection of good and evil, of male and female, organizes not only kin relationships but the mythic space of the house and of the agrarian calendar.

Bourdieu’s publication on this topic is “The Kabyle House or the World Reversed,” published in 1979.

“Left” & “Right” in Arab Culture (Joseph Chelhod)

Chelhod notes that left and right are valued differently in Arabic. Right is related to prosperity and fortune, as well as south. The connection can be found in the orientation of the Arabian peninsula – the southerly winds are the source for fertility, and they come from Yemen, a country name that shares its linguistic root y-m-n with the word yameen, meaning “right”. Left, on the other hand, is related to misfortune and north. Chelhod makes the argument that Syria, the country to the north of the Arabian peninsula, is etymologically related to the terms for “unhappiness,” “left,” and “sorcery.” The isomorphism found by Chelhod is South:North::Right:Left::Good:Evil, a system of codification that is found in both the Qur’an and in daily life as of the time of writing in 1973.

Chelhod’s publication on this topic is “A Contribution to the Problem of the Pre-eminence of the Right, Based upon Arabic Evidence,” published in 1973.

Folk Tales and Gender in Morocco (Daisy Dwyer)

Dwyer examines a southern Moroccan town and its folk tales. For her, folk tales reveal the social conceptualization of the relationship between men and women, as well as the self-concepts of females themselves. Her thesis is that women maintain and control their own subordination. She also argues that the associations of the Arabic word `aqel (intelligence, responsibility, rationality) are male, and that the associations of the Arabic word nifs (flesh-centered desires) are female.

Dwyer’s publication on this topic is Images and Self-Images: Male and Female in Morocco, published in 1978.
Glossary

Aqel
In Arab culture, refers to intelligence, responsibility and rationality. Dwyer (page 94) asserts that the associations of this word are male.

Abstract
In the narrative structure proposed by Labov (page 91), the first element of a narrative, which explains “what was this about?” The abstract is a short statement (usually one or two sentences) at the beginning of the story that orient listeners to the point of the narrative.

Background, the
In Searle’s work (page 84), a theoretical collection of presuppositions shared between speakers that enables their speech to be mutually intelligible (similar to anthropologist Pierre Bourdieu’s notion of habitus (not included here)).

Backgrounded Information
In linguistics, refers to existing information against which new elements in a sentence are understood. Backgrounded information tends to occur before the foregrounded information. The background/foreground pair explored by Hopper and Thompson (page 86) is very similar to the pairs of theme/rheme and given/new. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the given/new paradigm plays out in the West in left/right distinctions within visual semiotics.

Categorization
In cognitive linguistics, the manner in which the human man conceptualizes categories. Lakoff’s work in this area (page 89) is founded on the notion that categories are based on prototypical examples (e.g. Robin as prototypical bird) upon which radial categories of elements who bear a “family resemblance” are constructed whose elements become less and less prototypical, and that can even overlap with other categories (e.g. Ostreich as bird-like).

Coda
In the narrative structure proposed by Labov (page 91), the sixth and final element of a narrative, which connects the story to what was previously occurring in the conversation. The coda returns the listener to the present and enables the listener to respond and continue discussion.

Code-Switching
In linguistics, the syntactically- and phonologically-appropriate use of multiple language or language variety in conversation. From the perspective of sociolinguistics, code-switching is interesting because of its social motivations and the ways in which it can influence social
meaning; code-switching may be occasioned by immediate discourse factors (lexical need/frequency of use of a particular expression in each language, topic and setting of discussion), or more distant factors (speaker or group identity, us-vs.-them solidarity, relationship building). Code-switching can thus function as a contextualization cue. Other linguistics are interested in code-switching in terms of its syntax and grammatical rules, as there seem to be innate and shared rules that govern where switches can be made syntactically and phonologically (grammatical level). Numerous rules and specific syntactic boundaries for where a switch may occur have been postulated. One of the central theorists in both of these areas is Myers-Scotton (page 88).

Common Ground

In linguistics, the information shared by both the speaker and the hearer (c.f. Clark 1992, not included here). On a textual level, this is similar to the given information in a conversation. On an interpersonal level, this is similar to the basis for solidarity felt between the interlocutors.

Complication

In the narrative structure proposed by Labov (page 91), the third element of a narrative, which explains “Then what happened?”

Conceptual Metaphor

In cognitive linguistics, conceptual metaphor is beyond conscious control and forms the basis for thought in a language. For instance, much of our discourse around “argument” reflects an understanding of it as “a struggle”, and much of our discourse around “anger” reflects an understanding of it as “a hot fluid in an enclosed container”. This type of metaphor was examined first by Lakoff (page 89).

Constitutive Intertextuality

In linguistics, the evoking of other discourses through the configuration of discourse conventions used in a text. Examples might be a novel written as an advice column, or dialogue occurring in the middle of an analytic text. Constitutive intertextuality is distinct from manifest intertextuality, but both are discussed by Fairclough, who draws on this distinction in the writing of French discourse analysts (page 88).

Contextualization Cues

An extra-linguistic means of negotiating shared meaning between speaker and hearer, first discussed by Gumperz (page 79) within the interactional sociolinguistics approach to discourse analysis. Gumperz noted that utterances carry with them instructions about how to build the contexts in which they should be interpreted, which he termed contextualization cues. Such cues include acoustic cues such as changes in voice quality, intonation, or even language being spoken (see code-switching), or visual cues such as posture, gesture, movement, etc.
Conversation Analysis
An approach to discourse analysis that analyzes conversations and how they are structured, with its roots in Garfinkel’s ethnomethodology (page 80).

Conversational Implicature
In pragmatics, a phenomenon by which we understand information from an utterance that is neither explicitly expressed nor strictly entailed by the utterance. For instance, “Mary had a baby and got married,” strongly implies that the birth occurred before the wedding, although the temporal ordering is not logically implied. Additionally, when an utterance does not obey the conversational maxims, we understand that a conversational implicature is being drawn. For instance, if A asks, “Where is Paul?” and B replies, “He is dating someone in New York,” B’s response does not obey the maxim of relation (the statement is not directly relevant). However, because A and B obeys the cooperative principle, A is able to understand B’s implicature: B thinks Paul is in New York. Conversational implicatures were originally theorized by Grice (page 83).

Conversational Maxims
In pragmatics, four principles followed by communicators that enable effective communication:

- Maxim of Quality – be truthful
- Maxim of Quantity – be informative
- Maxim of Relation – be relevant
- Maxim of Manner – be clear

Bending or breaking the maxims results in implicatures. Although the maxims were posited by Grice (page 83) to be universal, Ochs Keenan showed that the maxim of quantity was regularly violated in certain areas of Madagascar without resulting in any implicatures in “The universality of conversational postulates” (1976). The four conversational maxims are also known as “Gricean maxims”.

Cooperative Principle
In pragmatics, a universal axiom that underlies how conversational partners are able to understand each other: “Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.” People make contributions to conversations that are appropriate and that serve to carry the conversation forward, and others expect this behavior; without that cooperation, interaction is quickly meaningless. Grice (page 83), the originator of this axiom, further divided it into four conversational maxims.

Critical Discourse Analysis
A qualitative approach to discourse analysis that examines rhetorical devices used in creating and maintaining unequal power relations between groups, originated by van Dijk (page 81).
Derogation
In **linguistics**, the use of disparaging terminology or disparaging discourse. **Critical discourse analysis** notes that derogation occurs most often in reference to **out-groups**, through the process of **negative other-representation**; this distinction is used especially in the work of Rahimi and Sahragard (page 92) and van Dijk (page 81),

Diglossia
In **linguistics**, a stable language situation in which two varieties (“High” and “Low”) are used in complementary distribution on an everyday basis. All individuals in the society learn the Low variety naturally as children and must be taught the High variety explicitly, and the High variety is never used in informal conversations (nor Low in formal conversations).

Discourse Historical Approach
An approach to **critical discourse analysis** that analyzes the change in discourse practice over time and in various genres. The approach is interdisciplinary, multi-methodological, and uses empirical data as well as background information. This approach was originally articulated by Wodak (page 83).

“Down” in Berber Culture
In Berber culture as identified by Bourdieu (page 94), identified with: low, female, feminine, natural, animal, wastes, water, raw, shadow, night, able to be fertilized. “Down” contrasts with “up”. In this culture Bourdieu identifies a symbolic ordering of space that betrays the culture’s mental universe through its **semiotics**.

Dramaturgical Perspective
In sociology, a perspective stemming from **symbolic interactionism** that sees human actions as being dependent on time, place, and audience. The “self” under this perspective is a dramatic effect that emerges from the immediate scene being presented, as developed by Goffman (page 79).

Embeddedness
In the **narrative structure** proposed by Ochs Keenan and Capps (page 92), one of the dimensions of a narrative, which focuses on the permeability of the boundaries between personal narrative and other discourse. Narrative may be woven into prayer, classroom instruction, etc., and narrative is influenced by these other genres. The concept of embeddedness is similar to that of **intertextuality**.

Emic
The subjective understanding of a language possessed by native speakers (in Pike’s tagmemics (page 78)). Such an understanding is meaningful to the actor and culturally-dependent.
Episodic Discourse

In sociology and specifically the work of Moaddel (page 93), a particular institutionalized way of thinking (“discourse”, in a Foucaultian sense) that occurs between epoch-changing events (“episodes”) in a cultural memory. The broad socioeconomic, political, and cultural conditions that characterize a particular historical period or “episode” can determine or change which particular discourse dominates in society.

Ethnography of Communication

An approach to discourse analysis that applies ethnographic methods to understand the communications patterns of a group. To provide insight into communities, the ethnography of communication approach seeks to discern what communication acts are important to different groups, what types of meanings groups apply to various events, and how group members learn these codes. This approach was developed by Hymes (page 80).

Ethnomethodology

An approach to discourse analysis that describes the ways in which people make sense of their world, display that understanding to others, and produce a sense of social order, developed by Garfinkel (page 80).

Ethos

An appeal to ethics/credibility (in Aristotle’s schema for understanding rhetoric (page 77)). Aristotle asserts speakers must establish ethos before continuing with the bulk of the argument. Aristotle broadened the word beyond simple “moral competence” to encompass expertise and knowledge.

Etic

The objective understanding of a language possessed by individuals who study it scientifically (in Pike’s tagmemics (page 78)). Such an understanding is culturally neutral and can be applied to other cultures.

Euphemization

In linguistics, the use of a less-offensive phrase in place of a more offensive one. Additionally, Rahimi and Sahragard (page 92), working in the critical discourse analysis tradition, use “euphemization” to mean positive self-representation of the in-group, in contrast to derogation of others.

Evaluation

In the narrative structure proposed by Labov (page 91), the fourth element of a narrative, which explains “So what?” following the introduction of a complicating action.
Face

In sociology and sociolinguistics, a concept referring to the presentation of the self that one would like to project for others. Goffman (page 79) developed the concept and theorized that the maintenance of self and face is built into the fabric of social interaction. Face consists of positive face (the desire for connection with others) and negative face (the desire not to be imposed on by others). The concept is also important in the sociolinguistic field of politeness theory (whose central authors are Brown and Levinson (page 85)).

Felicity Conditions

In pragmatics, the means by which we know under what circumstances it is appropriate to utter particular speech acts. For instance, a non-ordained 10-year-old child cannot marry two people by uttering the words “I now pronounce you husband and wife,” because the felicity conditions of that speech act would not be met under those circumstances. Similarly, the question “Do you have the time?” would be infelicitous if there were a huge clock with the time in front of the requester, because inherent in the question is an assumption that the asker does not know the answer. Felicity conditions were first articulated by Searle (page 84).

Flap

In phonetics and phonology, a sound produced by brief contact between the tongue and the roof of the mouth (more precisely “tapping”). Many varieties of English (especially North American English) have a phonological process by which /t/ and /d/ between a sonorant and a vowel can manifest as a tap (e.g. butter, litter, metal/medal, shutter/shudder, liter/leader); however, speakers do not instinctively distinguish between these sounds the way they do between, for example, the sounds /p/ and /m/, which are phonologically distinct in English.

Foregrounded Information

In linguistics, refers to new information. Foregrounding information contrasts with the elements in the sentence that form the background against which the new elements are understood; backgrounded information tends to occur before the foregrounded information. The background/foreground pair explored by Hopper and Thompson (page 86) is very similar to the pairs of theme/rheme and given/new. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the given/new paradigm plays out in the West in left/right distinctions within visual semiotics.

Foucaultian Discourse

In the social sciences, an institutionalized way of thinking about a particular realm of thought that draws on socially-shared principles, concepts, frames, symbols and rituals that defines what can be said about a specific topic, and how it will be articulated. In the Foucaultian sense, discourse defines what can be considered “truth” within a particular community, as well as what questions can be raised and which ignored. Discourse structures how people can build intellectual justifications for their actions. The same concept can be invoked within multiple discourses (i.e., “freedom fighters” vs. “terrorists”).
Language and language use are the external manifestations of discourse. This conception of discourse arises from the work of philosopher Michel Foucault (not included here) and has been used by many academics, including Moaddel (page 93); in its taken-for-granted nature, it is similar to Searle’s notion of the Background.

### Frames
In social theory, a schema of interpretation (collection of stereotypes) that individuals rely on to understand and respond to events. Goffman (page 79) is generally identified as the source of framing theory.

### Functional Grammar
A model of grammar that is motivated by functions. Functional grammar analyzes discourse and each constituent of discourse in terms of three types/levels of functions: semantic functions, syntactic functions, and pragmatic functions. This model of grammar sees transitivity as a continuum rather than a binary. Functional grammar was first developed by Givon and others (page 87); it should not be confused with Halliday’s systemic functional grammar (page 78).

### Given Information
In linguistics, refers to the existing information known about a topic by conversation participants. Given information in a particular sentence is the basis by which new information is added to a discussion. The given/new pair is very similar to the pairs of theme/rheme and foreground/background. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the given/new paradigm plays out in the West in left/right distinctions within visual semiotics.

### Gricean Maxims
See conversational maxims.

### Hedge
In linguistics, a device used to lessen the impact of a statement. Hedging can be achieved lexically through word choice and euphemisms, the use of modals (“Would you close the door?” vs. “Could you close the door?” vs. “Close the door!”), as well as the use of “sort of”/“kind of”/“slightly” or similar words. When hedging accountability for an action, active verbs are often replaced by nominalizations or passive voice; very strong hedging can be realized through passivization without any explicit agent. With regard to conversational maxims, hedges can be used to indicate to the listener that the maxims are being followed.

### Horizontal Intertextuality
In linguistics, the linking of a primary text to another that shares some inherent link (e.g. genre, character, content). Horizontal intertextuality is distinct from vertical
Intertextuality, but both are discussed by Fairclough (page 88), who draws on this distinction in the writing of Kristeva (not included here).

Ideal Information
In visual semiotics, refers to information assumed by the source to be taken as “ideal,” in contrast to the “real”. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the real/ideal paradigm plays out in the West in bottom/top distinctions within visual semiotics. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90).

Ilocutionary Force
In pragmatics, the speaker’s intention in producing a particular speech act utterance (i.e. promising, advising, warning, etc.). An illocutionary act is an act performed in saying something, as contrasted with a locutionary act (the act of saying something) and a perlocutionary act (an act performed by saying something). Searle (page 84) follows J. L. Austin (not included here) in this distinction.

Indexicality
In linguistics, the concept that an utterance only refers to some state of affairs, emphasized by Garfinkel (page 80).

Indirect Speech Act
In pragmatics, the use of an expression that indicates one speech act but actually contains the illocutionary force of another speech act. For instance, the question “Do you have the time?” is actually a request to be given the time, and the question, “John, can you reach the window?” is actually a request to change the state of the window (to open or close it). Such indirect phrasing allows the hearer the opportunity to more gracefully decline. Indirect speech acts were first articulated by Searle (page 84).

In-Group
In critical discourse analysis, the group that is favored by the speaker, almost always the group to which the speaker belongs (originally formulated by van Dijk (page 81)), in contrast to the out-group. In-group status may be signaled through using familiar terms of address, slang, jargon, contractions/ellipses of information, or the in-group language or dialect (potentially through code-switching), and positive politeness tends to be used more than negative politeness within the in-group.

Intertextuality
In linguistics, the manner in which a particular discourse evokes other discourses. Manifest and constitutive intertextuality can be distinguished from each other, as can horizontal and vertical intertextuality. The linguistic study of intertextuality emerges from the critical discourse analysis tradition by the work of Fairclough (page 88).
“Left” in Arab Culture
In Arab culture as identified by Chelhod (page 94), identified with: misfortune, evil, unhappiness, sorcery, north. “Left” contrasts with “right”. In this culture Chelhod identifies a symbolic ordering of space that betrays the culture’s mental universe through its semiotics.

Lexicalization
In linguistics, the choice of a particular word for a concept, or the process of a new phrase or word becoming a formally or semantically idiomatic expression in use by an entire group. Lexicalization happens to words or phrases that pithily establish a direct means of indexing a meaning of importance to the group.

Lexicogrammar
In systemic functional grammar, the view of language that combines both structure (grammar) and words (lexis).

Linearity
In the narrative structure proposed by Ochs Keenan and Capps (page 92), one of the dimensions of a narrative, which focuses on the linear causal/temporal structure with which narratives are imbued (though such structure may not resonate with those participating in the life events). Ochs Keenan and Capps note that there is a tension between the desire to sheathe life experience with soothing linearity and the desire to relate the authenticity of life experience.

Linguistics
The scientific study of natural language, of which there are multiple schools, approaches, grammars, and subfields. A major distinction within the field is drawn between the study of structure (grammar) and the study of meaning (semantics). Discourse analysts examine the union of structure and meaning in texts.

Logos
An appeal to the audience’s reasoning (in Aristotle’s schema for understanding rhetoric (page 77)). Appeals to logos involve objectivity (statistics, math, logic), and can be either inductive (based on examples) or deductive (based on principles).

Interactional Sociolinguistics
An approach to discourse analysis that emphasizes the importance of social context and expectations/presuppositions on language interpretation. This approach originated with anthropologist Gumperz (page 79) and sociologist Goffman (page 79).
**Manifest Intertextuality**

In linguistics, the explicit presence of other texts in another text, either through quoting or through use of associated phrases. Manifest intertextuality is distinct from constitutive intertextuality, but both are discussed by Fairclough, who draws on this distinction in the writing of French discourse analysts (page 88).

**Markedness**

In linguistics, a marked form is a non-basic or less natural form for a particular person. Although markedness theory originated with phonology, it has been extended to all levels of linguistics (for instance, pronunciation of a /t/ vs. a flap in button (phonology), he vs. him (morphosyntax), lion vs. lioness (lexical items), or language choice altogether (sociolinguistics).

**Markedness Model**

Among theories of code-switching, a model from Myers-Scotton (page 88) that posits that language users choose a language that indicates their rights and obligations relative to others in the conversational setting. When there is no unmarked choice, code-switching occurs to explore the possible rights and obligations sets associated with each language. (For instance, when outside the home and speaking to a sibling, code-switching between the home language may occur to negotiate the roles and therefore rights and obligations that each sibling has to the other).

**Matrix Language Frame Model**

Among theories of code-switching, a grammatical model from Myers-Scotton (page 88) that posits that all utterances have one dominant language at work that controls the “system morphemes” (similar to the linguistic category of function words, including determiners, prepositions, intensifier adverbs, etc.). Although the matrix language may switch from utterance to utterance, all system morphemes must all belong to the same matrix language. “Content morphemes,” on the other hand, can belong to any language and be switched into any utterance.

**Maxim of Agreement**

In pragmatics, the politeness maxim posited by Leech (page 84) that enjoins communicators to “Minimize the expression of disagreement between self and other; maximize the expression of agreement between self and other.” Following this maxim may require hedging.

**Maxim of Approbation**

In pragmatics, the politeness maxim posited by Leech (page 84) that enjoins communicators to “Minimize the expression of beliefs which express dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other.” Following this maxim may result in euphemism.
Maxim of Generosity
In *pragmatics*, the *politeness maxim* posited by Leech (page 84) that enjoins communicators to “Minimize the expression of benefit to self; maximize the expression of cost to self.”

Maxim of Manner
In *pragmatics*, the *conversational maxim* posited by Grice (page 83) that enjoins communicators to “be clear.”

Maxim of Modesty
In *pragmatics*, the *politeness maxim* posited by Leech (page 84) that enjoins communicators to “Minimize the expression of praise of self; maximize the expression of dispraise of self.”

Maxim of Quality
In *pragmatics*, the *conversational maxim* posited by Grice (page 83) that enjoins communicators to “be truthful.”

Maxim of Quantity
In *pragmatics*, the *conversational maxim* posited by Grice (page 83) that enjoins communicators to “be informative.”

Maxim of Relation
In *pragmatics*, the *conversational maxim* posited by Grice (page 83) that enjoins communicators to “be relevant.”

Maxim of Sympathy
In *pragmatics*, the *politeness maxim* posited by Leech (page 84) that enjoins communicators to “Minimize antipathy between self and other; maximize sympathy between self and other.” Following this maxim leads to a number of Searle’s *speech acts* (page 86), such as congratulating, commiserating, and expressing condolences.

Maxim of Tact
In *pragmatics*, the *politeness maxim* posited by Leech (page 84) that enjoins communicators to “Minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other; maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other.” The first part of the enjoinder is similar to Brown and Levinson’s *negative politeness* and the second part is similar to their *positive politeness* (page 85).


**Metaphor**

In **linguistics**, the direct comparison of two seemingly unrelated subjects. There are two types: **conceptual metaphor** (associated with Lakoff (page 89) and others) and **rhetorical metaphor** (associated with van Dijk (page 81) and others).

**Moral Stance**

In the **narrative structure** proposed by Ochs Keenan and Capps (page 92), one of the dimensions of a narrative, which focuses on the moral approach taken by the teller to the topic, which is often conventional.

**Morphosyntax**

In **linguistics**, the level of language comprising both morphology (the ways words are built from word-parts) and syntax (the ways utterances are built from words). A distinct line often cannot be drawn between morphology and syntax, as syntactic factors can affect the morphology of words (for instance, take case – “he” and “him” are different morphological variations of the same word, but the contextual use of one or the other is dependent on its syntactic position – as subject or as object).

**Multi-Modality**

In **semiotics**, the use of multiple channels simultaneously to transmit signals (that is, simultaneous content in the oral, gestural, written, visual, or other modes). Analysis of multi-modal texts is found especially within the work of visual semioticians such as Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90).

**Narrative Structure**

In **linguistics**, the ordering principles according to which people tell narratives. In English, two of the largest contributors to discussions of narrative structure are Labov (page 91) and Ochs Keenan and Capps (page 92). Labov divided narrative structure into six building blocks: the **abstract**, **orientation**, **complication**, **evaluation**, **result**, and **coda**, and Ochs Keenan and Capps approach narrative from five dimensions: **tellership**, **tellability**, **embeddedness**, **linearity**, and **moral stance**.

**Negative Face**

In sociology and **sociolinguistics**, a concept referring to the part of **face** that is the desire for autonomy/freedom from imposition from others. In Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (page 85), showing respect for the negative face needs and wants of others results in **negative politeness**.

**Negative Other-Presentation**

In **critical discourse analysis**, a phenomenon by which people present “others” (the **out-group**) negatively (originally formulated by van Dijk (page 81)). Negative other-presentation usually occurs with explicit and precise explanations that are asserted (not
presupposed through nominalizations or other means) and detailed. Positive information about the out-group is treated oppositely in discourse. Information that is negative for the out-group tends to be topocalized. Negative other-presentation is correlated with being selected, emphasized, explicit, detailed, specific, direct, and blatant.

**Negative Politeness**

In pragmatics and Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (page 85), the politeness that arises through “showing respect,” which corresponds to negative face. Negative politeness can be used to make a request seem less infringing (through use of apologetic language, honorifics, indirect speech acts and hints, hedging to avoid disagreement, showing deference, etc.).

**New Information**

In linguistics, refers to information added to a topic. New information is connected to given information that occurs previously to it and provides a basis for the hearer to understand where the speaker is headed with the new information. The given/new pair is very similar to the pairs of theme/rheme and foreground/background. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the given/new paradigm plays out in the West in left/right distinctions within visual semiotics.

**Nifs**

In Arab culture, refers to flesh-centered desires. Dwyer (page 94) suggests that the associations of this word are female.

**Nisba**

In Arabic, a naming device by which an extra specifying word is appended to a person’s name. The semiotics of nisba naming in Morocco were discussed by Geertz (page 93).

**Nominalization**

In linguistics, the process by which a verb or adjective becomes a noun. Nominalization can be used to defer responsibility for actions; for instance, a member of Congress might move from the active verb “After I helped pass the Patriot Act in 2001 …” to the nominalization “After the passing of the Patriot Act in 2001 …” to reduce implied responsibility for the controversial act. Nominalizations can also be used to assist in presupposing information that one does not want to be questioned; for instance, the nominalization “Her inability to drive sanely meant that …,” used instead of the phrase “she was unable to drive sanely,” places the entire idea that she was unable to drive sanely in the given information of the statement, as well as compacting it into a single idea, thereby reducing its likelihood to be questioned by the audience.
Number Game

In critical discourse analysis, the use of numbers, figures, and statistics to seem more authoritative or objective. This is similar to Aristotle’s appeal to logos (page 77), and was originated by van Dijk (page 81), and used by Rahimi and Sahragard (page 92).

Orientation

In the narrative structure proposed by Labov (page 91), the second element of a narrative, which explains “Who? When? What? Where?” The orientation is a short statement (usually one or two sentences) at the beginning of the story that orients listeners to the internal elements of the narrative to come.

Out-Group

In critical discourse analysis, the group that is disfavored or even derided by the speaker, almost never the group to which the speaker belongs (originally formulated by van Dijk (page 81)), in contrast to the in-group.

Pathos

An appeal to the audience’s emotions (in Aristotle’s schema for understanding rhetoric (page 77)). Appeals to pathos can be done through metaphor, amplification, storytelling, or other devices.

Phonology

In linguistics, the study of the form of the sound, as interpreted by the subjective community of practice. Phonology captures the rules that each linguistic community has about what sounds “count” (termed “phonemes”, of the emic approach to description), as well as how those sounds can pattern together. See flap for discussion of a phonological process in North American English.

Politeness Maxims

In pragmatics, six principles followed by communicators that individuals follow in order to ensure harmony:

- **Maxim of Tact** – “Minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other; maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other.”
- **Maxim of Generosity** – “Minimize the expression of benefit to self; maximize the expression of cost to self.”
- **Maxim of Approbation** – “Minimize the expression of beliefs which express dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other.”
- **Maxim of Modesty** – “Minimize the expression of praise of self; maximize the expression of dispraise of self.”
- **Maxim of Agreement** – “Minimize the expression of disagreement between self and other; maximize the expression of agreement between self and other.”
- **Maxim of Sympathy** – “Minimize antipathy between self and other; maximize sympathy between self and other.”
- **Maxim of Manner** – be clear

### Positive Face
In sociology and sociolinguistics, a concept referring to the part of face that is the desire for connection with others. In Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (page 85), showing respect for the positive face needs and wants of others results in **positive politeness**.

### Positive Politeness
In pragmatics and Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory (page 85), the politeness that arises through “showing solidarity,” which corresponds to **positive face**. Positive politeness stakes a claim for a degree of familiarity between the speakers (through finding common ground, hedging to avoid presuming, demonstrating shared in-group status by using familiar terms of address, slang, jargon, contractions/ellipses of information, or the in-group language or dialect, etc.).

### Positive Self-Presentation
In critical discourse analysis, a phenomenon by which people present themselves and their own group (the in-group) positively (originally formulated by van Dijk (page 81)). Positive self-presentation usually occurs with explicit and precise explanations that are asserted (not presupposed through nominalizations or other means) and detailed (negative information about the in-group is treated oppositely in discourse). Information that is positive for one’s in-group tends to be topicalized. Positive self-presentation is correlated with mitigations, disclaimers, and denials (for instance, of personal racism).

### Pragmatics
In linguistics and philosophy, the study of how people are able to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. Grice (page 83) was one of the first to formalize general principles (such as the cooperative principle, conversational maxims, and conversational implicatures).

### Propositional Content
In pragmatics, the part of the meaning of a clause/sentence that is constant despite changes in voice or illocutionary force. Searle (page 84) follows J. L. Austin (not included here) in this distinction.

### Real Information
In visual semiotics, refers to information assumed by the source to be taken as “real,” in contrast to the “ideal”. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the real/ideal
paradigm plays out in the West in bottom/top distinctions within visual semiotics. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90).

**Reference Tracking**

In linguistics, the process of tracking the occurrence of a word, theme, or idea throughout a discourse (a person, for instance, may variously be invoked by a full name, a title and partial name, a last name, a description of one of many roles, a pronoun, or some other reference). Givon (page 87) provides a general methodology for reference tracking, and Halliday (page 87) discusses the implications of particular referents (pronouns vs. full noun phrases and everything in between).

**Referent**

In semiotics, the actual object in the world pointed out by the signifier (originally proposed by Saussure (page 77)). The referent is not synonymous with the signified.

**Repair**

In linguistics, the phenomena by which individuals interrupt themselves, or return to something already mentioned and rephrase it or start again. Repairs are performed to clarify meaning. Repairs can be performed on behalf of conveying intentional meaning, as when a speaker realizes the hearer is not following; they can also be performed to better manage non-intentional meaning, as when the speaker recognizes the hearer has an impression that the speaker does not want (that the speaker is a racist, for example). Critical discourse analysis has found repairs to be common when people discuss the out-group.

**Result**

In the narrative structure proposed by Labov (page 91), the fifth element of a narrative, which explains “What finally happened?”

**Rheme**

In linguistics, refers to the comment, or the new or foregrounded information that follows existing information. The “rheme” terminology is Halliday’s (page 87). Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the given/new paradigm plays out in the West in left/right distinctions within visual semiotics.

**Rhetorical Metaphor**

In literature and rhetoric, rhetorical metaphor is consciously deployed by individuals to suit their rhetorical aims. This sort of metaphor is important to much of discourse analysis, including critical discourse analysis (especially van Dijk (page 81) and others).

**Rhetorical Questions**

In linguistics, the construction by which a question is used to assert or deny something, rather than in expectation of a reply.
“Right” in Arab Culture

In Arab culture as identified by Chelhod (page 94), identified with: prosperity, fortune, good, south. “Right” contrasts with “left”. In this culture Chelhod identifies a symbolic ordering of space that betrays the culture’s mental universe through its semiotics.

Semantics

In linguistics, the study of the interpretation of signs by particular agents or communities – that is, meaning in communication. Semantics is one of the strata of analysis proposed by Halliday’s systemic functional grammar (page 78).

Semiotics

The study of signification and communication, through signs and symbols – that is, the study of how meaning is constructed and understood within a culture.

Sign

In semiotics, a discrete unit of meaning that conveys information to others (originally proposed by Saussure (page 77)), which comprises the signifier and the signified. Signs can include words, images, gestures, scents, tastes, textures, sounds, or any other way in which information can be communicated.

Signified

In semiotics, the meaning component of a sign that appears in our minds when given the signifier (originally proposed by Saussure (page 77)). The signified is not synonymous with the referent.

Signifier

In semiotics, the arbitrary “shape” component of a sign (originally proposed by Saussure (page 77)). In the realm of language, the signifier of an idea would be the sequence of letters or sounds.

Social Semiotics

In semiotics, the branch that investigates human signifying practices in social and cultural circumstances. Social semiotics was initiated by Halliday (page 90), who argued that there are grammars that govern communications that are shaped by three semiotic metafunctions: ideational (ideas being expressed), interpersonal (the manner of expression), and textual (internal organization of the text).

Sociolinguistics

In linguistics, the study of the effect of society on the way language is used.
**SPEAKING Grid**

A classificatory grid that offers a methodology for decomposing the potential components of discourse. It was developed by Hymes (page 80) under the *ethnography of communication* approach to discourse analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>setting (physical circumstances) &amp; scene (subjective definition of an occasion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>ends (purposes &amp; goals, outcomes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>act sequence (message form &amp; content)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>key (tone, manner)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>instrumentalities (channel, forms, styles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>norms of interaction &amp; interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>genre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Speech Act**

In *pragmatics* and the philosophy of language, the class of verbs that perform an action simply by stating the words. These verbs include "promise," "dare," "apologize," and "nominate," and were first analyzed by Searle (page 84). To have actionable meaning, the *felicity conditions* of the verb must be met.

**Structuralism**

An approach to linguistics that views language as a formal system analyzable in terms of its interrelated elements. Structuralism traces its roots back to Saussure (page 77) and linguistics, although it has been modified and applied to other fields since.

**Symbolic Interactionism**

In sociology, a perspective that people act toward things (symbols) based on the meaning that those things hold for them, and that they derive meaning from their interactions with these symbols and others. Goffman (page 79) was a major contributor to this perspective.

**Systemic Functional Grammar**

A model of grammar that is meaning-focused. Systemic functional grammar looks to understand how the continuous emission of sounds/characters construes meaning that can be understood. It treats linguistics as related to sociology, rather than psychology. Systemic
functional grammar was first developed by Halliday (page 78); it should not be confused with the functional grammar of Givon and others (page 87).

Tagmemics
A linguistic theory developed by Pike (page 78) that makes a distinction between emics and etics at all levels of linguistic analysis. For instance, contextually-conditioned synonyms are considered different instances of a single tagmeme.

Tellability
In the narrative structure proposed by Ochs Keenan and Capps (page 92), one of the dimensions of a narrative, which focuses on the notability of the narrative. The tellability of a narrative depends on its goals, as well as the teller’s rhetorical skills and the social sensibilities of the audience.

Tellership
In the narrative structure proposed by Ochs Keenan and Capps (page 92), one of the dimensions of a narrative, which focuses on the role of narrative as a social activity between potentially-many active tellers.

Theme
In linguistics, refers to the topic, or the given or backgrounded information from which new information is developed. The “theme” terminology is Halliday’s (page 87). Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) discuss how the given/new paradigm plays out in the West in left/right distinctions within visual semiotics.

Tokens
In philosophy and linguistics, the particular and countable instances of types.

Topicalization
In linguistics, the process by which the topic of the sentence is moved to its beginning, thereby garnering more importance. A topicalized version of Bob liked Mary would be It was Mary that Bob liked.

Transitivity
In linguistics, the property of a verb or clause such that an activity is transferred from an agent to another being. Transitive verbs (such as kill or kiss) take direct objects, whereas intransitive verbs (such as dance or sit) do not. In functional grammar, transitivity is considered to be a continuum rather than a binary category, such that, for instance, see has “lower transitivity” than kill.
Types
In philosophy and linguistics, a general “sort of thing” – for instance, the word “word” is a type that can be instantiated multiple times within a stretch of discourse. Types contrast with tokens (the instantiations of types).

Unmarked
See markedness.

“Up” in Berber Culture
In Berber culture as identified by Bourdieu (page 94), identified with: high, culture, fertilizing, male, day, light, fire, cooked, masculine. “Up” contrasts with “down”. In this culture Bourdieu identifies a symbolic ordering of space that betrays the culture’s mental universe through its semiotics.

Variation Analysis
A quantitative approach to discourse analysis that identifies variable linguistic surface forms and how they pattern and are constrained. Variation analysis was originated by Labov (page 81).

Vertical Intertextuality
In linguistics, the linking of a primary text to a text of another type without any explicit links between them. Vertical intertextuality is distinct from horizontal intertextuality, but both are discussed by Fairclough (page 88), who draws on this distinction in the writing of Kristeva (not included here).

Visual Semiotics
In semiotics, the branch that investigates human signifying practices in visual modes. Visual semiotics investigates the way in which visual elements are arranged in a given culture such that individuals understand particular meanings. Kress and van Leeuwen (page 90) formalize the use of space in the West into four interpretive quadrants. On the left for cultures that write left-to-right, we find “given” information (information that is already known by the audience). “New” information appears on the right. This follows the tendency of languages to always move from “given” to “new” information. They then note that the top of a field is the place for the “ideal”, and the bottom of a field is the place for the “real.” As a result, a page or artwork can be divided into four interpretive quadrants. Additional work formalizes other realms of visual representations, such as social distance, relations of power, and so on.

Works Cited


APPENDIX B: Table of Additional Discourse Phenomena: Arranged According to Effect

There are many other discourse phenomena that authors use beyond the ones discussed in depth above. The following table lists many of them, alongside English and Arabic examples, with citations from the discourse analysis and automation literature. The table is organized as follows:

- The **Macro-level Phenomenon** column organizes the table into five main sections: Positive Self-Representation, Negative Other-Representation, Strengthening (for Positive Self/Negative Other), Weakening (for Negative Self/Positive Other), and Intertextuality (for all). The second column, **Aspect**, organizes each main section according to which aspect of that macro-level phenomenon is being discussed.

- Within each aspect, particular instances of the rhetorical phenomenon in question are given, in terms of an overall **Rhetorical Phenomenon** with corresponding **Linguistic Indicators** and **Examples**.

- The final two columns, **Automate?** and **Literature**, mark initial thoughts as to whether/how that recognition of that phenomenon could be automated, and provide citations to the literature discussing the discourse theory and the potential automation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro-level Phenomenon</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Rhetorical Phenomenon</th>
<th>Linguistic Indicators</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Automate?</th>
<th>Literature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Self-Representation</td>
<td>Positive Representation</td>
<td>Glorification</td>
<td>• Themes of (national/other) pride</td>
<td>“no other country”</td>
<td>phrase counts</td>
<td>Theory:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ van Dijk (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

لا يملكها تمسك بحرية قرارها في يدها

البلاد لديها من الوسائل والإمكانات ما يجعلها تمسك بحرية قرارها في يدها

 washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington

washington
van Dijk (2006)

van Dijk – is correlated with: mitigations, disclaimers, denials

Positive Naming / Reference / Description
• Positive terms
• Positive adjectives

“amazing”
“the great Lincoln”

word counts

(more complicated: sentiment analysis, or word counts → collocations)

(C19A)

(C17)

جلالة الملك المغنى

(C17)

دولة قطر الشقيقة

(C9)

(C17; the reference implies actual accomplishment)

word counts

(even more complicated: parsing for objects of adjectives → word counts)

Theory:

→ Hopper and Thompson (1980)
→ Halliday (2004)
→ Fairclough (1992)
→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Meinhof and Galasinski (2005)
Superiority  - Positive superlatives and comparatives

- "best"
- "better"
- "biggest"
- "nicer"

Theory:
- van Dijk (2006)

Euphemization  - Lexical phrases that shadow the part of the idea that is potentially offensive or unwanted

- "auto accident"
- "passed away"

Theory:
- van Dijk (2006)
- Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
Victimization

- Certain verbs, especially high-transitivity verbs
- Passive voice
- Terminology associated with powerlessness in the face of brute strength; emphasizing powerlessness

"killed"

"(was) shot by X"

Theory:

→ Wodak et al. (1999)
→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Fairclough (1992)
→ Hongladarom (2002) – victimization

Identifying reduced passives with shallow parser:

→ Igo and Riloff (2008)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individualization</th>
<th>• Singular pronouns (second &amp; third person)</th>
<th>“she” word counts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotion</td>
<td>• Particular positive lexical items</td>
<td>“love” word/phrase counts (more complicated: sentiment analysis)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Theory:**
- van Dijk (2006)
- Lakoff, R. (1990)
- Pennebaker (2001)
- Semin and Fiedler (1988) – linguistic category model: adjective use is highly abstract; in tandem with Maass et al. 1989’s work on linguistic intergroup bias, we should expect adjective usage for positive representations of the in-group.
Us / Self (van Dijk (2006))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(speaker makes no assumptions about audience & point of discourse is to perform own in-group status)

Affiliations

- Allusions that are common within a particular subculture (e.g. particular references to the nation or the group itself)
- Explicitly identifying nations/groups affiliated with by naming “red, white and blue” “freedom” [GROUP NAME]

entity extraction → annotations (more complicated: entity or other extraction → social network analysis)

Theory:

→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
→ Feshbach (1994) – patriotism vs. nationalism (positive pride/attachment vs. belligerence and claimed superiority)
→ Otten and Wentura (1999) – in-group labels activate positive affect

SNA:

→ Wasserman & Faust (1994)

Extracting SNA:

→ Matsuo et al. (2006)
→ Mika (2005)
→ Hristo (2007)
→ Pouliquen et al.
Naming/ Lexicalization/ Reference

- Particular referents used for an idea betray the author’s thoughts on it (lexicalization)

- Definite articles presume that the audience is already familiar with the concept

- The in-group can be indicated by references that include the audience.

- Personal reference
  - Personal pronouns

“homosexual agenda” vs. “gay rights”;

“persistent efforts” vs. “stubborn efforts”

بعد 21 يومًا من الحرقة الإسرائيلية في غزة

(C19A)

word/phrase counts

simple rules (“the”, deictic pronouns, adverbs, verbs, etc. – all the elements in the Indicators column)

Theory:

→ Wodak and Reisigl (2003)
→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Fairclough (1992)
→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
→ Meinhof and Galasinski (2005)
deictic pronouns – e.g. “us”

- Spatial reference
  - Adverbs of place (deictic adverbs – e.g. “here” vs. “there”)
  - Spatial reference through persons (e.g. “with us”)
  - Deictic verbs (e.g. “come over (here, to us)” vs. “go over (there, to them)"

- Temporal reference
  - Temporal prepositions / adverbs / conjunctions (“now” vs. “then”)

“the root password”

Linguistic means of unified reference:

→ Wodak et al. (1999: 35)

Definiteness, referential terms:

→ De Fina (2003:24)
→ Bauman (2000)

Deictic verbs:

→ Zhou (2002)

Pronouns Theory:

→ Lakoff, R. (1990)
→ Duszak (2002)
→ Helmbrecht (2002)
→ Perdue et al. (1990) – ‘we’ automatically and unconsciously evokes positive emotional response

→ Wagner (2002) –
alignment through pronouns

Social space as metaphorical projection of an abstract relation:
Lakoff (1987)
Lakoff and Johnson (1980)

"we"
"us"
"let's"

"come" vs. "go"
"I came over to your place" vs. "I went over to your place"
Allusion

- Quotations
  - quotation marks
  - reporting verbs
- Lexical or structural similarity to another document
  - individual lexical items
  - stretches of words
  - hapax legomena (word that occurs only once)

"Leviticus 18:22 says ‘…’"

“Ask now what the Grand Generation can do for the country.”

plagiarism detection

cusum (lexical and structural dissimilarities within a single document)

rules (e.g. quotation marks)

(C19A)

Quotation detection:

- Pouliquen et al. (2007)

Cusum:

- Farringdon (2001) – overall technique
- Holmes and Tweedie (1995) – academic criticism of assumptions
- Clough (2003) – usefulness in plagiarism detection; notes numerous

Theory:

- Fairclough (1992)
- Wodak et al. (1999)
- Meinhof and Galasinski (2005)
problems with scaling, habits, etc.

**Plagiarism detection:**

- Wise (1996) - overlap of longest common substring
- Woolls and Coulthard (1998) - shared content words/hapax legomena
- Clough (2000) - indicators of (mainly student) plagiarism
- Lyon et al. (2001) - n-grams
- Clough (2003) - naïve Bayesian classifier over numerous measures of similarity based on Greedy String Tiling

**Us / Self (van Dijk (2006))**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-Group Markers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slang</td>
<td>“pwned”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jargon</td>
<td>“can has”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronyms without explanation</td>
<td>“SLR”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emoticon types</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax and phonology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Theory:**

- van Dijk (2006)
- Brown & Levinson (1987)

---

128
carry-overs from first language when speaking a second language

"javadoc"
(T_T) vs. :-(
o.0 vs. =0

(Speaker assumes audience is one of "us" & point of discourse is to perform own in-group status)

Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
Cutting (2000) – in-group language development as individuals form a group
Layne cites Baron (2001) – emoticons are used primarily to demonstrate social status rather than to clarify
Clyne et al. (2002) – ethnolects
Sinner (2002) – Catalan Spanish
Duszak (2002) – lexical items
Wagner (2002) – alignment through lexical items
Code Choice  

- Language/dialect choice (switching between Spanish and English without translation)

- Language identification
- Dictionary lookup of main language; filtering out words that don't fit for analyst attention

**Theory:**

- Gumperz & Blom (1972)
- Brown & Levinson (1987)
- Myers-Scotton (1993)

**Theory (Diglossia):**

- Ferguson (1959)
- Ferguson (1996)
- Myers-Scotton (1986)

- Clyne et al. (2002) - ethnolects

- Kamwangamalu (2002) - South Africa
Us / Self (van Dijk (2006))

Colloquialisms
- Contractions
- For Arabic, potentially more use of MSA associated with dialect – negation with ﻣﺎ for instance (even when “proper” by MSA standards)?

Ellipsis
- Leaving out inferable / common ground information
- “Would you get that?” (e.g. open window)

(word counts rules (e.g. apostrophes) “won’t” “John’d” “gonna” “‘preciate it”

Theory:
- Brown & Levinson (1987)

Common ground:
- Clark and Marshall (1981)
- Prince (1981)
- Searle (1983)
- Clark (1992)
### Terms of Address
- Familiar terms of address
  - “dear”
  - “my friends”
  - “Pat”
  - “Lindsey”
- Use of first names

Lack of “sir” or titles

### Negative Other-Representation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<tr>
<td>+</td>
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</table>

### Negative Description
- Negative themes
- Foregrounded negative information
  - difference
  - deviance
  - threat
  - contempt
- Negative ideologically-laden terms
- Animal terms
- References to “bad” historical characters/events
- Derogation
  - “appalling”
  - evil
  - dark
  - dirtiness
  - Hitler/Nazi

### Other Representations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<td>+</td>
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</table>

### Theory
- Clark (1996)
- van Dijk (2006)
- van Dijk (2006)
- Brown & Levinson (1987)
- van Dijk (2006)
- Hopper and Thompson (1980)
- van Dijk (2006)
- Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
- Pennebaker (2001)
- Duszak (2002)
van Dijk – is correlated with: selected, emphasized, explicit, detailed, specific, direct, blatant

• Marginalization

بعد 21 يوم من المحرقة الإسرائيلية في غزة

(C19A)

ما ارتكبه وترتكبه من جرائم حرب ضد الإنسانية

(C4)

الوضع المتدهو

(C4)

Inferiority

• Negative superlatives
  “worst”
  rules (for comparative/superlative morphology)

• Negative comparatives
  “worse”
  word counts

• Patronizing
  “tiniest”
  “meaner”

Theory:

→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Duszak (2002)

Semin and Fiedler (1988) – linguistic category model: adjective use is highly abstract; in tandem with Maass et al. 1989’s work on linguistic intergroup bias, we should expect adjective usage for negative representations of the out-group

البلاد لديها من الوسائل والإمكانات ما يجعلها تمسك بحرية قرارها في يدها و بعيدة عن
Negative emotion

- Lexical items
  - “hurt” word/phrase counts
  - “ugly”
  - “nasty” (more complicated: sentiment analysis)

Theory:

- Pennebaker (2001)
- Semin and Fiedler (1988) – linguistic category model: adjective use is highly abstract; in tandem with Maass et al. 1989’s work on linguistic intergroup bias, we should expect adjective usage for negative representations of the out-group

Naming/Reference

- Scare quotes, to distance the author from the terminology being employed
- Negative naming/reference

“the ‘nice’ man” rules (e.g. quotes, capitalization)

“the ‘Axis of Evil’” word/phrase counts

Theory:

- Wodak and Reisigl (2003)
- Givon (1983)
- Fairclough (1992)
Them / Other (van Dijk (2006))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self</th>
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<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(discourse about, not discourse addressing)

Naming / Lexicalization / Reference

- Personal pronouns (identifying others through deixis)
  - “they”
  - “them”

word counts

Theory:

- De Fina (2003:24)
- Bauman (2000)
- Duszak (2002)
- Perdue et al. (1990) - 'they' are neutral to negative
- Lakoff, R. (1990)

Pronouns:

- Wodak et al. (1999)
- De Fina (2003:24)
- Bauman (2000)

Theory:

- van Dijk (2006)

Categorization / Homogenization

- Collectivization
  - “They are all the same”

word/phrase counts rules

- Personal pronouns (second & third person)

De Fina (2003:24)
Bauman (2000)
Affiliations
• Identifying groups affiliated with other

Entity extraction → annotations
(more complicated: entity or other extraction → social network analysis)

Theory:
→ van Dijk

Extracting SNA:
→ Matsuo et al. (2006)
→ Mika (2005)
→ Hristo (2007)
→ Pouliquen et al. (2007)

Hedges
• Nominalization
• Passivation
• Word choice
• Euphemization
• Modals
• Abstractions

“sort of”
“slightly”
“after the passing of the Patriot Act” (vs. “after I helped pass”)

word/phrase counts parsing (for passivization)

Theory:
→ van Dijk
→ van Dijk (2008)
→ Billig (2008)
→ Fairclough (1992)
→ Markkanen and Schroeder (1997)
→ Atawneh (1991) – fewer modals used in Arabic than in English
Disfluencies (speech)

- Repairs
- Word repetitions
- False starts
- Uh/Um ("um" when speaker has major planning problems in producing utterance, "uh" when they know what they want to say and are searching for the exact words to use to express it – Smith and Clark (1993) and Clark (1994))
- "uh"
- "um"
- hesitation, repeat or speech error at code-switch
- silent pause
- word lengthening within a syllable
- word counts
  (incl. hyphenated dashes)

Theory:

- van Dijk
- Smith and Clark (1993)
- Clark (1994)
- Shriberg (1994)
- Wodak et al. (1999)

Strengthening

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Self</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Ethos

Aristotle (350 BC)

(can be used to further support positive self-representation or negative other-)

Authority

- Number game
- Citations
- Certainty

"According to Dr. X who has Y and Z qualifications, 40% of people..."

rules (numerals and numbers)

word/phrase counts (citations)

Theory:

- van Dijk (2006)

Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)
representation; strengthens the effect on the audience)

Rhetoric

Pathos  Polarization  • Adjectives of strong degree

“very” word/phrase

Theory:
Aristotle (350 BC)

- Contrast and antonymy
  - light/dark
  - X not Y
  - X turns into Y
  - X more than Y
  - X instead of Y
  - X rather than Y
  - despite/although/while X, Y
  - (not) X but Y

- Intensifiers
  - Linguistic intensity markers, potentially grandiose
  - Bolding, positioning or other visual features that stress
  - In Arabic, lists of synonyms

van Dijk (2006)
Hausendorf and Kesselheim (2002) – contrast
Antonym pairs
Jones (2002)
Davies (2008)
majazat tahatt sama
al-hakam al-arab
wa-sarma hum!

(T1)

wa-abyara abiba al-hizb
babnaa shu'ina

(T2)

wa-vaisyarat wa-ma'sarat
al-gusnab

(T3)

kama yabihi al-hizb
mowafq al-shueb
al-arabiya wal-islamiya,
wa-shueb al-amal fi
al-awriya wa-amrika
al-jadwiyah wal-shamila
wa-fi kefriya wa-asia

(T2)

Distribution A: Approved for public release; distribution in unlimited. 88ABW-2010-6005, 10 Nov 10
Centered after block text:

Hyberbole

• Excessive lexical phrases

“weigh a ton” phrase count Theory:

“eat a horse” → van Dijk (2006)

(C17)

Abstracting

• Adjectives (highly abstract)

“he is altruistic” part-of-speech tagging ➔ tag Theory:
• State verbs (verbs that describe relatively invariable states of being)
  
  • Nominalizations

"honest"  count word/phrase
"impulsive"
"reliable"
"helpful"
"creative"
"extroverted"

→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Maass et al. (1989) – linguistic intergroup bias (more abstract if it’s expected – negative other/positive self; the more expected, the more abstraction)

→ Maass et al. (1996)
→ Semin and Fiedler (1988) – adjective use is highly abstract, and state verbs are less so but still abstract; in tandem with Maass et al. 1989’s work on linguistic intergroup bias, we should expect adjective usage for negative representations of the out-group and positive representations of in-groups

→ Semin et al. (2003) – linguistic intergroup bias occurs only when
communication has a clear purpose

⇒ Semin and de Poot (1997) --
⇒ Werkman et al. (1999) --
⇒ Wigboldus et al. (2000) --

receivers of abstract messages infer that the social behavior in question was due to dispositional features of the actor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logos</th>
<th>Aristotle (350 BC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Directing attention to content</td>
<td>Logos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Topicalization</td>
<td>“Bob was the one Mary liked”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Passivization (places particular elements in informationally-salient final position of “information focus”)</td>
<td>“Mary liked Bob and Bob alone”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Repetition</td>
<td>“Mary was not a little bit happy with Bob”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Rhetorical questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Litotes (deliberate understatement)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Explicit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Precise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Specific</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Asserted (not presupposed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Theory:
⇒ van Dijk (2006)
⇒ Fairclough (1992)
⇒ Fairclough (1999)
⇒ Wodak et al. (1999)
⇒ Maass et al. (1989) – linguistic intergroup bias (more abstract if it’s expected – negative other/positive self;
Evidentiality

- Number game
- Reported speech
- Anecdotes, examples, illustrations, narratives

Phelps Takes a Hit: "Almost half of America is guilty of lighting up, so lay off."

Identification of reported speech rules (numbers)

Theory:

→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)

Narrative:

→ Labov (1967)
Imposing interpretation of events

- Reporting with speech act verb
- Paraphrasing (deletion, lexical substitution e.g. synonyms, changes in syntax e.g. ordering, causality markers, reducing clause to phrase, nominalization and other

"he claimed" vs. "he asserted"

word counts (reporting speech act verbs)

Theory:

→ Fairclough (1992)

Reporting Speech Act verbs:

→ Quirk (1985) – lists speech act verbs for reporting
→ Doandes (2003) – lists speech act verbs for reporting
→ Bergler (1992) – reported speech and evidentiality
→ Krestel et al. (2008) – list reporting verbs; provides decent-recall/decent-precision software to automatically identify reported speech

Reported Speech:

→ Quirk (1985) – lists speech act verbs for reporting
→ Doandes (2003) – lists speech act verbs for reporting
→ Bergler (1992) – reported speech and evidentiality
→ Krestel et al. (2008) – list reporting verbs; provides decent-recall/decent-precision software to automatically identify reported speech
part-of-speech operations, making the abstract more concrete) (C17; “stressed” is the word chosen by newspaper article author to introduce this, although others could have been used)

Paraphrase:

→ Bell (1991) – paraphrase strategies in news media

→ Clough (2000)

Plagiarism (paraphrasing as type of):

→ Clough (2003)

Topoi (justifications so commonly used and taken-for-granted in culture so as to not be questioned)

- Norm expression
- Burden
- Consensus
- Populism

Weakening

- Not topicalized
- Vagueness

“Sometimes people of sort X are kind.” possibly to get at part of it: part-of-speech tagging →

Theory:

→ van Dijk (2006)

→ Wodak and Reisigl (2003)

→ Fairclough (1992)
(can be used to reduce support → negative self-representation or positive other-representation; weakens the effect on the audience)

Presuppositions
- Nominalization
- Occurrence as “given” information

“Her inability to drive sanely meant that…”

part-of-speech tagging → chunking (nominalizations)

Theory:
→ van Dijk (2006)
→ van Dijk (2008)

Specifying
- Descriptive action verbs (usually no positive or negative connotations)
- Interpretive action verbs (more abstract, less specific, has positive or negative semantics)

“kiss”
“look”
“run”
“visit”
“call”
“talk”

(hard)

part-of-speech tagging

Theory:
→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Maass et al. (1989) for specificity of positive other – portraying as specific behavioral instances (linguistic intergroup bias: more abstract if it’s expected – negative...
“help”  
“offend”  
“inhibit”  
“cheat”  
“threaten”  

other/positive self;  
the more expected,  
the more abstraction)

Semin and Fiedler  
(1988) – linguistic  
category model:  
descriptive action  
verbs and interpretive  
action verbs are more  
specific (descriptive  
most so); in tandem  
with Maass et al. 
1989’s work on  
linguistic intergroup  
bias, we should expect  
this for positive  
representations of the  
out-group and  
negative  
representations of in-  
group

→ Allport (1979  
[1954]) – principle  
that dissociates a  
single atypical  
member from the 
category as a whole

→ Rothbart and Lewis  
(1988) – support for
principle

→ Weber and Crocker (1983) – support for principle

→ Semin et al. (2003) – linguistic intergroup bias occurs only when communication has a clear purpose

→ Semin and de Poot (1997) --

→ Werkman et al. (1999) --

→ Wigboldus et al. (2000) --

Concreteness/specificity leads people to infer behaviors were due to incidental rather than dispositional factors

Hedges --- --- --- ---

(see above, page 136)

Imposing interpretation --- --- --- ---
(see above, page 145)

Intertextuality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Self</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>-</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(partial manifestation of all of the above reflects the intertext; need a human’s external context to fully understand all implications, although not to understand the face value – not necessarily part of linguistic competence of all)

Metaphor & Symbolism

| (none; focus on understanding based on beyond-the-page information) | eruption | roses | darkness |

(Annotation space for analysts to share knowledge, with timestamps)

Theory:

→ van Dijk
→ van Dijk (2006)
→ Fairclough (1992)
→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)

Satire & Parody

| (none; focus on understanding based on beyond-the-page information) | SNL 2008 election parody skits |

Theory:

→ Fairclough (1992)

Connotation

| (none; focus on understanding based on beyond-the-page information) | “stewards of the earth” |

Theory (Part of Intertextuality):

→ Fairclough (1992)
→ Rahimi and Sahragard (2006)

Allusion

- Explicit citation
- Implicit citation
- Reported speech
- Quotation
- Hapax legomena in a single document

“John 3:16”
“do unto others”
“George Washington”
“Ask [now] what [the Grand

CDA & Fairclough

Bakhtin

Kristeva (1986)

Fairclough (1992)

Fairclough (1999)
Theory (Reported Speech):

→ Bergler (1992) – reported speech indicates evidentiality

→ Bergler (2006) - Reported speech is thus a form of valence shifter, which marks the embedded information as not simply factual.

Topoi

(see above, page 146)
APPENDIX C: Second Case Study (Phase II) Findings Comparison with Original Methodology (Phase I)

The theoretical findings of the Phase II of this project in support of NASIC operate on a different level than the information provided in the Methodological Primer written earlier in this project. The Methodological Primer addressed four major linguistic positioning methods and a number of linguistic intensifiers. Although this division remained in the current work, the current findings are described in much more strategic (rather than tactical) terminology. A comparison of the two approach follows, with the first two sections devoted to summarizing the findings in the Methodological Primer.

Methodological Primer: Linguistic Positioning Methods and Linguistic Intensifiers

The original methodology document (the Methodological Primer) contained the following linguistic methods. The following are methods within a writer’s linguistic “arsenal” related to the question of in/out group discourse, which we originally identified during the initial work on this project:

- Lexicalization
  - Word choice
  - Speech act verbs
  - Linguistic intergroup bias (describing “their” bad qualities as permanent and “their” good qualities as transient, and vice versa)
- Quotations
  - Quotation
  - Scare quotes
- References
  - Reference terminology
  - References to particular individuals/organizations
- Allusion
  - Intertextuality

Victimization was repeatedly included in the examples of each linguistic method, as an effect that these linguistic methods can evoke.

Additionally, the original methodology document discussed numerous linguistic indicators. Although these indicators alone do not indicate whether a certain entity is an in/out group, they nevertheless contribute to an argument through strengthening what the author is saying. The following “intensifier” methods were identified in our original work:

- Anecdotes
- Citing others
- Examples

25 “Discourse Analysis: A Primer for Analyzing In-Groups and Out-Groups, and Their Sentiments,” written for the HSCB Modeling project, contract number FA8650-07-C-6837.
Relationship between Consultant Findings and Methodological Primer

There is a many-to-many relationship between the language forms found in the Methodological Primer (e.g., topicalization, word choice, relativization with a relativizing pronoun like “which”) and the effects they achieve (e.g., victimization, national aggrandizement, portrayed intimacy with author). A single effect can be achieved through multiple language forms, and the forms themselves can relate to nearly any effect. As a result, in the Methodological Primer, the language forms were tied to effects only in the context of particular examples.

However, when we analyzed the results of consultant analyses, we found that the consultants nearly universally focused on the language effects. They gave only limited attention to the language forms used to achieve those effects. Instead, their attention was occupied with a series of continuums: amount of attention given in the piece, amount opinion is represented, respectfulness of reference terminology, groupings between entities, and so on. As a result of the consultant focus, we have two distinct levels of analysis for the same phenomenon of in/out group position.

The levels, however, do relate to each other. Table C-1 and Table C-2 map the original methodological indicators to the consultant-results-based rhetorical phenomena.

Table C-1. The Column at Left (Rhetorical Phenomenon) contains the Ten Rhetorical Phenomena Determined through Work with Consultants. The column at right lists the linguistic indicators determined earlier in this effort that most clearly map to these rhetorical phenomena.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rhetorical Phenomenon (from Consultant work)</th>
<th>Linguistic Indicator (from Methodological Primer)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amount of attention</td>
<td>↔ --</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinions represented</td>
<td>↔ • Word choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table C-2. The Two Columns at Left (Intensifier Phenomenon and Particular Instantiation) contain the Thirteen Intensifier Phenomena Determined through Work with Consultants. The column at right lists the linguistic indicators of intensification determined earlier in this effort, listed according to how they map to the consultant work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intensifier Phenomenon (from Consultant work)</th>
<th>Particular Instantiation (from Consultant work)</th>
<th>Linguistic Intensifier Indicator (from Methodological Primer)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increases salience</td>
<td>Includes in title</td>
<td>• Non-linguistic clues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focuses attention</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Topicalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notes first or near beginning</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Passivization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notes last</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Topicalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involves photo</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Passivization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution A: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited. 88ABW-2010-6004, 10 Nov 10
Word choice underlies nearly every rhetorical phenomenon we found in the consultant analyses – reference terminology, expressed intimacy, attributions of power/virtue/motivations, and more can all depend on authors choosing particular words to spin an idea. Quotations are one of many means of representing the opinions of a particular side. What we termed “groupings” between entities given consultant analyses is related to the original indicator of “references to individuals/organizations”. Intimacy relates to scare quotes and reference terminology. Attributed power relates to speech act verbs (for instance, the choice of “decree” or “emphasize” – which in Arabic shares its root ﺷﺪﺩ (sh-d-d) with the word for “strong” – attributes more power, strength, and involvement than the verb “say”). The attribution of motivations relates to intertextuality, the referencing of meanings from other sources, historical allusions, etc., and linguistic intergroup bias has bearing on how authors attribute a “good” or “bad” nature to the entities they discuss.

The Methodological Primer and consultant work address different but complementary levels of discourse analysis. They both addressed linguistic methods that index and construct in/out group relationships in media discourse. However, where the Methodological Primer focused on the smallest building blocks of language (particular linguistic methods), the consultant work was one level of abstraction higher (particular indicators, each of which that have an “in-group” and an “out-group” arm that can be distinguished from each other).
APPENDIX D: Overview of Corpus for Second Case Study (Phase II)

As part of this project, NSI standardized a corpus on which analyses were conducted, on the basis of documents provided by NASIC and SSA (Table D-1).

Table D-1. Document Characteristics for All Documents in Corpus used for Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Received From</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8/12/2009</td>
<td>Al Ahram</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5/19/2009</td>
<td>Al Ittihad</td>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6/8/2009</td>
<td>syria-news.com</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>Fana News</td>
<td>Pan-Arab News Agency</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1/17/2009</td>
<td>InBaa</td>
<td>Lebanon &amp; Palestine</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>9/1/2009</td>
<td>Al Jazeera</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1/16/2009</td>
<td>Al Watan Saudi</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1/19/2009</td>
<td>Quryna News</td>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>5/29/2009</td>
<td>syria-news.com</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
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<td>SSA</td>
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<td>Palestine</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
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<td>1/16/2009</td>
<td>Al-Qabas Kuwait</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1/16/2009</td>
<td>Alhe Jazi</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1/21/2009</td>
<td>Tulkrm.org</td>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1/22/2009</td>
<td>Al Waqt</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
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<td>UAE</td>
<td>SSA</td>
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<td>Pan-Arab</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>1/16/2009</td>
<td>The New Iraq</td>
<td>Iraq</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Iran</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Syria</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>8/28/2009</td>
<td>Al Ahram</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>SSA</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
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<td>Al Hayaat</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1/14/2009</td>
<td>ArabianBusiness.com</td>
<td>UAE</td>
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<td>Date</td>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Country</td>
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<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
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<td>RFD (Opposition Party)</td>
<td>Mauritania</td>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
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<td>Qatar</td>
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<td>RNW (Netherlands radio)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
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<tr>
<td>53</td>
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<td>Al Thawra</td>
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<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Al-Ahram</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>SSA</td>
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<tr>
<td>59</td>
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<td>Al-Baath</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>1/17/2009</td>
<td>Blog</td>
<td>UK &amp; Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
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<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>12/29/2008</td>
<td>Al Aharam</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
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<td>UAE</td>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
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<td>1/16/2009</td>
<td>ArabTimes.com</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
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<td>9/1/2009</td>
<td>Al-Manar</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>SSA</td>
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<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>8/4/2009</td>
<td>Al-Manar</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
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<td>UAE</td>
<td>SSA</td>
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<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>7/30/2009</td>
<td>Palestinian Information Center</td>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>6/8/2009</td>
<td>syria-news.com</td>
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<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
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<td>Palestine</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
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<td>Egypt</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
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<td>Aks-Alser</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>NASIC I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>7/30/2009</td>
<td>Palestinian Information Center</td>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>6/10/2009</td>
<td>Ayam</td>
<td>West Bank</td>
<td>SSA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The documents were received from the other participants in the study in three main batches: documents from NASIC in the first batch focused mainly on early 2009; documents from SSA focused mainly on mid 2009; documents from NASIC in the second batch focused mainly on early 2010. The documents from NASIC were selected by analysts at NASIC in accordance with particular guidelines (first set: focus on events of early 2009; second set: focus on a broader range of non-news articles). The documents from SSA were randomly selected from the documents that SSA’s software tool had scraped from the web from a series of Arabic-language websites.

Documents 9, 19, and 67 were not included in analyses because they did not contain any in/out group positioning (they lacked any attention to specific countries or groups).

**Document Breakdown by Source Country, News Source**

This breakdown provides information about the source countries of the 97 documents that were used in the analyses (Figure D-1).
The half scores are the result of documents that had two source countries. Each of these documents gave “half” of the document to each country; for instance, document #85 was from the UAE and Egypt, and thus the UAE and Egypt each received 0.5 credits for document #85.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Country</th>
<th>#</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pan-Arab</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
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<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unknown (blog)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>97</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure D-1. Breakdown of Analyzed Documents by Country Source, Provided in Chart and Graph Format**

The half scores are the result of documents that had two source countries. Each of these documents gave “half” of the document to each country; for instance, document 85 was from the UAE and Egypt, and thus the UAE and Egypt each received 0.5 credits for document 85.

Figure D-2 provides further breakdown information about the news sources of the 97 documents that were used in the analyses. About a quarter of the news sources provided only 1 document to the corpus; these news sources are amalgamated under the “others” label.
<table>
<thead>
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<th>#</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
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<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Manar</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Ahram</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestinian Information Center</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Alam</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Ittihad</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syria-news.com</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Baath</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Al-Hayaat</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Thawra</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Moheet</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Qabas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asharq Al-Awsat</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blogs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others (where count = 1)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>97</td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure D-2. Breakdown of Analyzed Documents by Country Source, Provided in Chart and Graph Format**
APPENDIX E: Guidance Document for Second Case Study (Phase II)

One of the two-page guidance documents follows. This particular document was the guidance document for the document analysis section; it differed only slightly from the guidance document for the focus group section.

Study Guidance: In-Group/Alignment vs. Out-Group/Distancing Dynamics

Language does not happen in a vacuum. No word is neutral; no linguistic choice is neutral. For instance, the choice between “adamant” and “inflexible” betrays the author’s attitude; the choice between “hits” and “is abusive” betrays a value judgment; the choice between referring to a religious passage or not betrays who the author intends as his audience (and depending on which passage is referred to, perhaps more).

Because language is not neutral, it almost always reflects an individual’s beliefs about “Who is good and/or part of my in-group?” and “Who is bad and/or an out-group for me?” Boundary maintenance between groups that are “good” or “like us” (in-groups) and those that are “unlike us” or “bad” (out-groups) forms a significant – albeit often subconscious – part of discourse.

In this project, we are looking for your insights regarding how an author distances himself from or aligns himself with the people he discusses. When you read between the lines, does the author’s language indicate that she likes or dislikes, say, Iran? Do you have any indications of how strongly she feels that way? (Though note that that is a slight oversimplification; we are actually interested in in-group/out-group dynamics, which is a bit broader and more indirect than simply “like” and “dislike”. That is, rather than “the author likes Iran because she says so directly in paragraph 2,” we are interested in “the author indicates that he supports Iran/likes Iran/is happy to have the same opinions as Iran/would like to be grouped with Iran in the readers’ minds, when he…(analysis of form of language used)”.)

We are interested especially in the rationale for what you understand from the text: What clues in the language and the presentation do you draw on in understanding the dynamics of the text?

Embrace your gut intuitions. Then examine the text closely to see why your gut reacted that way. If you don’t have any gut intuitions and the page stares up at you meaninglessly, start examining the text closely anyway. Look at each sentence or phrase independently before trying to combine them into a whole. What did it say? What did it imply? What did it not say that it could have? What did it try to avoid implying? What choices did the author make, and what effect did they have on you?

We are not interested in outside knowledge about alignments between groups (such as that no X person likes Y), except as it shows up in the actual language used.
We are interested in the widest variety of responses from the widest variety of people possible. We want a mix of backgrounds and skills to ensure a wide variety of perspectives on the issue. Every person selected contributes to a portion of that puzzle.

There are no “wrong answers” when the answer is tied to the language.

**Aim Overview & Arabic Examples**

As stated above, we are interested in looking into greater detail at the way that an author writes reveals what she thinks about the world. Much work in this vein has been done for English (mainly in the field of discourse analysis), but we want to extend it into MSA news articles, and build from the background and skill of as many people as possible in the process. The goal is to figure out how an author writes about people and how his language indicates whether he thinks of them as part of his in-group or out-group. For instance:

*جمال الملك المفرد

على الشعوب الفلسطيني الأعزل*

In these phrases, the underlined words aren’t actually necessary to the *content* of the text. The underlined words are just there to glorify His Majesty/emphasize the victimization of the Palestinians. (This excerpt seems to express positive alignment with both – the author likes His Majesty and empathizes with the Palestinians – although it is always important to look at the language in context, as any phrases may be used ironically.)

Similarly, an author might choose between صمود and عنداد depending on whether she liked or disliked the person she was talking about.

In the following phrase discussing Israel, the underlined portion appears explicitly, as a verb, attributing additional responsibility to Israel:

*ما ارتكبته وترتكبى من جرائم حرب ضد الإنسانية*

The use of a verb rather than a noun emphasizes Israel’s mindful choices to commit these actions, rather than presenting the actions as simply part of the background reality. The language chosen thus also emphasizes Israel’s responsibility for the negative consequences, and substantiates Israel’s position in the out-group.

However, these examples barely scratch the surface of the sorts of language that people might use to align/distance themselves from the people and occurrences they discuss. There is much more out there, and we want you to help identify it. The goal is to better understand how the in-group/out-group phenomenon works and manifests in Arabic. The more people who have different ideas and insights about it, the better. We look forward to hearing from you.

**Some Focusing Questions**

- Does the word choice at any point in the document tell you anything?
• Are there any meaningful word or phrase forms?
• Does the order that information is presented tell you anything? Order that sentences are structured? Any repetition?
• Does the style tell you anything?
• Are there any meaningful presentational choices?
• To what extent is the document self-contained?
• Are there changes in any of these things through the documents?
APPENDIX F: Detailed Explanation of Finalized Codebook

Ten factors were repeatedly identified as defining whether an individual was portrayed as an “in” or an “out” group (Table F-1). Additionally, thirteen factors were identified as contributing to “intensification” of a particular argument (Table F-2). Following the overview tables for each of these, in this section we provide a more lengthy discussion of each of the ten positioning factors. Additional examples and explanations can be found in the three “gold standard” coded documents, which are also available in this Appendix. (In addition to the prose included in this section, we have also prepared a 15-slide PowerPoint briefing with the codebook findings.)

Table F-1. Ten Factors were Identified that Define Whether an Entity is Portrayed as an “In” or “Out” Group in Arabic Prose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-Group</th>
<th>Out-Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Amount of attention</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much attention</td>
<td>Not represented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opinions represented</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully represented</td>
<td>Not represented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reference terminology</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respectful, human terminology</td>
<td>Disrespectful, inhuman terminology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Groupings</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With “good” entities;</td>
<td>With “bad” entities;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>against “bad” entities</td>
<td>against “good” entities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intimacy</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to “us”/the world</td>
<td>Distant from “us”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed power</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerful/involved</td>
<td>Weak/useless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed virtue</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glorified/canonized</td>
<td>Immoral/irresponsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed motivations</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral/cooperative</td>
<td>Non-neutral/ has negative motivations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attributed nature</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad attributes diminished;</td>
<td>Good attributes diminished;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>has fundamentally good nature</td>
<td>has fundamentally bad nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Victimization</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victimized/sufferer</td>
<td>Victimizer/aggressor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table F-2. Thirteen Factors were Identified that are Associated with Strengthening an Argument, rather than with any Particular Argument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Author’s Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Increases salience | Includes in title  
                    | Focuses attention  
                    | Notes first or near beginning  
                    | Notes last  
                    | Involves photo |
| Substantiates | Focuses on quantity/numbers  
                    | Uses examples/stories/imagery  
                    | Cites expert testimony/validating sources  
                    | Indicates naturalness of +/- grouping |
| Intensifies   | Uses intensifier/indicator of large magnitude  
                    | Uses repetition  
                    | Uses lists  
                    | Uses nominalization |

Amount of Attention/Representation

The amount of attention paid to each entity matters: more attention reflects more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, in-groups may receive significant amounts of authorial attention (that is, be the focus of the article). Their positions may also be fully represented in the article; quotations without critique in particular are a good indicator of this.

Out-groups, on the other hand, tend not to be represented. The author may include no quotes or comments from this group’s perspective (especially telling when that group is a central player). Alternatively, the author may not write anything favorable about that group, even when other groups are discussed favorably.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

> The article is insistent on informing the reader that this is a BBC report. In the 3rd paragraph it is introduced that the reporting came from a BBC reporter (whose name is given) at the summit, and subsequent paragraphs continue to reinforce that, coupled with the 1st person plural possessive suffix "our BBC reporter" said that:. . . Given the constant mentions, the BBC reporter almost becomes the "star" of the article.

16.LKE – Tulkrm.org (Palestine, 1/21/2009)

The consultant here refers to numerous occurrences in the text that raise her awareness of the high in-group nature of the BBC on the amount of attention/representation scale.

Reference Terminology

Reference terminology matters: more respect/humanization reflects more “in-ness”.
On this criterion, in-groups may be given special titles – especially titles that commonly reflect respect (such as سيد, “Mr.”), exceptionally-praising titles (such as “his majesty”), or the desired title of the group in question (such as “Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques” for the Saudi king). References may also be personalized or humanized through invocation of the idea that there are actual living, breathing people behind the entity, or there may be additional positive words that accompany the name or are used instead of it.

Out-groups, on the other hand, may be referred to in a manner that reflects distance from the author: the group’s chosen name may be avoided altogether, or scare quotes may surround it. References may lack individualization or be depersonalized, and a negative description may accompany the name or be used instead of it.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

> Notably, in paragraph 4, the author writes, "الفلسطينيين والإسرائيل" [Palestinians and Israel]. This phrase from my point of view reinforces the idea of the Palestinians as a people by using the plural nisba, while Israel is simply a place.

74.MS – Ayam (West Bank, 6/10/2009)

In this excerpt, the consultant refers to a particular occurrence in the text that contrasted reference terms for Palestine and Israel, indicating alignment with the Palestinians as a people and distancing from Israel.

**Groupings**

The entity groupings given in the actual content of the work matter: grouping someone with positive entities reflects more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, groups that are associated overtly with “good” entities or historical occurrences/movements are perceived as “good”. Similarly, those that are overtly contrasted with “bad” entities or historical occurrences/movements are perceived as “good”. Additionally, the people (as opposed to the government) of a country are generally positioned as inherently good, so a government that is shown in the text as aligned with its people should generally be included on the “in-group” side along this criterion.

Out-groups, on the other hand, are overtly associated with “bad” entities or historical occurrences/movements. They may also be overtly associated with being aligned against the people, or contrasted to “good” entities.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

> Furthermore, the phrase بالقتال عسكري is clearly not a neutral descriptor ("military coup") but is meant to contrast Hamas' illegitimacy with the previously legitimate government. I would also suggest that the use of الشرعية [which is very similar to Sharia] for "legitimate" is meant as a critique of Hamas by using vaguely Islamic language to describe Hamas' predecessors. The author could have used المشروعة instead.

96.WS – Al-Ahram (Egypt, 12/29/2009)
The consultant here points to how Hamas is negatively contrasted with the previous government, setting up a dichotomy between the two, and then further looks to the language to associate Hamas’s predecessors with shared positive historical ideas.

**Intimacy**

The intimacy of address matters: more intimate/close descriptions reflect more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, groups that are embraced are perceived as “good” or the “in-group”. Those groups may be explicitly coupled to the idea of “us” in the language of the article, or they may be positioned by the author as close family members (“our sister Doha”). The author may also be clearly identified with the group he is discussing, for instance through dialectal markers. Furthermore, intimacy may be indicated through the centrality of the group to the idea of “us”, or the idea that this group is supported by “everyone”.

Out-groups, on the other hand, are held at a distance. Their words are clearly separated from the rest of the text rather than being integrated through paraphrases that merge into the authorial content, and they are positioned as outside the “us” of the writer/reader pair. They are not central to the idea of “us”, and may be represented as isolated or opposed by “everyone”.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

> The author is very sure to distance himself/herself from the opinion of the Egyptian Minister on Hamas. The phrase “for what he called [...]”, shows this distancing: لما قال انه. The usage of ‘what’ here indicates that the author does not accept the Minister's criticism of Hamas's ascent to power as a coup d'etat. 'What' here relativized (and in a sense delegitimized) the criticism that was to follow.

21.JW – Al Qabas (Kuwait, 1/17/2009)

The consultant here points to the language form used to separate the quotation of the Egyptian minister from the rest of the text. Instead of integrating that quote directly into his prose, the author uses a relativizing pronoun plus additional words; this choice separates the content structurally as well as visually from the rest of the text.

**Attributed Power**

The amount of power attributed matters: more power/involvement reflects more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, groups that actively cause good events to happen are themselves “good”. They may have either the strength or power to accomplish good things, and often, they use that power. Verbs and nouns attributed to the group may indicate strength, rather than themselves being weak (such as “stress”, “emphasize”, or “order” instead of “say”). Additionally, the group may be positioned as a catalyst for change. In-groups on this criterion are effective, or at least are presented by the author’s prose as being strong enough to have the capacity to be effective.

Out-groups, on the other hand, do not make progress. They are stuck in old ways, ineffective, and may be indecisive or contradict themselves. Out-groups are weak, and may give in to
others’ demands, or be portrayed as “brainless”. They may also be portrayed as lacking importance and being only tangential to a topic.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

The use of the word [activists] as opposed to protesters immediately portrays the demonstrators in a positive light. An 'activist' usually seeks peaceful means to express his or her (being active in regards to a condition) dismay while a 'protester' seeks to express negative sentiment alone regarding an issue - sometimes ending in violence. … The use of verbs and verbal nouns further emphasis their initiative and participation in solidarity.

80.KK – Al Jazeera (Qatar, 1/1/2010)

The consultant here points to a particular noun choice that positions the protestors as working toward positive change, and then notes the author’s additional structural choices that uphold that notion: in particular, the use of verbs and verbal nouns, rather than static nouns.

Attributed Virtue

The amount of virtue attributed matters: more virtue reflects more “in-ness”.

On the positive end of this criterion, groups may be upheld as positive examples for others to follow. They may also be praised as responsible, committed, respect-worthy, selfless, or truthful. The overwrought positive rhetoric of which Arabic is fond is often used to attribute virtue to a particular entity. If the group has not been particular powerful, it may nevertheless be shown to be “doing its best” and thus morally virtuous. Additionally, the group may be explicitly connected to God, perhaps presented as righteous and on moral high-ground, or perhaps just with unnecessary invocations of the divine (such as through prose that explicitly states “God rest his soul” or “God bless him”).

Out-groups, on the other hand, are not quick to do good things. They may wait on the sidelines for others to take the initiative, or may need to be manipulated into doing good. They are unresponsive and unreliable, as well as ineffective and selfish. If there is a “good” event or initiative, they may not attend. Additionally, they may be engaged in immoral, corrupt or criminal acts; they are not trustworthy.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

Opening the Rafah border is presented as a positive option to aid people in Gaza who are facing a "mahraqah" (holocaust). The fact that "daght" (pressure) is needed to persuade Egypt to allow aid into Gaza puts Egypt in a negative light, unwilling to help those suffering.

41.AGK – El Khabar (Algeria, 1/16/2009)

The consultant here points to a particular word choice that positions Egypt as not virtuously devoted to helping those who suffer, but instead requiring of moral guidance from elsewhere.
Attributed Motivations

The type of motivations attributed matters: more neutral motivations reflect more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, the in-group is neutral and cooperative. It can see all sides and is able to negotiate and mediate. It may be portrayed as “above politics”.

Although out-groups are not often explicitly accused of having negative motivations, the author may subtly or none-so-subtly question the group’s ability to be neutral, for instance through juxtaposition of additional quasi-unrelated information. A negative interpretation of the world may even be presupposed and spoon fed to the reader.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

[and Russia plays a mediating role in the conflict]: Here he mentions Russia’s political role as a mediator, but then he makes sure to mention that Russia is against Georgia entering the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) [sic].

49.LJ – Al-Manar (Lebanon, 8/4/2009)

The consultant here points to a quasi-neutral portrayal of Russia, but also to the author’s inclusion of extra quasi-relevant discrediting information.

Attributed Nature

The type of nature attributed matters: a more positive nature reflects more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, the in-group’s bad acts (or the bad implications of their acts) are ignored. The responsibility for any bad acts on the part of this group is not directly attributed to the group; the group escapes moral judgment. The negative aspects of the group may be hypothetical or limited, if they cannot be avoided entirely; scare quotes may be used here to reduce the negativity of a negative word. The positives of this group, on the other hand, are portrayed as lasting, and the group’s positive future potential may be focused on.

Out-groups, on the other hand, are portrayed as having an immoral/negative nature; the author may go beyond individual acts to hypothesize about the nature of the entity itself. Change for the better is portrayed as unlikely. Direct responsibility is attributed for bad acts, and moral judgment may be called down. Any positives of this group are downgraded and portrayed as limited; scare quotes in particular may render a neutral or positive idea more negative.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

In the minister's phrasing in the second paragraph that Israel has "proved" more than ever before that it is a: "state founded on aggression and occupation", the minister moves beyond the immediate situation to generalize about the nature of the Israeli state itself.

53.JS – Al Thawra (Syria, 1/17/2009)
The consultant here notes that the minister, rather than portraying Israel’s negative aspects as hypothetical or limited, portrays Israel’s negative aspects as a fundamental part of its character.

**Victimization**

The amount of suffering attributed matters: more victimization reflects more “in-ness”.

On this criterion, groups that are objects of direct harm are in-groups. Additionally, people who suffer are part of the in-group, especially when it is called out that “even women and children (and sheikhs)” suffer. However, although these groups are in-groups on this criterion, they are often portrayed as powerless and may even be pawns in larger battles; a high “in-group” score on this criterion alone does not ensure the author is completely aligned with the group in question.

Out-groups, on the other hand, are portrayed as threatening innocents and being responsible for harming others. They may be portrayed as savage or barbaric; they inspire fear. Out-groups may also be coercive.

In this realm, one document analysis consultant wrote:

> The author refers to Israel as committing acts of "barbaric aggression," killing thousands of martyrs, who are a "heroic people." This **juxtaposition** of barbarism v. heroism clearly looks down upon Israel.

38.MR – RFD (Mauritania, 1/17/2009)

The consultant here points to numerous occurrences in the text that raise her awareness of the strong out-group nature of Israel on the victimization scale.
APPENDIX G: Gold Standard Documents

As part of this project, three documents were coded in detail according to NSI’s readings, focus group readings, and document consultant readings. These documents serve as "gold standards" that exemplify in-depth analyses (Table G-1). They are useful not only for demonstration purposes, but also as training aids.

Table G-1. Characteristics of Representative Documents included in Gold Standard Discourse Analyses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document 89</th>
<th>Document 21</th>
<th>Document 84</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Title</strong></td>
<td>رسالة &quot;الرضوان&quot;</td>
<td>اجتماع الدوحة (قمة غزة الطازجة) ينعى مبادرة السلام العربية</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Source Country</strong></td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
<td>Alghad.com</td>
<td>Al Qabas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date</strong></td>
<td>7/20/2008</td>
<td>1/17/2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length</strong></td>
<td>1.5 pages / 614 words</td>
<td>2.5 pages / 1220 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pictures?</strong></td>
<td>none</td>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genre</strong></td>
<td>editorial</td>
<td>news</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Summary</strong></td>
<td>Argues that although the moderates may have a better position, only Hamas and Hezbollah make Israel even slightly engage.</td>
<td>Concerns the Doha Summit to support Gaza.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In-Groups:</strong></td>
<td>Hamas, Hezbollah, Palestine</td>
<td>Doha Summit, Gaza, Hamas, Iran, Lebanon, Qatar, Sudan, Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neutral Groups:</strong></td>
<td>Arabs, moderates, USA</td>
<td>Algeria, Arabs, Comoros, Djibouti, GCC, Indonesia, Iraq, Islamic Jihad, Kuwait Summit, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, OIC, Palestine-government, Palestine-people, PFLP, Senegal, Turkey, USA, UN, West Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Out-Groups:</strong></td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Israel, non-attendees of Doha Summit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NASIC Batch:</strong></td>
<td>Second batch of documents</td>
<td>First batch of documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NSI Readings?</strong></td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consultant Readings?</strong></td>
<td>5 consultants</td>
<td>3 consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus Group?</strong></td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The detailed readings follow. The documents are annotated with section footnotes; the footnotes contain tags and lengthy explanations, explaining the ten rhetorical devices uncovered by this project further through example. The annotations are followed by a table that counts the tags used in each document, and a chart that visualizes the tag count information.
رسالة "الرضوان"

أسر سمير قطرا قاتلها في جبهة التحرير الفلسطينية. وتحرر مواليا لحزب الله. وذلك تحول طبيعي. فجبهة التحرير الفلسطينية بانت شبه أطلال لا ذكر لها. المقاومة في لبنان ورثها حزب الله حمصا. حزب الله أراد تحرير القطار على يديه رسالة أنه مظلة كل المقاومين. بدين عميد الأسرى العرب بحريته إلى حزب الله.

ويرى مستقبله معه.

يزه حزب الله انجازه. ويعيد له ذلك. فقد وعد أن يحرر القطار ووفي. وهو بهذا الإنجاز يستعيد ما خسره عرضا من شعبية بعد أن وجه سلاحه إلى الداخل ليضمن لصالحه صراعا سياسيا فرضته الأطماع الإقليمية على لبنان. كلفة الإنجاز لا تدخل في الحاسة. لا تذكر لها في احتفالات نصر تحرير الأسرى. ولا قيمة لها عند منها الألف من العرب المحتضن المنتشرين لأي نصر وباقي ثمن.

تحري سمير القطار ورفاقه واستعادة رفات دلال الغربي وعشرات الشهداء الآخر يشرع الأبواب والمناظر على إطلاق بين متعجر في التعامل مع إسرائيل: منهج المقاومة المسلحة وسياسة الحدود. وسبستنتهم، كثر من متنا بالحوار سبيلا لاستعادة الأرض والحقوق، أن إسرائيل لا تفهم إلا ارادة القوة. تلك هي الرسالة التي تبلغها "عملية الرضوان". هذه الرسالة تبعث أمنية وثقافية وسياسية ستضعف أكثر في الاعتدال الذي أرسلته إسرائيل، وآمركا.

فقد فعلت قوى الاعتدال كل ما في وسعها للوصول إلى سلام مع إسرائيل. 14 قدمت التفاوض وفرضت المبادرات التي تقرر إسرائيل بحقها بالوجود والعيش بأمام 16 مقاول استرجاع الفلسطينيين. 18 19 جزءا من حقهم في وطنهم. 20 21 وإقامة دولتهم المستقلة. لكن إسرائيل ظلت على هضبتها. 22 تقتل وتختطف وتحاصر وترفض تقليد مطالب السلام. 24 عزت إسرائيل قوى الاعتدال 25 26 27 وآوت المنطقة سنة. 28 تذوب إسرائيل بعض الأسم الذي فرضته على الفلسطينيين، بعض النظر عن موازين القوة ومن دون الانفتاح إلى الثمن.

30 بالمقابل، 32 ابت إسرائيل كل ما طلبه حزب الله. 33 نسبت من جنوب لبنان إلى العام 34 2000 مجزرة. 35 ووضعت لستطيع تحرير سمير قطرا في عملية تبادل كانت شنت حربا على لبنان للحول دونها. رسالة إسرائيل إلى العرب أن القوة تنجل حيث تفشل الدبلوماسية. أغبية إسرائيل 36 حدد عدم استعدادها نتائج تصرفاتها؟ طلقا. 37 إسرائيل تصرف انطلاقا من سياسة راسخة تفرض قوى الاعتدال وتسعي إلى تدمير كل فرصة. 38 وهي ترى في إضعاف قوى الاعتدال وتقوا دعاء خيار للقوة سبيلا لحمايتها من البلاد الذي تخشاه خطرًا.

إسرائيل لا تريد السلام. 39 استراتيجيتها مبنية على القناعة التالية: ثمن السلام الانسحاب من الأراضي المحتلة وقيام الدولة الفلسطينية المستقلة، كلفة غياب السلام هو التخليل الذي يمثله حزب الله، وحماس وغيرهما من الحركات التي تنتهج خط المقاومة المسلحة. 40 في حساباتها الاستراتيجية، 41 تعتبر إسرائيل
العيش مع الخطر الأمني المحدود لحماس وحزب الله خيراً أفضل وأقل كلفة من الانسحاب من الأراضي المحتملة.

الدولة الإسرائيلية تسعى بوعي لإضعاف قوى الاعتدال. ولا فكيف يمكن تفسير بقاء أسرى أردنيين ومصريين في المعتقلات بعد عقود من السلام الرسمي بينما يخرج أسرى حزب الله مظفرين؟ وكيف يمكن فهم إجراء إسرائيل المستمر للسلطة الوطنية الفلسطينية عبر الاستمرار في مفاوضات عقيدة لا توفر إسرائيل فرصة لإثبات عدمها من خلال الاستمرار في الحصار ومصادرة الأرض وقتل الأبرياء؟

تظل المنطقة أسرة الصراع لأن إسرائيل تزيدها كذلك. ويقهر منطق المفاوضات أمام لغة القوة لأن إسرائيل تثبت أنها لا تستجيب إلا للسلاح. بيد أن الأيام ستنتهي، إسرائيل قبل غيرها، كارثية سياستها حين يفقد الناس الأملا لكل شيء إلا السلاح، ثُمّ إلى استرجاع حق طال انتهاكه.

تحرير القنطار ورفاقه نصر على قامة المقاومة. ولتدفع إسرائيل، وستدفع، ثُمّ هذا النصر، سيادة لمنطق القوة واندحارا لنهج الاعتدال يبدو يفعل السياسات الإسرائيلية. قريماً عاجزاً أمام هذه القامة.

Document Annotations

1. “support for Hezbollah is liberating” – positive assessment of Hezbollah (HEZBOLLAH:POS_POWER)
2. يدين عدي المسرى العرب ب حرية إلى حزب الله: Hezbollah causes good things to happen; the prisoners’ freedom is owed to Hezbollah (HEZBOLLAH:POS_POWER)
3. يزهو حزب الله بإنجازه. ويعق له ذلك: Hezbollah is proud of its successes (indicators of Hezbollah’s power and strength in getting results) and is entitled to be proud of them (positive moral assessment of Hezbollah’s actions) (HEZBOLLAH:POS_POWER; HEZBOLLAH:POS_VIRTUE)
4. فقد وعد أن يحرر القنطار ووفي: Hezbollah follows through and is effective (HEZBOLLAH:POS_POWER)
5. بهذا الإنجاز: the phrasing as “this achievement” indicates authorial alignment with Hezbollah in two ways: 1) the use of “this” instead of “that” (HEZBOLLAH:POS_INTIMACY), 2) the use “achievement” to spin the occurrence as something positive (HEZBOLLAH:POS_VIRTUE)
6. The word choice (“political conflict imposed by territorial ambitions/greed”) makes Hezbollah seem petty and greedy (HEZBOLLAH:NEG_VIRTUE).

7. casts some doubt on the achievement by way of pointing toward its costs, but doesn’t connect the doubt overtly to Hezbollah, leaving Hezbollah positive (however, the positive outcomes included earlier in the document are indeed directly connected to Hezbollah) (HEZBOLLAH:POS_NATURE).

8. parallel structures highlight Palestinian destitution (PALESTINE:POS_INTENSIFIER).

9. names particular people, thereby humanizing them and the Palestinian cause (PALESTINE:POS_REFERENCE), lists “dozens” of others (PALESTINE:POS_INTENSIFIER), calls them “martyrs” (PALESTINE:POS_REFERENCE); all of these positives for Palestine also indicate alignment against Israel (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING).

10. word choice of “restoration” implies Palestinians have lost something (PALESTINE:POS_VICTIMIZATION).

11. have concluded that Israel only understands the language of force (ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS).

12. the idea of “further weakening” the stream of moderation implies that the moderates are already weak and harried (MODERATES:NEG_POWER), but the fact that the author mentions weakness as an effect at all implies that he cares and believes the moderates shouldn’t be as weak as they are (MODERATES:POS_INTIMACY); this is also a critique of Hezbollah, who is causing the negative weakening of moderate elements in Palestinian and Arab society (HEZBOLLAH:NEG_VIRTUE).

13. Israel and America caused the stream of moderation to fail (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; USA:NEG_VIRTUE); this suggests the moderates are good and should have succeeded, but were the victims of Western actions (MODERATES:POS_VICTIMIZATION). Israel is the aggressor, the one who thwarted the moderates (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION).

14. the moderates have already done all they are able (MODERATES:POS_MOTIVATIONS); this idea is intensified with the words (MODERATES:POS_INTENSIFIER). Although the moderates have done all they could, their goal of a diplomatic solution hasn’t been met; given the dichotomy of the article, Israel is at fault (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING).

15. examples and lists substantiate everything that the moderates have done – indicates how virtuous they are at due diligence (MODERATES:POS_VIRTUE; MODERATES:POS_INTENSIFIER).
uses the place name “Israel” rather than personalizing the reference (e.g., “Israelis”), although part of what the author is discussing here (such as the “right to live in security”) is actually something that individuals have, rather than states. As a result, there is some distancing in the reference (ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE) – especially in contrast to “Palestinians” later in the sentence.

“Palestinians” personalizes and humanizes the reference to this group of people, because it grammatically contains multiple individuals (PALESTINE:POS_REFERENCE); contrasts with use of “Israel” earlier in the sentence

contrasts the moderates’ recognition of Israel’s right to exist and be safe, with the Palestinians who do not have a state and are not safe from attacks (MODERATES:POS_MOTIVATIONS; PALESTINE:POS_VICTIMIZATION); also therefore implicitly contrasts Israel’s lack of recognition of the Palestinians’ right to a state and to be safe (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

presupposes a dichotomy between Israel’s rights and Palestinian rights, which further emphasizes the distinction between the good Palestinians and the bad Israelis (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING; PALESTINE:POS_GROUPING)

the possessive pronoun is “their” (in contrast to Israel’s “its” for similar ideas earlier) (PALESTINE:POS_REFERENCE; ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE)

this word has more of a “home” or “homeland” connotation than other options like دولة, which is more political – this helps represent the Palestinians and their desires as those of actual people (PALESTINE:POS_REFERENCE); the choice of وطن indicates a more Palestinian perspective on the author’s part (PALESTINE:POS_INTIMACY)

two aspects to this: Israel is “arrogant” (negative characterization, further emphasized by the possessive on “arrogance”) (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE), and Israel is “continuing to be arrogant” (extends the negative characterization in time, making it more of an actual character flaw rather than a one-time reaction) (ISRAEL:NEG_NATURE)

list of verbs with very negative spin substantiates Israel being a “bad” entity (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

reiterates that Israel is not willing to work for peace (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

the verb choice of “expose” for what Israel did to the moderate forces implies that 1) the moderate approach is indeed useless in reality (the verb “expose” presupposes the truth of what is exposed) (MODERATES:NEG_POWER), and 2) that the moderate forces do not want others to recognize this fact (the verb “expose” presupposes that the information was hidden) (MODERATES:NEG_VIRTUE). The author thus subtly constructs a reality in which the moderates are wrong, possibly deluded, and working for something that has no usefulness. The author thereby distances the moderates and their beliefs from those of the author (MODERATES:NEG_INTIMACY).
Israel is a powerful victimizer that keeps the entire region hostage (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION)

Israel is a victimizer, enabling and contributing to oppression and deprivation; Israel is the cause of suffering in the region (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION)

defined a large number of Arabs paying (being the cost of) the choice not to use force (MODERATES:NEG_INTENSIFIER); the reference to numbers helps substantiate the author’s argument, and the positioning of the Arabs as victims or pawns indicates the author is pointing out this inequality/problem on their behalf (he’s on their side), for the sake of his own argument (ARABS:POS_VICTIMIZATION; ARABS:POS_INTIMACY)

Israel here is the oppressor/victimizer: Israel “imposes” (a verbal construction, which emphasizes responsibility) grief (a negative that everyone seeks to avoid) on Palestinians (the preposition shows the Palestinians to be passive victims) (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION; PALESTINE:POS_VICTIMIZATION); the Palestinians are individualized as people with the plural nisba (PALESTINE:POS_REFERENCE); the idea that Israel has “sugarcoated” the grief suggests that at times, the Palestinians experience even greater grief than is shown, further substantiating their victim status (PALESTINE:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

positions Israel and the moderates as careless and/or uncaring of the rest of the world and the effect they are having on it: positions them as supremely and only self-interested (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; MODERATES:NEG_VIRTUE)

implies that the “price” is paid by the Arabs themselves, especially given the occurrence of earlier; positions Israel and the moderates as victimizers and the Arabs generally as paying the price as victims (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION; MODERATES:NEG_VICTIMIZATION; ARABS:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

overtly introduces contrast between approaches of Hezbollah and the moderate forces, separating those two further from each other and maintaining the dichotomy the author set up earlier in the piece; however, as neither approach is associated entirely with “good”, the POS_GROUPING and NEG_GROUPING tags are inappropriate

grandiose terms to indicate that Israel is actually responsive to Hezbollah, which implies strongly that Hezbollah is powerful – more so than the diplomatic forces (HEZBOLLAH:POS_POWER)

the author is most specific when describing Hamas and Hezbollah’s successes, revealing the importance he ascribes to them and making them most salient for the audience (HAMAS:POS_INTENSIFIER; HEZBOLLAH:POS_INTENSIFIER)

examples substantiate the implied claim that Hezbollah is powerful (HEZBOLLAH:POS_INTENSIFIER)
36. strong negative vocabulary to describe Israeli policies (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

37. author is assured in his argument (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

38. damaging characterization of Israel as seeking to destroy all chance of peace; Israel is portrayed as having wonky, if not quite evil, values (ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS; ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

39. repetition of the idea Israel does not want peace (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER). Additionally, this short, declarative sentence contrasts with the long, complex sentences preceding it to further increase its salience (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER), and it starts off a paragraph (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER).

40. includes Hamas as one of the groups attempting armed resistance against Israel (HAMAS:POS_GROUPING)

41. positions Israel as a purely self-interested and calculating entity that exchanges its own lack of security and fairness to Palestinians (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

42. directly attributes responsibility for Israel’s lack of security to Hamas and Hezbollah – they are both implicated as actively wreaking vengeance on the bad guy of Israel, which is both bad (actively wreaking vengeance, causing pain) and good (it’s against the bad guy, Israel) (HAMAS:POS_GROUPING; HEZBOLLAH:POS_GROUPING; ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING; HAMAS:NEG_VICTIMIZATION; HEZBOLLAH:NEG_VICTIMIZATION)

43. the entire paragraph is very neutral and not particularly negative regarding Israel. The argument put forth is phrased in a way that Israel might phrase it – it isn’t histrionic, it uses euphemisms when it comes to the failings of the Israeli state (“lack of security” rather than descriptions of what that lack of security means), it explicitly blames Hamas and Hezbollah, and it explains the options as they appear to Israel (ISRAEL:POS_REPRESENTED).

44. Israel is again shown to be calculating (ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS) – although Hamas and Hezbollah are not capable of ending the occupation, neither are the diplomatic moderate forces (as shown earlier in article)

45. word choice of “exploitation” here characterizes Israel negatively – the agents of the verb “exploit” are engaged in a morally-wrong action. Israel is looking for excuses to reject peace (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATION).
This is a self-centered, immoral aim (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS). The audience’s ability to believe this statement is increased by the way that the author has previously positioned himself as neutral, such as in the previous paragraph that could have come from Israel’s own mouth (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER).

47 the conflict between Israel and Hezbollah/Hamas is “Israel’s conflict” – the Israeli possessive on the word “conflict” attributes the blame for the conflict squarely and only to Israel (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING)

48 two aspects to this word: the negative word characterizes Israel as obnoxious, and the possessive more closely links Israel with the negative content (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

49 although Israel isn’t doing positive things, it is concerned with looking good to the world – Israel is being false and has negative motivations for its actions (ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS)

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52 although Israel isn’t doing positive things, it is concerned with looking good to the world – Israel is being false and has negative motivations for its actions (ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS)

53 places the blame for lack of peace solely at Israel’s feet with this explanation without any other words (Israel is not virtuous) (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE); invokes continuing nature of this blame with (ISRAEL:NEG_NATURE); this idea of Israel holding the region hostage is repeated from earlier in the article (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

54 further strengthens the argument that the author has been building in the article (the verb “prove” presupposes multiple events clearly pointing to what is “proven”, as well as the truth of the statement) (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER). Additionally, the categorical negation of the possibility that Israel would respond to something other than force positions Israel as selfish and unresponsive (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE).

55 presupposes that the people have lost faith in everything but violence, and asserts that therefore Israel’s policy is disastrous. The author here associates Israel with a negative idea (disaster) (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING) and then with continuing violence (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING).
reiterates from above that freeing these men was a victory, with the implied actor of Hezbollah; the message is “Hezbollah does good things and is effective at them” (HEZBOLLAH:POS_POWER)

repetition of letters, and then later repetition of word at end of paragraph, associates the resistance with high stature (raised stature), and giantness – both big and good things (HEZBOLLAH:POS_INTENSIFIER; HAMAS:POS_INTENSIFIER; HEZBOLLAH:POS_GROUPING; HAMAZ:POS_GROUPING)

The following table reviews the counts of document annotation types for example gold standard analysis of Document 89 (رسالة الوضوح). Israel is characterized very negatively and Palestine very positively (although mainly in terms of humanizing references and as a victim, rather than as an actor in its own right). Hezbollah and Hamas are characterized more positively than negatively, and Hezbollah in particular is characterized as a powerful actor for good. The “moderate forces” are relatively neutrally characterized; the author addresses both their benefits and flaws.

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<th>Moderates</th>
<th>Hamas</th>
<th>Arabs</th>
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The following chart reviews the scored version of entities in Document 89 (رسالة الرضوان) with >2 tags, standardized to a 1 (all tags in-group) to -1 (all tags out-group) scale.
Document 89 (رسالة "الرضوان")

Positive Standardized Score
Negative Standardized Score
Net Score

Hezbollah, Israel, Palestine, Moderates, Hamas, Arabs
دعا الاجتماع التشاوري في الدوحة الذي عقد تحت عنوان "قمة غزة الطارئة" إلى دعم فلسطيني القطاع وتعلق بمبادرة السلام العربية.

وأكد أمير قطر الشيخ حمد بن خليفة آل ثاني في كلمته الإفتتاحية أنه لا تناقض بين قمة الدوحة وقمة الكويت الاقتصادية، وقال: "لكننا اليوم وحيدًا لندارسوا معنا الوضع حول هذه الطائفة حتى لو كان لهم رأي آخر"، معرضاً عن اتفاق لغياب الرئيس الفلسطيني محمود عباس عن القمة.

وندب مؤتمر غزّة بعد صلاة الجمعة بعد تأجيل سابقاً لوصول المزيد من الوفود، بحضور لافت للرئيس محمود أحمد رئيس جمعية السلام ووزير الخارجية منوشه مركزي، إضافة إلى الرئيس السنغالي عبد الله ود إضافة إلى ممثلين عن تركيا وألمانيا.

وحضر الاجتماع قادة ووزراء من اثنين عشرة دولة عربية، فيما طلبت كرسي الدول العربية التي لم تحضر الاجتماع فارغة في قاعة الجلسة. وبينها كرسي فلسطيني لا سيما بعد اعلان الرئيس الفلسطيني محمود عباس اعتذاره عن الحضور.

وجلس رئيس المكتب السياسي لحركة حماس خالد مشعل، إلى طلوع المراقبين خلف لافتة حملت اسمه فقط، كما حضر ممثلوا سبع قطاعات فلسطينية أخرى بقيادة أمين عام حركة الجهاد الإسلامي رمضان شلح والأمين العام للجبهة الشعبية لتحرير فلسطين، بقيادة فاضل جبريل، وكانوا قد وصلوا إلى الدوحة على متن طائرة طوربيد خاصة أرسلها أمير قطر، وردوا على سؤال ما إذا كان سيسجل في مقعدهم فلسطين.

وذكر مشعل مرتين "نحن نعرف الأصول".

المشاركة العربية 12 دولة وخمسة رؤساء، منهم رؤساء سوريا بشار الأسد وليد نافع شلجم والجزائر عبد العزيز بوتفليقة والسودان عمر البشير وزعيمقتر يابان عبد الطيب ساماني ورئيس المجلس الاعلى في موريتانيا الجنرال محمد ولد عبد العزيز، بالإضافة إلى نائب الرئيس العراقي طارق الهادي وأمين اللجنة الشعبية العامة الليبية في مجلس الوزراء في القاهرة الصحراوي الشامي، وغيرهم.

ووزير الاقوام الجيوسي خالد عبد سلطان، في حين كان لافتًا تغيب جميع دول مجلس التعاون الخليجي باستثناء قطر.

صخرة الصمود الفلسطينية من جانب، أكد الرئيس المكتب السياسي لحماس خالد مشعل أن "العدوان على غزة سيحصل على صخرة الصمود"، مشيرًا إلى أن الحركة لن تقبل بالشروط الإسرائيلية لوقف النار، لأن مقاومة على
ارض غزة لم تهزم، داعيا الدول العربية إلى وقف كل اشكال التطبيع مع إسرائيل، معتبرا أن الخلل ليس في الصف العربي إنما في العدو الصهيوني، وأن التسوية معه لم تجلب سوى فرض لأمر الواقع من طرف واحد. وقال أن غزّة لا يبردون الحليب والغذاء بل يريدون الحرية والحياة الكريمة شأن سائر شعوب العالم، وأكد ضرورة رفع الحصار وفتح المدارس ودوا العرب إلى رعاية حوار من أجل المصالحة الوطنية الفلسطينية.

مدخل للتحاور

في المقابل، شهد الرئيس اللبناني ميشال سليمان 44 على أهمية التضامن العربي وعلى التمسك بمبادرة السلام العربية، وقال إن مؤتمر الدوحة التضامني مع غزّة 47 يجب على أي تكريس للانقسام العربي وسياسة المحاور بل كمدخل لمزيد من الوعي والتشاور والتحاور، وأضاف أنه لا بد أن ننطلق من هذا الاجتماع إلى بلورة موقف عربي موحد 48 ليس فقط من مسألة العدوان بل بالتوافق على استراتيجيّة أوروبية شاملة موحدة 49 مواجهة المجل التحديات، وللزام العدو 50 تطبيق مبادرة السلام التي أقرت بالإجماع في قمة بيرو عام 2002.

وأفاد سليمان جهوزية بيروت لبذل جهد 51 للتوافق بين المواقف العربية وتوحيدها، مشيرًا إلى أن المواقف تبقى من دون فعالية إذا لم تتفكّروا بقرارات وتداعيب عمليّة لوقف العدوان وتوفير مكونات الصمود.

نعى مبادرة السلام العربية

من جهته، أعلن الرئيس السوري بشار الأسد 52 أن مبادرة السلام العربية مع إسرائيل ماتت منذ انتقائها عندما ارتكب شارون جرائم جنّين 53 وقشب نجلها من سجل الإحساء إلى سجل الأمور، ودعا كل الدول العربية إلى إنهاء كل الروابط مع الدولة اليهودية 54، وقال إن كل الروابط المباشرة وغير المباشرة مع إسرائيل يجب ان تقطع احتجاجًا على الهجدوم على غزّة 55.

وقال إن بلاده قررت من جانبها ابقاق المفاوضات غير المباشرة مع الكيان الصهيوني إلى أجل غير مسمى، مؤكداً ضرورة دعم المقاومة الفلسطينية 59 في وجه إسرائيل التي وصفها بأنها [الشكل الخطر للنازية 61 في العصر الحديث].

وذلك، أكّد الرئيس السوداني عمر البشير 63 أن السلام لا يعني الاستسلام ودعاه إلى [إسحب نهائي للمبادرة العربية للسلام و] إبقاف أي محاولات تطبيع مع إسرائيل 64 وإنها وجودها الدبلوماسي في الدول العربية، متماشيا على ضرورة وحدة الصف العربي في مواجهة حرب الإبادة التي تشنها إسرائيل في غزّة تحت سمع وبصر الإدارة الدولية.

وفي كلمته، شدد نائب الرئيس العراقي طارق الهاشمي 65 على موقف بلاده الداعم لقضية الفلسطينية وشعب الفلسطيني في تغيير مصيره ضمن دولة مستقلة عاصمتها القدس، وحول قضية اللاجئين وفق قرار حق العودة الصادر عن مجلس الأمن 66 معيّناً عن أمله في أن تكون [محنة غزّة 70] وسيلة لجميع الصف العربي لا لشرذمه، ودعا إلى إنهاء الخلافات الداخلية الفلسطينية والتفاعلك والارتداد إلى مسؤولية ترتيب البيت الداخلي الفلسطيني 71.

ورأى ضرورة للتصدي للعدوان الإسرائيلي 72 ووقف إطلاق النار متزامنا مع الانسحاب وفتح المدارس ورفع الحصار عن غزّة، ودعا إلى البدء في حملة إغاثة عالمية لغزّة 73 مع قيام الجامعة العربية بالتقديم بموضوع قرار إلى مجلس الأمن من أجل إدانة العدوان واحضار إسرائيل للعقوبات الدولية وفق الفصل السابع من
ميثاق الأمم المتحدة باعتبارها تهدد الأمن والسلام في المنطقة والعالم.

بدورها، قال رئيس جمهورية جزر القمرعيد الله سامي

إن أحداث غزة فرضت نفسها على الساحة العربية، مشدداً على ضرورة نبذ الخلافات والتوحد لمناصرة الشعب الذي يدجح، وطالب بوقف فوري لإطلاق النار

وإنهاء الحصار.

إلى ذلك، دعا الرئيس السنغالي، الرئيس الحالي لمنظمة المؤتمر الإسلامي عبد الله واد، إلى عقد قمة

إسلامية طارئة لبحث الوضع في غزة.

ملتطلب قطر إلى قمة الكويت

من جهة ثانية، أعلن وزير الخارجية السوري وليد المعلم

أن مطالب [قمة غزة الطارئة] 81 في الدوحة

ستحال إلى قمة الكويت الاقتصادية 82، وتشمل المطالب الثمانية لامير قطر، ومن يرد ان يضم [فأهلا

وسيلوا]؛ إضافًا: [يجب أن تكون غزة في قلب قمة الكويت 83 وليس على

هامشها] 84. وأشار إلى أن قمة الدوحة عبرت عن رغبة الشعوب العربية وأن الرئيس الاسد لم يقصد أي

زعم عربي في كلمته حين قال 85 إن الروس الذين حضروا يفوقون إلى جانب شعوبهم وليس ضدهم، و

وإضاف 86: [نحن لا ننتهي أحد ولا ننتجي على أحد]، معتبرًا أن من يستمع إلى صوت شعبه يحفظ شعبه، ومن يستمع إلى صوت أمريكا ويراهن عليها يخسر شعبه وكل شيء.

البيان الختامي

دعا البيان الختامي لـ [قمة غزة الطارئة] لتفعيل مبادرة السلام العربية وإلغاء عمليات التطبيع مع

إسرائيل 89.

وطالب الاجتماع بالاعتراف بإجراءات فورية وفعالة [وقف العدوان على القطاع] 90، ودعا إلى رفع الحصار

والإلغاء كل القيود على تنقلات الأشخاص والمعابر وفتح المطار والميناء. كما دعا إلى تقديم المساعدات

والإغاثة لقطاع غزة 91 وحماية منظمات الإغاثة العامة هناك 92، ودعا كذلك الدول العربية والدول المحطة

للسعود 93 إلى تشكيك جسر بحري لصالح مواد إغاثة لغزة.

وافق المشاركون في المؤتمر أيضًا على الدعوة لإنشاء صندوق لدعم اعمال غزة، ودعوة الامیر

الفلسطيني للتوافق.

كما رحب البيان الختامي بالإجماع بإعلان قطر وموريتانيا تجميد علاقاتهما مع إسرائيل 95.

أحدى نجاح دعو إلى مقاضاة إسرائيل 96 أمام القضاء الدولي

اكد الرئيس الأيراني محمود أحمدي نجاد 97 خلال كلمته في [قمة غزة الطارئة] في الدوحة دعمه للمقاومة

الفلسطينية ودعو إلى مقاضاة المسؤولين الإسرائيليين على [الجرائم التي يرتكبونا في غزة] 98 أمام القضاء

dولي. كما دعا إلى قطع العلاقات مع إسرائيل ومقاطعة البضائع والشركات ذات العلاقة بها، وأضاف تل

ابيب بأنها رمز لـ 99 وخرق قانون الإنسان الدولي، وقال أن 100 ما يجري في غزة هو تكرار للجرائم التي

ارتكبت في لبنان 101 وبتوقيت أمريكي عربي 102.

ووصف نجاد 103 اقتراح أمير قطر 104 إنشاء صندوق لدعم غزة 105، بأنه [الاقتراح健身]، داعيا إلى تفعيله

بسرعة.
• ال авг. ب. (أ. ف. ب.)

• ال رئيـس التشريعي السـوري والسـوداني خلال القمة

• خالد مشعل، مـبسل رئيـس حركة الجهـاد الإسلامي رمـضان شـلح (إلى اليمين) وأمـين عام الجبهة الشعبية - القيادة العامة - أحمد جبريل (أ. ب.)

• الرئيـس الإـيراني أحمد نـجاد يرفع شاـرة النصر خلال إلقاء كلمته في الـدورة: أمس (أ. ب.)

Document Annotations

The parenthetical information provides context to the DOHASUMMIT Meeting, in case the audience is unfamiliar with the implications of the reference term “the Doha Summit Meeting”. The explanation focuses on the fact that the Doha Meeting is a summit (which means it is full of multiple involved parties), that it is for Gaza (which means Gaza is central to those parties’ concerns), and that the situation is an emergency (which intensifies the importance of the meeting and signals that if you are not familiar with the Doha Meeting or the situation in Gaza already, you should be).

(DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTIMACY; DOHASUMMIT:POS_GROUPING; GAZA:POS_GROUPING; DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER; GAZA:POS_INTENSIFIER)
mention near beginning adds salience to this entity (DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER)

associates the positive Consultative Meeting to support Gaza with its location in Qatar (QATAR:POS_GROUPING)

distances the “Gaza emergency” from the conference itself: the “emergency” nature of the conference is introduced as part of a subordinate structure headed by and is introduced with quotes, which further distance the information from the body of the narrative

the goal of “supporting” Palestinians is a noble one that casts the entire conference in a good light (DOHASUMMIT:POS_GROUPING; DOHASUMMIT:POS_VIRTUE)

the prince is given a full name (QATAR:POS_REFERENCE)

the fact that he speaks at the opening ceremony (and that this is explicitly included) reiterates the importance of the prince (QATAR:POS_POWER; QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER)

the reference term for the Kuwait Summit (“the Economic Kuwait Summit”) distances that summit from the issue of the situation in Gaza: although the author is close to Gaza, the Kuwait Summit isn’t (KUWAITSUMMIT:NEG_GROUPING)

the prince is allowed to speak for himself, without criticism (QATAR:POS_REPRESENTATION)

the Qatari prince’s quote deliberately invokes the word “us” and it is allowed to stand without comment; the Qatari prince is explicitly coupled to a greater number of people, an “us” (QATAR:POS_INTIMACY)

the use of “our brothers” indicates alignment with the others: 1) use of familial reference (OTHERS:POS_REFERENCE) and 2) use of “us” in direct connection with that reference (OTHERS:POS_INTIMACY)

Qatar would have loved to see the other countries at the summit “even if they had another view” of the situation – emphasizes Qatar’s magnanimousness and fair-mindedness (QATAR:POS_VIRTUE; QATAR:POS_MOTIVATIONS)

humanizes the prince – the prince feels regret (QATAR:POS_VIRTUE)

the absence of Abbas is mentioned in the second paragraph of a reasonably long article: the author both calls attention to his Abbas and does so in a highly salient way (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:NEG_VIRTUE; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:NEG_INTENSIFIER)
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15 scare quotes distance the “Gaza Summit” from the rest of the prose (DOHASUMMIT:NEG_NATURE)

16 the idea that only “most” of the delegations arrived implies a large number of delegations (DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER)

17 order of invocation of these people matters: Iran first (IRAN:POS_ATTENTION; IRAN:POS_INTIMACY; IRAN:POS_INTENSIFIER), with two individuals (IRAN:POS_INTENSIFIER) who receive both names (IRAN:POS_REFERENCE) and titles (IRAN:POS_REFERENCE), followed by a single Senegalese individual (SENEGAL:POS_ATTENTION) with name (SENEGAL:POS_REFERENCE) and title (SENEGAL:POS_REFERENCE), followed by representatives from Turkey and Indonesia (TURKEY:POS_ATTENTION; INDONESIA:POS_ATTENTION)

18 uses numbers of attendees to substantiate the importance of the Doha Summit (DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER)

19 further attention paid to the non-attendees and characterizing in visceral terms (“empty chairs in the meeting room”) their lack of attendance (OTHERS:NEG_VIRTUE; OTHERS:NEG_INTENSIFIER); use of “continue” verb makes the absence seem more lasting (OTHERS:NEG_NATURE)

20 points in particular to the empty Palestinian chair (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:NEG_VIRTUE), but reference term to Palestine is in terms of a singular country (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTATION)

21 by including that Hamas went to the observers table, even though the Palestinian Authority did not attend, the author presents Hamas as polite and knowing its place (HAMAS:POS_VIRTUE)

22 in juxtaposition with the article itself giving Meshal a title only words earlier, and with the additional word فقط for emphasis on the lack of any information but Meshal’s name, the article criticizes the Doha Summit for only allowing Meshal to attend in non-official status (DOHASUMMIT:NEG_GROUPING)

23 Islamic Jihad and the PFLP are explicitly mentioned (ISLAMICJIHAD:POS_ATTENTION; PFLP:POS_ATTENTION)

24 Qatar is overtly mentioned as the source of the plane, adding to its presence in the story and implicating its magnanimousness and desire for the conference (QATAR:POS_ATTENTION; QATAR:POS_VIRTUE)

25 the inclusion of the question allows the author to point to the fact that Hamas is a governmental leader for Palestine, and that Hamas is more active than the official Palestinian National Authority government (which could not even be bothered to
attend an “emergency conference” held to support its people) – thereby aligning the piece with Hamas and distancing it from the Palestinian National Authority (HAMAS:POS_GROUPING; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:NEG_GROUPING)

Hamas is again shown by anecdote to be polite and know its place (HAMAS:POS_VIRTUE; HAMAS:POS_INTENSIFIER); Hamas is quoted (HAMAS:POS_REPRESENTATION)

explicitly listing the number of attendees is a form of the number game, where the presence of numbers further supports the author’s argument (DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER); the mention of heads of state in particular (and their number) also lends power to the Doha Summit (DOHASUMMIT:POS_POWER; DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER)

calls out the fact that only five heads of state participated, which praises those five for participating (while focusing some negative attention also on those who could not be bothered to support the Summit fully) (DOHASUMMIT:POS_GROUPING; OTHERS:NEG_GROUPING)

these heads of state are named especially because they sent important people to the summit; they receive additional positive attention in the article and are grouped more tightly with the positive occurrence of the Doha Summit; they occur first for salience (SYRIA:POS_ATTENTION; SYRIA:POS_GROUPING; SYRIA:POS_INTENSIFIER; LEBANON:POS_ATTENTION; LEBANON:POS_GROUPING; LEBANON:POS_INTENSIFIER; ALGERIA:POS_ATTENTION; ALGERIA:POS_GROUPING; ALGERIA:POS_INTENSIFIER; SUDAN:POS_ATTENTION; SUDAN:POS_GROUPING; SUDAN:POS_INTENSIFIER; COMOROS:POS_ATTENTION; COMOROS:POS_GROUPING; COMOROS:POS_INTENSIFIER; MAURITANIA:POS_ATTENTION; MAURITANIA:POS_GROUPING; MAURITANIA:POS_INTENSIFIER)

additional countries are mentioned but not as the “top-tier” of good actors who sent their heads of state (IRAQ:POS_ATTENTION; IRAQ:POS_GROUPING; LIBYA:POS_ATTENTION; LIBYA:POS_GROUPING; MOROCCO:POS_ATTENTION; MOROCCO:POS_GROUPING; DJIBOUTI:POS_ATTENTION; DJIBOUTI:POS_GROUPING)

at the end of the paragraph, we are informed that the Gulf states did not attend (GCC:NEG_GROUPING; GCC:NEG_VIRTUE)

none of the Gulf states attended but Qatar, which appears last, in a salient position (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER), in contrast to the bad Gulf states (QATAR:POS_GROUPING), and is again mentioned to take up audience attention (QATAR:POS_ATTENTION)
33: the characterization of Palestinian steadfastness as being “like a rock” (lasting, part of their nature) and terming their approach “steadfastness” rather than “stubbornness” both indicate authorial alignment with Palestine (PALESTINE-PEOPLE:POS_NATURE; PALESTINE-PEOPLE:POS_MOTIVATIONS)

34: Hamas is allowed another quote – the author devotes valuable column space to Hamas’s words rather than his own, without negative commentary on the ideas the Hamas presents (HAMAS:POS_REPRESENTATION)

35: Israel’s actions are characterized as “aggression” (although they are not attributed to Israel, and have indeed not yet been attributed to Israel), and Gaza is portrayed as a victim (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

36: The author is aligned with Hamas, and Hamas is aligned against Israel (it won’t accept Israeli terms for a ceasefire), which leaves the author distanced from Israel in this sentence (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING). This sentence is also designed to reduce the “badness” inherent in denying a ceasefire that could save lives, through associating this particular ceasefire with Israel. The article thus aligns itself with Hamas’s decision not to accept those ceasefire terms (HAMAS:POS_GROUPING).

37: the resistance is not defeated – the author champions the strength of the resistance (PALESTINE-PARTIES:POS_POWER)

38: Israel is clearly positioned outside of the reader/writer solidarity group (ISRAEL:NEG_INTIMACY)

39: blaming the “Zionist enemy” for the problems, rather than the Arabs, is clearly alignment against Israel (“Zionist” is an undesired-by-Israel reference term, further tinged by the word “enemy”), for the Arabs (ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE; ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE; ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING; ARABS:POS_GROUPING)

40: Israel desires to “impose” (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION) the status quo (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE) unilaterally (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

41: further quotations/paraphrases from Hamas (HAMAS:POS_REPRESENTATION)

42: identifies the people of Gaza with the people of the world, broadening their plight (GAZA:POS_INTIMACY)

43: Hamas is paraphrased again (HAMAS:POS_REPRESENTATION) and is allowed a strong verb (HAMAS:POS_POWER)

44: the Lebanese president is named, titled, quoted, and allowed a strong verb to introduce his statement (LEBANON:POS_ATTENTION;
Lebanon is aligned here with Arabs everywhere (ARABS:POS_GROUPING; LEBANON:POS_GROUPING), and positioning himself as a leader who can instruct people what is in their best interest (LEBANON:POS_POWER)

Lebanon is allowed a quote for their official position (LEBANON:POS_REPRESENTATION)

the noun phrase for the conference itself explicitly connects the conference with solidarity for Gaza – Gaza and the conference are intimately tied together in the language (GAZA:POS_GROUPING; DOHASUMMIT:POS_GROUPING)

focus on a desire for Arab unity – further denigrates those other Arab countries that did not attend the Doha Summit (OTHERS:NEG_VIRTUE)

another focus on a desire for Arab unity – further denigrates those other Arab countries that did not attend the Doha Summit (OTHERS:NEG_VIRTUE)

reference to Israel is the word “enemy” (rather than, for instance, Israel’s name) (ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE)

Lebanon is ready to exert efforts (LEBANON:POS_VIRTUE); Suleiman is paraphrased in this (LEBANON:POS_REPRESENTATION); Suleiman and Beirut are both mentioned, although the author only really needed to mention one (or none), which gives further emphasis to Lebanon (LEBANON:POS_ATTENTION)

Syria’s president is introduced (SYRIA:POS_REFERENCE) and quoted/paraphrased (SYRIA:POS_REPRESENTATION)

the Battle of Jenin is termed the “Jenin massacre”, presupposing negative motivations and outcome, and Sharon/Israel are directly associated as the perpetrators in the language (ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS; ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION; WESTBANK:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

direct reference term for Israel does not use Israel’s own chosen name, but rather is simply a descriptive term (ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE) that focuses on the main distinction between the Jews and the Arabs in that area: that of religion (ISRAEL:NEG_INTIMACY)

Syria further quoted (SYRIA:POS_REPRESENTATION)

additional attention to the victimization of Gaza (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION; GAZA:POS_ATTENTION)
57 وقال أن: another repetition of Syria being allowed to speak for itself about itself (SYRIA:POS_REPRESENTATION)

58 الكيان الصهيوني: reference term for Israel denies it statehood (ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE) and uses a culturally-negatively-tainted adjective to specify the reference (ISRAEL:NEG_REFERENCE)

59 مؤكدًا ضرورة دعم المقاومة الفلسطينية: the verb choice of “affirm”, which entails truth of statement to come, implies authorial alignment with speaker and sentiment (SYRIA:POS_GROUPING; GAZA:POS_GROUPING); strong language (“necessity”) strengthens the alignment with Gaza (GAZA:POS_INTENSIFIER); the “resistance” characterization of the Palestinian actors is positive (PALESTINE-PARTIES:POS_VIRTUE).

60 دعم المقاومة الفلسطينية: creates dichotomy between Israel and Palestine; author’s alignment with Palestine earlier in the sentence implies a de-alignment with Israel (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING)

61شكل الاخطر للنازي: use of elative form “أخطر” (“most dangerous”) makes the charge more earnest (ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

62Israel التي وصفها بانها {الشكل الاخطر للنازية في العصر الحديث}: the author includes the association of Israel with Nazism (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING), but distances it from his own prose by keeping it demarcated within quotation marks (rather than integrating it into the prose of the article as a whole through paraphrasing) (SYRIA:NEG_INTIMACY; ISRAEL:POS_NATURE)

63: the Sudanese president is named, titled, and allowed to talk (SUDAN:POS_REFERENCE; SUDAN:POS_REPRESENTATION)

64: the call to end normalization attempts with Israel distances Israel (ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING)

65حرب الإبادة التي تشنها الإسرائيلية: the “genocide” characterization, and its portrayal as being directly carried out by Israel through an active verb, position Israel as morally bankrupt (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

66حرب الإبادة التي تشنها الإسرائيلية في غزه: Gaza is positioned as victim (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION) and Israel as victimizer (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION)

67: Iraqi president is named, titled, and quoted/paraphrased (IRAQ:POS_REFERENCE; IRAQ:POS_REPRESENTATION)

68: Iraq is shown to be aligned with Palestine (IRAQ:POS_GROUPING)

69: the presented desire to resolve the situation according to the Security Council indicates trust in the Security Council (UN:POS_MOTIVATIONS)
again reiterates the plight of Gaza (GAZA:POS_ATTENTION; GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

target of internal Palestinian implications is that the Palestinian house is not currently “in order” and people are not working together toward common goals (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:NEG_POWER)

this phrase closely associates the negatively-characterized event (“aggression”) with Israel itself, making “Israeli” a quality of the aggression in the language itself (ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION)

Gaza needs a relief campaign indicates the extent of their suffering (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

negative characterization of Israel is noun-based and thus lasting (it is a “threat”) (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_NATURE)

Comoros is named, titled, and quoted/paraphrased (COMOROS:POS_REFERENCE; COMOROS:POS_REPRESENTATION)

focuses both on the need to unite on behalf of Gaza, making Gaza central (GAZA:POS_INTIMACY), and on the suffering of the people of Gaza (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

Senegal and the OIC have ideas represented in this article (SENEGAL:POS_REPRESENTATION; OIC:POS_REPRESENTATION)

another reference to Gaza (GAZA:POS_ATTENTION)

Qatar has demands for the Kuwait Summit – this puts Qatar in power (able to issue a demand, or at least represented in the title as such) (QATAR:POS_POWER), and distances Qatar and the Kuwait Summit from each other (QATAR:POS_GROUPING; KUWAITSUMMIT:NEG_GROUPING); the occurrence in a section title bolsters both these linguistic effects (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER; KUWAITSUMMIT:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

Syria is fully introduced with name and title again (SYRIA:POS_REFERENCE), and again allowed to speak (SYRIA:POS_REPRESENTATION) (SYRIA:POS_ATTENTION)

scare quotes around the Doha summit name indicate authorial distancing from the summit (DOHASUMMIT:NEG_INTIMACY)

name used for the Kuwait summit focuses on its economic nature, which distances it from the issues regarding Gaza and from the focus of the article itself (KUWAITSUMMIT:NEG_REFERENCE; KUWAITSUMMIT:NEG_INTIMACY)
importance and centrality of Gaza is reiterated (GAZA:POS_INTIMACY)

says the same thing in different words – Gaza should be central to the summit and not on the sidelines (GAZA:POS_INTENSIFIER)

Syria is allowed to speak numerous times through the paragraph (SYRIA:POS_REPRESENTATION)

another quote from Syria (SYRIA:POS_REPRESENTATION)

one of Syria’s quotes includes an overt “we”, which the author allows to stand (SYRIA:POS_INTIMACY)

very clear argument presented here – if a leader listens to America rather than its people, it will lose everything (USA:NEG_GROUPING)

this idea, which distances Israel from the main entities the article discusses by calling for the end of normalization with Israel (the actors don’t even want to consider being close to Israel), is repeated throughout the article (ISRAEL:NEG_INTIMACY; ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

associates Gaza with the aggression once again (GAZA:POS_ATTENTION; GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION), but uses quotation marks around this goal – either to add emphasis to it (given that it comes from the Doha Conference, a source that has been lauded throughout the piece), or to distance it from his own prose

the call for assistance and relief implies that Gaza needs that help (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

points toward even relief organizations, which are presumably not predominately Palestinian, needing protection; the inclusion of this extra information implies that Israel strikes out at anyone who stands in their way, even good people who attempt to help (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_MOTIVATIONS)

positions all peace-loving countries as desiring to support Gaza, thereby condemning those who haven’t yet participated (OTHERS:NEG_GROUPING)

focus on the agreements that the Doha Summit came to indicates the naturalness of those conclusions – points toward the fact that no one disagreed (DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER)

the introductory verb “welcomed” suggests that Qatar and Mauritania’s action (freezing relations with Israel) is a positive one welcomed also by the author (QATAR:POS_POWER; MAURITANIA:POS_POWER); it sets up Qatar and Mauritania in opposition to Israel, which has been shown repeatedly in this article to be a negative entity (QATAR:POS_GROUPING; MAURITANIA:POS_GROUPING; ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING)
Ahmedinajad is also shown to take serious action, although it is hidden near the end of the article (IRAN:POS_POWER); he is aligned against Israel as are the rest (IRAN:POS_GROUPING; ISRAEL:NEG_GROUPING); the idea that Israel is in violation of justice is repeated here (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE; ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER); the occurrence in title is further intensification of these things (IRAN:POS_INTENSIFIER; ISRAEL:NEG_INTENSIFIER).

Iranian leader is named, titled, and quoted (IRAN:POS_REFERENCE; IRAN:POS_REPRESENTATION)

presupposes that Israel has committed crimes in Gaza (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION; ISRAEL:NEG_VICTIMIZATION; ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

asserts that Tel Aviv is a symbol of evil, which goes unquestioned although is marked as uttered by Ahmedinajad (ISRAEL:NEG_VIRTUE)

Ahmedinajad continues to be quoted (IRAN:POS_REPRESENTATION)

Lebanon is portrayed as a victim in parallel to Gaza (LEBANON:POS_GROUPING; LEBANON:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

the US and the West are explicitly marked as complicit in very negative crimes (what was previously in the article termed “genocide”) (USA:NEG_VIRTUE; WEST:NEG_VIRTUE)

Ahmedinajad is again quoted (IRAN:POS_REPRESENTATION)

the fact that the proposal that is subsequently praised was originated by Qatar is called out explicitly, although there is no need to label its source; Qatar thus is associated with positive occurrences even when unnecessary (QATAR:POS_POWER)

demanda: further attention to Gaza (GAZA:POS_ATTENTION), which indicates Gaza’s need for assistance (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

Images and Captions

This photograph (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER) displays the Qatari prince front and center as the focal point (QATAR:POS_INTIMACY; QATAR:POS_ATTENTION). His body turned slightly toward the left, often interpreted as being directed toward the future (the result of languages and cognitive structure presenting information in an old->new format and Arabic being read from right to left), which shows his relationship with and attention to the future (QATAR:POS_NATURE). This photograph is near the beginning of the document, rather than grouped with the rest at the end. (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER).
The Qatari prince is mentioned in the caption (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER), but his name does not appear (QATAR:POS_INTIMACY in this case – given the rest of the article, which is highly positive to Qatar, this is an instance of the prince being well-known and no name being needed, rather than an instance of refusing to name him because naming would lend credibility).

The fact that the Qatari prince speaks at the opening of the meeting indicates the prince’s importance (QATAR:POS_POWER); this is repeated from the body of the article (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER). Additionally, by this point in the entire article already there has been significant attention to Qatar (QATAR:POS_ATTENTION).

Although Gaza is the focus of the meeting, it isn’t an actor – it is positive via alignment with the meeting (GAZA:POS_GROUPING).

another reminder that the positive thing being described (the Emergency Summit) happened in Qatar (QATAR:POS_GROUPING)

Meshal is the central figure (HAMAS:POS_ATTENTION); we can see his full body and face (HAMAS:POS_INTIMACY), although it is turned slightly toward the future (HAMAS:POS_NATURE). He is flanked by Shallah and Jibril, both of whom are focusing on Meshal (HAMAS:POS_INTIMACY; HAMAS:POS_POWER) and turned away from the camera, indicating their lesser importance compared with Meshal. As all three men appear in the image (HAMAS:POS_GROUPING; ISLAMICJIHAD:POS_GROUPING; PFLP:POS_GROUPING), the salience of each is increased (HAMAS:POS_INTENSIFIER; ISLAMICJIHAD:POS_INTENSIFIER; PFLP:POS_INTENSIFIER).

Meshal’s association (to Hamas) is not mentioned, although Shallah and Jibril’s are. The message seems to be that Meshal is so closely intimate with us and so well known that his title or organization is irrelevant; we do not need that contextual information (HAMAS:POS_INTIMACY).

Syria and Sudan are both pictured (SYRIA:POS_ATTENTION; SYRIA:POS_INTENSIFIER; SUDAN:POS_ATTENTION; SUDAN:POS_INTENSIFIER).

Sudan and Syria are both invoked with their titles (SUDAN:POS_REFERENCE; SYRIA:POS_REFERENCE)

Ahmedinajad is the only one in the photograph (IRAN:POS_ATTENTION; IRAN:POS_INTENSIFIER), but he shares the space with the Doha Summit (DOHASUMMIT:POS_ATTENTION; DOHASUMMIT:POS_INTENSIFIER). He is smiling
and making direct eye contact with the camera, encouraging engagement with the audience (IRAN:POS_INTIMACY).

†††† فِي الدوحة: The author once again reiterates the entire affair’s presence in Qatar (QATAR:POS_ATTENTION; QATAR:POS_GROUPING). This reminder occurs as the very last words in the article (QATAR:POS_INTENSIFIER).

The following tables review counts of document annotation types for example gold standard analysis of Document 21 ("اجتماع الدوحة يتعين مبادرة السلام العربية"). Hamas is portrayed positively and well-rounded. Gaza is portrayed positively, but mainly as a victim close to the hearts and minds of others; it is allotted no agency. Israel is portrayed as a non-virtuous victimizer, allied against the author and his audience. Qatar is portrayed extremely positive and well-roundedly, followed up by Lebanon, Syria, Iran, and to some extent, Sudan. Additionally, the Doha Summit itself garners a rather large amount of positive attention.

### Palestinian Groups

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Distribution A: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited. 88ABW-2010-6004, 10 Nov 10
### Out-Groups

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Distribution A: Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited. 88ABW-2010-6004, 10 Nov 10
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The following chart reviews the scored version of entities in Document 21 ("اجتماع الدوحة") with >5 tags, standardized to a 1 (all tags in-group) to -1 (all tags out-group) scale.
عباس: 1) مصر قدمت لنا الكثير و"الجزيرة" 2) وحدها ترى العكس 4)

رام الله: أكد الرئيس الفلسطيني محمود عباس 5) الأربعة أن مصر لها كافة الحقوق 6) لحماية وتأمين حدودها 7) في إشارة إلى الجدار الفولاذي الذي تقيمه على الحدود مع غزة.

وأضاف عباس 9) في تصريحات لقناة "الجزيرة" 10) أن مصر تسهل حياة الفلسطينيين 11) وقدمت للقضية الفلسطينية الكثير 12) ، قائلًا 13) : "نحن نرى ذلك ولكنكم (قناة الجزيرة) تغفلون دور مصر الرائد 14) وما تقدمه للفلسطينيين 15) وأنت فقط ترون عكس ذلك 16)."

وتابع 17) "مصر تدرى كيف تحمي حدودها سواء مع إسرائيل أو مع غزة ورأوا أن من مصلحتها 18) إقامة الجدار الفولاذي لمنع عمليات التهريب المستمرة عبر الأقفاص."

وأضاف 21) "الإنقلاب العسكري الذي قادته حماس 22) في غزة آسيا للشعب الفلسطيني 23) وللأسف حماس نقضت العهود التي أخذناها عند الكعبة 24) ( اتفاق مكة ) وهذا الإلقاء 25) وذرعوا المتفجرات لتفتت مني 26)."

واختتم قائلا 27) : "على حماس أن تقبل الورقة المصرية للمصالحة ، وأنا أقسم بالله 28) أنني لم أقرأ الورقة ووقعته عليها دون الإطلاع عليها وقد أدرك لي قيادات فتح وجود بعض الملاحظات فيها ، قلت ليس مهما الملاحظات ، الأهم أن تتحقق المصالحة."
Document Annotations

1. the title itself quotes from Abbas, naming him overtly in the process (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_ATTENTION; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTED; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_INTENSIFIER). This begins the entire article (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_INTENSIFIER).

2. “us” is invoked specifically without explicit quotes to set it apart from the rest of the document (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_INTIMACY); Egypt is presented in support to “us” and to the Palestinian government (EGYPT:POS_GROUPING; EGYPT:POS_VIRTUE).

3. quotation marks around the name for Al Jazeera distance it from the rest of the prose and cast Al Jazeera itself into question (ALJAZEERA:NEG_REFERENCE) – this representation comes from authorial choice.

4. positions Al Jazeera as alone on the world stage in purporting a particular reading of the situation, thereby distancing and weakening Al Jazeera (ALJAZEERA:NEG_INTIMACY).

5. Abbas’s words are paraphrased and allowed to begin to start the article (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTED; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_INTENSIFIER).

6. aggrandizing adjective for the rights available to Egypt (EGYPT:POS_INTENSIFIER).

7. choice of the “Egyptian homeland security” frame for Egypt’s actions (rather than a “Palestinians injured” frame) betrays alignment with Egypt (EGYPT:POS_REPRESENTED).

8. the Palestinian government expresses its support of Egypt and Egypt’s motives (EGYPT:POS_GROUPING).

9. more attention to and another quote/paraphrase from Abbas (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_ATTENTION; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTED).

10. reference term for Al Jazeera clearly demarcates them as a “channel”, with their name in quotation marks to set it apart from the rest of the prose (ALJAZEERA:NEG_REFERENCE).

11. positive description of Egypt’s efforts on behalf of the Palestinians (EGYPT:POS_VIRTUE).

12. another positive representation of Egypt’s efforts for the Palestinians (EGYPT:POS_VIRTUE).

“Egypt’s pioneering role” contains an extra aggrandizing adjective that makes Egypt clearly active and responsible in the fight (EGYPT:POS_POWER; EGYPT:POS_VIRTUE)

... presents Egypt as actively working on behalf of the Palestinian cause (EGYPT:POS_POWER)

... another instance of the Palestinian government (“us” earlier in the sentence) demarcating itself as distant from Al Jazeera (“you”, who only see the opposite of what we see) (ALJAZEERA:NEG_GROUPING)

... another opportunity for Abbas to speak more widely through the article (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_ATTENTION; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTED)

... Gaza invoked as object of siege (albeit not in hysterical terms) (GAZA:POS_VICTIMIZATION)

... Abbas further quoted (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_ATTENTION; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTED)

... Abbas frames Hamas coming to power as a “military coup” (a decidedly negative spin) (HAMAS:NEG_MOTIVATIONS), which is topicalized (HAMAS:NEG_INTENSIFIER). Then he marks Hamas as actively orchestrating that coup through positioning Hamas as the actor of the verb (HAMAS:NEG_VIRTUE).

... Abbas argues that Hamas coming to power has worsened the situation of the Palestinian people (PALESTINE-PEOPLE:POS_VICTIMIZATION; HAMAS:NEG_VIRTUE) – but as this goes against common wisdom, it seems to cast doubt on Abbas and the Palestinian government’s neutrality (ABBAS:NEG_MOTIVATIONS; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:NEG_MOTIVATIONS)

... Hamas breaks very strong, important promises (HAMAS:NEG_VIRTUE; HAMAS:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

... repetition of the idea that Hamas perpetrated a coup (HAMAS:NEG_MOTIVATIONS; HAMAS:NEG_VIRTUE; HAMAS:NEG_INTENSIFIER)

... Hamas tried to kill Abbas (HAMAS:NEG_VIRTUE) – but Abbas is complaining about it here alongside Hamas’s real issues, which casts him in a petty light (ABBAS:NEG_VIRTUE)
further speaking ability given to Abbas in an official role (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_ATTENTION; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_REPRESENTED)

“I swear to God” – Abbas seems to be arguing too strongly that he was not irresponsible in signing the document without reading it. The surprising amount of argument casts actually doubt on his level of responsibility – the article actually brings Abbas’s responsibility into question by focusing on his protest (especially without a potential interview question that prompted this quote), rather than just presupposing that he is responsible (ABBAS:NEG_VIRTUE).

Images and Captions

In this image, Abbas is front and center, powerful, demanding the audience’s attention and involvement through with two sight lines (along eyes and finger) (PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_ATTENTION; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_POWER; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_INTIMACY; PALESTINE-GOVERNMENT:POS_INTENSIFIER).

The following table review counts of document annotation types for example gold standard analysis of document 84 ("عباس: مصر قدمت لنا الكثير و"الجزيرة: وحدها ترى العكس ("""). The Palestinian government and Egypt are represented positively (the Palestinian government mainly through excessive attention, and Egypt mainly through virtuous actions), although Abbas himself is represented negatively. Hamas and Al Jazeera are represented negatively; Hamas is portrayed especially as lacking virtue, and Al Jazeera is distanced from the rest of the prose by the reference terminology employed.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Palestine-Govt.</th>
<th>Egypt</th>
<th>Al Jazeera</th>
<th>Gaza</th>
<th>Hamas</th>
<th>Palestine-People</th>
<th>Abbas</th>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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</table>

The following chart reviews the scored version of entities in Document 84 ("عباس") with >2 tags, standardized to a 1 (all tags in-group) to -1 (all tags out-group) scale.
### LIST OF ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NASIC</td>
<td>National Air and Space Intelligence Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Treaty Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSI</td>
<td>National Security Innovations, Inc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Social Science Automation</td>
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<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
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