A Rhetorical Stylistic Analysis of English Political Headlines in Selected Newspapers

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ABSTRACT:
This study explores the language used in reporting political headlines conducting a rhetorical stylistic analysis. It is based on showing the effect of the rhetorical stylistic relations in news reporting. The aim is to investigate the structure adopted in reporting political news. It argues that the rhetorical stylistic devices are necessary and applicable to non-literary texts, i.e. political headlines to evaluate language use in the representation of non-literary texts. The analysis was carried out on data selected from the British broadsheet The Guardian and the American New York Times newspaper headlines. The data were examined and subjected to a contrastive analysis incorporating rhetorical and stylistic tools to discern how they are united to achieve the main purpose of language use, i.e. to persuade and grasp the reader's attention. It was found that the two newspapers tend to employ sentence structures differently in terms of nucleus and satellite relations demonstrating the significant part in a sentence. Examples of the deviation strategy of foregrounding were primarily established in the New York Times to maintain the reader's attention about the content underlying the different strategy of the two newspapers to report war circumstances. The analysis shows that rhetorical devices and stylistic features are found and closely related in newspaper articles.

Keywords: rhetoric, headlines, stylistics, rhetorical stylistics

1. Introduction
Stylistics, also called literary linguistics, is the linguistic study of style in language focused on literary texts. It is originally distinguished in the Prague School of Poetics. However, it has changed its orientation towards analysing non-literary texts as well and has taken various approaches to describe different language levels such as applied stylistics, corpus stylistics, cognitive stylistics, critical stylistics and rhetorical stylistics. Among the included is rhetorical
stylistics which is the core framework of this study. Stylistics has its origin in rhetoric dating back to Ancient Greece and later Rome. Greeks’ interest in rhetoric was primarily in the tropes and devices used by orators to argue and persuade effectively. Bradford (1997) considers stylistics as the 20th-century discipline in the field of linguistics, and rhetoric is its notable precursor. It is then that type of speech concerned with public speech for the purpose of persuasion (p. 2). This is definitely the case in some stylistic work which is much ‘a latter-day embodiment of traditional rhetoric’ (Simpson, 2004, p. 50). Another view is by Burke who states that rhetoric is one of the historical perspectives tackled in stylistics, claiming that ‘without classical rhetoric […] there would be no stylistics' (2014, p.11). Based on this assumption, rhetorical stylistics recognises differences in genres without distinguishing a separate domain in literary works. This incorporates different genres and considers the potentiality of text variety to motivate language use (Fahnestock, 2005).

Moreover, Van Dijk (1985) states that rhetoric is concerned with both effective communication and situational appropriateness, and stylistics studies such situational appropriateness of linguistic variants. This perspective confirms the fundamental relationship and strong application to data analysis. What stylistics can tell the readers about literature is equally paralleled to what stylistics can tell them about language. It indicates that stylistics is associated with both language and literature. In this regard, innovation and creativity in language use is not exclusive to literary writing (Simpson, 2004). Discourse forms, such as advertising, journalism, conversation, and popular music, show ‘a high degree of stylistic dexterity, such that it would be wrong to view dexterity in language use as exclusive to canonical literature’ (p.3). For stylistic choices, four general principles are considered in rhetorical stylistics namely correctness, clarity, appropriateness, and forcefulness, aiming at producing methods of persuasive communication (Fahnestock, 2005, p. 218).

With the application of rhetorical stylistic tools, this paper establishes the foundation for a rigorous linguistic analysis to achieve the main aspect of language use. To the best of my knowledge, such an approach has not been adopted in studies examining non-literary texts. It is then the contribution of this paper to demonstrate how rhetorical tools can be incorporated into stylistic devices to investigate the representation of non-literary texts, i.e. newspapers.

The selected newspapers tend to report political headlines by employing different strategies. The purpose is to highlight the importance of media power through the structure and the choices made in news reporting. Accordingly, the current paper tends to address the question: What are the most significant similarities and
differences found in the ways that the two newspapers employ in reporting political headlines?

2. A brief history of rhetoric

Rhetoric is the art of persuasion using language effectively. Rhetoric relies essentially on the persuasive power of linguistic techniques to influence the beliefs and desires of a person (Baker & Ellece, 2011, p. 8). It also stands for both production and persuasion of texts, of which the 'criteria for language choices were radically functional and audience-based' (Fahnestock, 2005, p. 215). Originally, rhetoric was concerned ‘with exploring and examining the effects of language’ and how particular choices could make speech persuasive and compelling (Giovanelli & Mason, 2018, p. 3). It dates back to the time of Aristotle who considers rhetoric as ‘a necessary condition of philosophical debate’ (Bradford, 1997). Accordingly, the philosophy of rhetoric can be realised in three statements as Harris (2018, p. 2) points out:

1. The purpose of writing is to communicate,
2. Interesting writing is more likely to be read than boring writing, and
3. Skillful rhetoric is a friend, not a foe, of clarity and effectiveness.

The relation between rhetoric and stylistics is centred on the origins of stylistics going back to the rhetoric, or the poetics of the ancient classical world (Burke, 2014). The focus of stylistics lies in the rhetoric of the classical world. The modern type of stylistics emerged at the beginning of the 20th century, which was fundamentally the Russian formalists, such as Roman Jakobson, Vladimir Propp and Viktor Shklovsky, who were the fundamental source of this development (p. 2).

3. Rhetorical devices

As rhetoric is the art of persuasion using innovative techniques, various devices are used to employ a specific type of sentence structure, which is why they are also known as persuasive devices. It is Harris (2018) who presented a set of tools to make writing more engaging and effective. Rhetorical devices are also called figures of speech, involving ‘the use of words in special, unusual ways: either in unusual arrangements or with special and unusual meaning’ (p. 2). The purpose is to add some sort of clarity, interest, and power to writing to make it rather interesting and persuasive. Rhetorical devices provide the reader with mental frameworks to ease their understanding of the meaning of the text.

Rhetorical devices can be operated on different levels such as words, paragraphs, or sentences. These devices are well designed and elucidated in Harris’ book (2018), in which he identified them thoroughly and described their usage for the purpose of communication effectively. These devices are detailed below:
1. Balance: Parallelism, chiasmus, antithesis
2. Emphasis: Climax, asyndeton, polysyndeton, sentential adverb, understatement, litotes, hyperbole, irony
3. Transition: metabasis, procatalepsis, hypophora
4. Clarity: distinction, exemplum, amplification, metanoia
5. Syntax: zeugma, diazeugma, prozeugma, mesozeugma, hypozeugma, syllepsis, hyperbaton, anastrophe, appositive, parenthesis
6. Figurative language: simile, analogy, metaphor, catachresis, metonymy, synecdoche, personification, allusion, eponym, apostrophe, transferred epithet
7. Restatement: anaphora, epistrophe, simploce, anadiplosis, conduplicatio, epanalepsis, diacope, epizeuxis, antimetabole
8. Sound: alliteration, onomatopoeia, assonance, consonance
9. Drama: rhetorical Question, aporia, apophasis, anacoluthon
10. Word play: oxymoron, pun, anthimeria

According to the various terms listed above, it seems that these devices are used to demonstrate that rhetoric is ‘the art of using language effectively’ (Harris, 2018, p. 2).

4. Principles of stylistic analysis

This section is dedicated to presenting the main aspects of stylistic analysis. The purpose is to equip the reader with the main tools for conducting a rhetorical stylistic analysis of non-literary texts, i.e. newspapers. Given that stylistics establishes a great deal of analysis in this study, it is better to consider the definition of stylistics as the linguistic study of style in texts; ‘the way in which language is used’ (Leech and Short, 2007, p. 1). As far as language is concerned, language has its core significance to stylistics because the various patterns and levels constituting linguistic structure are ‘an important index of the function of the text’ (Simpson, 2004, p. 2). Stylistics is therefore ‘a method of textual interpretation' where language is assigned its priority. It is underpinned by the language, whether spoken or written, speakers use to make choices about words (lexical choices) and the order of such words (syntactic structure).

Given that, stylistics is a tool 'to explore creativity in language use' (Simpson, 2004, p. 3). This synopsis about the primacy of stylistics conforms to three basic guiding principles to carry out a qualitative study: stylistic analysis should be rigorous, retrievable and replicable (p. 4). The stylistic analysis must be rigorous in the sense that research is conducted underpinned by an explicit framework of analysis to explain linguistic patterns; be retrievable in a way that the conclusion reached is well explained and interpreted; and finally, be replicable when the same conclusions are drawn either by testing the methods on the same text or by applying them to other texts.
Conducting a stylistic analysis, the study aims to consider these principles to establish how rhetorical stylistics can observe various language patterns based on following specific linguistic tools.

5. Rhetorical Structure Theory Relations (RST): macro and micro levels

Based on the abovementioned claims, the rhetorical structure theory of Mann and Thompson (1988) is the model adopted in this study, which is based on the macro and micro levels of analysis. RST is used to describe natural texts; it ‘explains coherence by postulating a hierarchical, connected structure of texts, in which every part of a text has a role, a function to play, with respect to other parts in the text’ (Taboada and Mann 2006, p. 425). It is a theory that provides a framework for a text analysis to demonstrate functional relations among text parts, identified in terms of nucleus (N) and satellite (S). It was Van Dijk (1980) who proposed the notion of macrostructure which stands for the global structure of the meaning in the text. The macro aspect carries the global semantic information which is relative to the local information, i.e. semantic microstructure, (p. 13). The major and relevant information is well represented in the macrostructure which constitutes the micro level.

RST provides a way to describe the relations between clauses in the texts. The relation between macro, i.e. nucleus, and micro, i.e. satellite, establishes then the distinction between sentence-level structures. To Taboada and Mann (2006), the nucleus is considered as the most important part that contains the basic information in a text, whereas the satellite is the secondary part with additional information about the nucleus. Accordingly, the satellite is not comprehensible without the nucleus. However, the opposite is true; a text can be understood without the satellites. Such relation has shown an analogous status labelled in the clause level subordination; a subordinate clause cannot be understood if it is not part of the main clause. Further, RST theory establishes the relation between these two units; it demonstrates the relation between different units according to the macro- and micro-level information. The nucleus carries the focal part in a sentence, i.e. macro level, whereas the satellite conveys the peripheral part of that sentence, i.e. micro level.

6. Stylistic devices

This section presents the stylistic devices, which are applicable to this study and are detailed in the following sub-sections. The aim is to show how they are used linguistically to provide emphasis, clarity and prominence to the expressions used in the texts.
6.1 Sentence types

Grammar is principally concerned with the rules of language including categories, units and structures (Simpson, 2004). The sentence is therefore ‘the highest unit of organisation in grammar’ (p. 59). Further, types of sentences in English are basically known for their functions and structures. Starting with sentence functions, there are four types, namely declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative. According to Simpson, the clause is the core of 'a proposition in language' (p. 10). It is important as it is the spot of functions in a language that provides tense. For that reason, the clause will be considered the focus to distinguish sentence functions according to four basic elements of clause structure: subjects (S), predictors (P), complements (C) and adjuncts (A).

Following Simpson (2004), the study is limited to considering three types of clauses namely declarative, interrogative or imperative. Each type involves a certain function with different syntactic structures. Declarative clauses are prominently used as ‘they display significant variation around the basic SPCA pattern’ (p. 13); interrogative ones are used for asking questions, and imperative clauses are typically used for making requests and commands.

Concerning sentence structure, there are three main sentence structures, namely simple, compound, and complex. The simple sentence is regarded as the common one as it consists of one independent clause as in He ate his supper. However, a sentence like He ate his supper and he went to bed (p. 60), is regarded as a compound sentence since it is made up of two independent clauses with equal grammatical structure, joined by coordinating conjunctions like and, but, or, for, yet and so. Such coordination devices used to link ideas together give clauses equal syntactic status (Leech & Short, 2007).

The third type is called a complex sentence and consists of two or more clauses. However, the clauses are unequal in their grammatical status. The purpose of using complex sentences might indicate the writer’s intention to present a complex structure of ideas, which might indicate a complex reading experience (p. 176). The reason behind this relationship is that complex sentences involve two structures. The first one indicates that the subordinate clause is attached to a main clause via a set of subordinating conjunctions including when, after, although, since and because, as in When he had eaten his supper, he went to bed. The second type involves one embedding structure inside another; one main clause and several down-ranked clauses Mary realised he had eaten his supper (Simpson, 2004, pp. 61-2). Similarly, the subordination device makes one clause depend on another, i.e. the main clause, since subordination
is ‘the opposite of salience’ that makes the subordinate clause downgrade and understood as being part of the main clause, i.e. the main clause supports the subordinate clause (Leech & Short, 2007, p. 177).

In consequence, subordination is identified as ‘embedding and is similar to rank-shifting in Firthian and Hallidayan linguistics’ (Jeffries, 2006, p. 144), signifying that sentence-level structure is the core to describe the rank of the clause that contains the main information. Therefore, a subordinate clause is less salient as it shows some information which is already perceived by the reader/hearer in advance. This is well observed in the following example of Leech and Short (2007, p. 175):

- **When Jim threw the ball and broke the window**, he was scolded by the owner, whose attention had been attracted by the noise.

  The underlined subordinate clause in the sentence implies that the hearer has partially an idea about them.

6.2 Foregrounding patterns

Rhetoric has shown a great focus on one of the remarkable stylistic concepts, i.e. foregrounding. Foregrounding is a basic technique in stylistic analysis to draw attention to a particular property of language patterns. It is a concept with a long history in stylistics, motivated for literary-aesthetic purposes (Simpson, 2004). It is applied to make linguistic features prominent. To achieve the creative feature of the language, foregrounding can be identified through a set of patterns discussed in detail in the subsequent sections. Foregrounding constitutes an important textual strategy to motivate the interpretation of a text. Using unusual sentence structures, such as deviation, parallelism, omission of certain elements, and inversion creates a stylistic effect that makes the reader pay more attention to the foregrounded elements.

6.2.1 Linguistic deviation and parallelism

Foregrounding is one aspect of a stylistic strategy, which is achieved through deviation and parallelism. It is potentially ‘rooted in the style figures of classical rhetoric’ (Burke, 2014, p. 28) in three terms of analysis, namely parallelism, repetition and deviation. However, Simpson (2004) identifies two types of foregrounding; parallelism and deviation. Foregrounding involves then ‘a stylistic distortion of some sort, either through an aspect of the text which deviates from a linguistic norm or where an aspect of the text is brought to the fore through repetition or parallelism’ (p. 50). This means that foregrounding occurs when a linguistic choice shows a repetition of a specific word or phrase, in the case of parallelism, or
when such a word deviates from what is normal, in the case of deviation. Furthermore, foregrounding is also seen as being qualitative and quantitative. The former is observed as a deviance from language use, i.e. a breach of some convention of English, whereas the latter is a deviation from an estimated frequency (Leech & Short, 2007).

However, to Pillière (2016), foregrounding is well signified through the linguistic pattern of repetition, which is highly recognised in literary works, such as novels, as a structuring device. Such repetitive devices create the cohesion of the text, making the text more solid as a way to convey the message of the event. This indicates that repetition is a vital device in narration. Furthermore, interpreting foregrounding features in literary texts presupposes both motivation on the part of the writer and explanation on the part of the reader to achieve the linguistic significance of foregrounding (Leech, 1969).

Foregrounding is achieved through two techniques: parallelism and deviation. Linguistic parallelism refers to ‘linguistic repetition of some sort, whereas deviation refers to an encounter with something different from what is expected, or indeed different from regulations of some kind’ (Gregoriou, 2014, p. 89). According to Leech, parallelism in its broadest sense shows ‘the introduction of extra regularities, not irregularities, into the language’ (1969, p. 62). The opposite of parallelism, deviation, by itself, involves two types; when a text deviates from norms outside the context, this is known as external, otherwise if it breaks up secondary norms within the text itself; it is then internal (Leech & Short, 2007). In either type, foregrounding refers to the departure from what is normal in the language used to draw attention to the linguistic pattern. Moreover, foregrounding can also be achieved on different levels, including grammatical levels such as adverbs and inversion which are detailed in the following section.

McIntyre (2006) has shown how foregrounding can be achieved in the theatre to manipulate a perceptual point of view of the audience in a specific scene. Applying foregrounding theory is therefore not restricted to literary texts; non-literary texts, such as advertisements or newspapers, selected for the current study, can also contain foregrounding for the purpose of motivation. In this case, it directs the reader to observe what is different or unexpected in the texts, or simply to make them engaged deeply with the content of the topic.

6.2.2 Adverbs, adjectives and inversions

As a part of speech in English, adverbs are used to show various types of meaning related to foregrounding theory. Adverbs, adjectives and inversions are three grammatical features, upon which foregrounding is identified to show some stylistic effects. They have a grammatical effect on the reader to make interesting phrasing.
Adverbs and adjectives are lexical word classes, also known as *content words* as they contain the semantic information in a text (Jeffries, 2007). These two classes are the least or small in number compared to the other prevailing word classes (i.e. nouns and verbs). However, they can be divided into several sub-classes; gradable and non-gradable where both adverbs and adjectives share something in common. According to Jeffries (2006), one of the adverb subclasses is that part derived from gradable and some non-gradable adjectives via adding -ly suffix: *proudly, really, suddenly, stupidly, angrily*. The other subclass of adverbs is identified by adding intensifiers functioning as the pre-modifiers in an adjective phrase such as *dead proud, completely shattered, and quite tired* (p. 91). Further, there are some phrases, i.e. prepositional phrases that have similar functions to adverbs, called adverbials. It is worth pointing out that some adverbs involve the concept of negation as in *no longer or never* (Leech & Short, 2007).

About adjectives, they ascribe qualities to entities, objects and concepts. Being potential for gradability, many adjectives in English can be graded by adding intensifiers to modify the quality of the adjective (Simpson, 2004). Gradable adjectives can form comparative and superlative forms either by the addition of morphemes, or by the insertion of adverbs, e.g. *high, higher, highest, careful, more careful, and most careful*. Non-gradable adjectives belong chiefly to semantic groups such as colour, material or nationality, and not syntactic categories as they are not defined by their form or function (Jeffries, 2006). However, only gradable adjectives can be preceded by intensifying adverbs: *totally awesome, very happy*. Additionally, adjectives in English have two basic functions. The first one is the pre-modifier to the head noun in a noun phrase, e.g. *a diligent nurse*, and a post-modifier following an intensive verb as the complement of a clause, e.g. *the nurse is diligent*.

Inversion is the *syntactic* reversal of the word order in a sentence to emphasise the meaning of the units being reversed. Inversion is one type of syntactic foregrounding which implies reversing the word order of a normal sentence. Inversion in English involves various ways; the reverse between a noun and its modifier; after it modifies *the form divine*, between the subject and the verb, i.e. predicate or auxiliary, *arrived the postman*, or a noun and its preposition *the fireplace near*. Such syntactic structure will add an aesthetic element to the text as it creates a sense of curiosity on the part of the reader/hearer.
7. Methodology

This section provides a detailed account of the data selected to carry out the analysis as well as the methods adopted for this purpose. The data consists of the British newspaper: The Guardian, and the American New York Times; ten headlines each. The reason behind such choice is because of their popularity and content of world news. Choosing the newspapers as a source for analysis is reliable as news adds more ideas, propositions and values (Fowler, 1991).

In addition, the variety in data collection will not limit the findings to a particular type of newspaper or the style of writing. Starting with The Guardian newspaper which is an influential daily newspaper, it is considered as one of the Broadsheet leading newspapers in the United Kingdom. British newspapers are characterised according to their frequency of publication, political stance, and coverage, in addition to a diverse range of news publications. Baker, Gabrielatos & McEnery (2013) add that broadsheets contain more texts and employ a formal style of writing, in addition to their focus on international news.

Regarding the New York Times, it is an American daily newspaper founded in New York City in 1851 and is publicly traded. Since the mid-1970s, The New York Times has expanded its planning and organization, adding special weekly sections on various topics that complement regular news, editorials, sports, and features. The database used to search for the articles is ProQuest Newsstand, from which the headlines were collected directly. This online database provides a multidisciplinary resource for newspapers, publications, scholarly journals, reports, magazines and other subject areas.

The model adopted in this study is an eclectic one: Mann and Thompson's model (1988) for rhetorical analysis and Simpson's model (2004) for stylistic analysis. The reason behind such amalgamation is to explore how rhetoric and stylistics are united to achieve the aesthetic use of language. The analysis is based on identifying types of clauses and calculating their total frequency in both newspapers. This is to observe how rhetorical stylistics can serve in reporting political news in two different newspapers. Both shape the model adopted in the analysis of this study, known as the Rhetorical Stylistic Analysis (RSA).

8. Data analysis: results and discussions

This section provides a detailed account of the results based on the analysis of the headlines collected from The Guardian and the New York Times. The combination model applied in this research is proposed by Mann and Thompson (1988) and Simpson (2004). The findings obtained from both newspapers display a variety in the types of clauses used. In The Guardian, the headlines selected contain 5
complex sentences, and similarly with simple sentences, but no examples with compound sentences are detected. However, in *The New York Times*, the type of sentences detected is different; there are 6 simple sentences which are predominantly observed, 3 examples detected for the compound sentences, whereas only one example is identified with complex type. This distinguishes the structural aspects of sentences in reporting the news.

Applying the macro and micro levels, these types can be further analysed based on their structure in the sentence. This indicates that one part in the sentence gains more importance than the other; the most important is mainly occupied by the macro level, which is the *nucleus* (N), while the least important part is by the micro level; *satellite* (S). In this sense, the nucleus carries the primary part, whereas the satellite carries the secondary part of a sentence based on their relation in the text. The patterns of these two levels of each newspaper are perceived separately in detail below.

8.1 The Guardian

This section is devoted to the analysis of the rhetorical relations outlined in the selected headlines from *The Guardian*. It is divided into rhetorical structure analysis and stylistics analysis. In what follows these are detailed next.

8.1.1 Rhetorical Structure Analysis

In this section, rhetorical analysis is presented based on Mann and Thompson's model (1988) to show the relations between clauses focussing on nucleus and satellite relations. The following table shows all the selected headlines, followed by the rhetorical analysis.

**Table 1: Headlines selected from The Guardian**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Russia says Ukrainian soldiers executed prisoners of war in Donbas region.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Russian Black Sea fleet commander killed in Crimea, Ukraine claims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Russian invasion of Ukraine would be a disaster, says Boris Johnson in Kyiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Russia still building forces on Ukraine border, says top Nato official</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ukraine’s top security official dismisses Ben Wallace’s criticisms of Kyiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kyiv starts to breathe a little easier as Russian troops pull back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Zelenskiy fails in effort to secure invitation to join Nato at Vilnius summit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>US troop reinforcements arrive near Poland-Ukraine border.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>What is the background to the separatist attack in east Ukraine?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>What does Russian recognition of breakaway Ukraine territories mean?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Starting with the first headline in the table, Ukrainian soldiers executed prisoners of war in Donbas region; it still carries the main thought of the sentence although it is identified as the macro level. However, the opposite is true in the structure of the next three examples where the nucleus appears in the first part of the sentences as in Russian Black Sea fleet commander killed in Crimea, Russian invasion of Ukraine would be a disaster, and Russia still building forces on Ukraine border, moving the significance of the sentence to the front to attract the reader's attention to the Russian attack, whereas their Ss appear in the reporting verbs of saying Ukraine claims, says Boris Johnson in Kyiv, and says top Nato official.

Conversely, the nucleus in example 5 Ukraine’s top security official dismisses Ben Wallace’s criticisms of Kyiv covers the whole sentence as it contains the main idea of it. Example 6, which is a complex sentence, comprises 2 Ss a little easier and Russian troops pull back, and Kyiv starts to breathe is N. In the seventh sentence, there are 2 Ss in effort and at Vilnius summit which is both PP, whereas Zelenskiy fails...to secure invitation to join Nato at Vilnius summit is N because it exposes the main message of the whole sentence. In sentence 8, US troop reinforcements arrive is N, where its S (PP) occurs at the end near Poland-Ukraine border. Regarding the last two sentences, the nucleus occurs in the question form what is and what does... mean, signifying the information in the implied answer later. The two Ss are the background to the separatist attack in east Ukraine and Russian recognition of breakaway Ukraine territories.

As shown above, there are 11 and 10 for each level; macro and micro levels respectively. The central information is signified in the macro structure which establishes the micro level. However, the case is different when considering the nucleus and satellite, as the nucleus carries the basic information in the text.

8.1.2 Stylistic analysis

This section is dedicated to presenting the stylistic analysis of the headlines following Simpson's model (2004), which is based on identifying types of sentences, adverbs, adjectives and inversions and types of foregrounding. According to the headlines in Table 1, the predominant types of sentences detected in The Guardian are the complex and simple sentences; rating six complex sentences (60%) and four simple ones (40%) detailed below. As mentioned, simple sentences consist of just one independent clause, while complex sentences have one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.
Table 2: The total frequency of sentence types in *The Guardian*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Russia says Ukrainian soldiers executed prisoners of war in Donbas region</td>
<td>Complex</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Ukraine’s top security official dismisses Ben Wallace’s criticisms of Kyiv</td>
<td>Simple</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total frequency** 10

Concerning sentence functions, most of these examples are declarative (eight examples, 80%), with only two interrogative examples (20%). This proposes that headlines have to do with statements following the basic SPCA pattern in English rather than seeking information. Regarding foregrounding, it arises from deviation and parallelism. Deviation is the departure from the normal use of language to something unexpected in grammar through external and internal deviation. No textual evidence is found that indicates deviation and parallelism. This might be an indication that newspapers are supposed to adhere to certain strategies in formulating news headlines. With regard to inversion, adverbs and adjectives, no examples of inversion are found in *The Guardian* newspaper. In addition, six examples of adverbs such as *in east Ukraine* and *in effort*, but one adjective, e.g. *a little easier*, are recognised. The disparity in using adverbs rather than adjectives suggests how they are important to convey a certain message as adverbs have a prominent function to typically provide circumstantial information about the verb phrases. According to Simpson (2004), adverbs are used to show various time frames where a verbal process might (not) take place and show negative implications. For example, the adverbs employed in the
selected headlines like Ukrainian soldiers executed prisoners of war in Donbas region, fleet commander killed in Crimea, Zelenskiy fails in effort, and the separatist attack in east Ukraine show a negative indication because of the verb processes used executed, killed, and fail.

8.2 The New York Times

Following the same procedure, this section is devoted to the analysis of the rhetorical relations outlined in the selected headlines from the New York Times, starting with the rhetorical structure analysis and then stylistics analysis as shown below.

8.2.1 Rhetorical Structure Analysis

Regarding headlines collected from the New York Times, the results display a slight difference compared to The Guardian. Similar to the analysis in section 8.1.1, the sentences will be classified according to the nucleus and satellite types. Both nucleus and satellite types have almost an equal number of occurrences; 14 and 15 respectively as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Headlines selected from The New York Times

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Putin Raises Stakes in the War, With Direct Challenge to the West.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Within Days, Russia’s War on Ukraine Squeezes the Global Economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Some Ukrainian Refugees Are Returning Home, Despite the Risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ukraine Invasion Increases Friction Between Erdogan and Putin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>U.S. Considers Warning Ukraine of a Russian Invasion in Real-Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Russia Advances on 3 Ukrainian Cities, but Meets Fierce Resistance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Russia-Ukraine Crisis Shakes Markets, but Long-Term Outlook Is Better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Putin Insulated Russia’s Economy. Will Biden’s Sanctions Hold Him Back in Ukraine?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Is Biden’s Strategy With Putin Working, or Goading Moscow to War?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>What Does Russia’s Invasion of Ukraine Mean for the U.S. Economy?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Starting with the first sentence, Putin Raises Stakes is N, whereas there are two Ss (PP) in the war and With Direct Challenge to the West. The second and third sentences involve two adverbial clauses within days and despite the risks respectively, that can be encoded by Ss. The nuclei are the main clauses in these two sentences.
Russia’s War on Ukraine Squeezes the Global Economy and Some Ukrainian Refugees Are Returning Home. Sentence 5 includes the nucleus in the first part *U.S. Considers Warning Ukraine of a Russian Invasion*, while the satellite is represented by the prepositional phrase *in Real-Time*.

Regarding the sixth and seventh sentences, they are both compound sentences connected by the coordinating conjunction *but*, making the clauses main; *but Meets Fierce Resistance* and *but Long-Term Outlook Is Better* contain the core information and so they are Ns, whereas *Russia Advances on 3 Ukrainian Cities* and *Russia-Ukraine Crisis Shakes Markets* are Ss despite their position in the macro level. Example 8 contains two sentences. In the first one, the nucleus is shown in *Putin Insulated* and the satellite in *Russia’s Economy*. The second part is a question *Will Biden’s Sanctions Hold Him Back in Ukraine?* and it is N.

The last two examples also contain question forms which are decoded by the nuclei *Is Biden’s Strategy With Putin Working, or Goading Moscow to War?* and *What Does ... mean?*. The satellite is represented in the prepositional phrases *with Putin* and *in war* in sentence nine, and *Russia’s Invasion of Ukraine ... for the U.S. Economy* in the last example. The headlines selected from *The New York Times* contain ten nucleus units and eleven satellite ones, suggesting as a result 10 macro levels and 11 micro levels.

### 8.2.2 Stylistic analysis

Following Simpson (2004), regarding the headlines collected from *The New York Times*, the results display a slight difference compared to *The Guardian*. There are seven simple sentences predominantly used (64%), followed by three compound sentences (27%) and only one example is detected for the complex one (9%). These are detailed below:

**Table 4**: The total frequency of sentence types in *The New York Times*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Putin Raises Stakes in the War, With Direct Challenge to the West.</td>
<td>Simple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Within Days, Russia’s War on Ukraine Squeezes the Global Economy</td>
<td>Simple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Ukraine Invasion Increases Friction Between Erdogan and Putin.</td>
<td>Simple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Putin Insulated Russia’s Economy. Will Biden’s Sanctions Hold Him Back in Ukraine?</td>
<td>Simple (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>U.S. Considers Warning Ukraine of a Russian Invasion in Real-Time</td>
<td>Simple</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. What Does Russia’s Invasion of Ukraine Mean for the U.S. Economy? Simple
7. Russia Advances on 3 Ukrainian Cities, but Meets Fierce Resistance. Compound
8. Russia-Ukraine Crisis Shakes Markets, but Long-Term Outlook Is Better Compound
9. Is Biden’s Strategy With Putin Working, or Goading Moscow to War? Compound
10. Some Ukrainian Refugees Are Returning Home, Despite the Risks Complex

**Table:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>What Does Russia’s Invasion of Ukraine Mean for the U.S. Economy?</th>
<th>Simple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Russia Advances on 3 Ukrainian Cities, but Meets Fierce Resistance.</td>
<td>Compound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Russia-Ukraine Crisis Shakes Markets, but Long-Term Outlook Is Better</td>
<td>Compound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Is Biden’s Strategy With Putin Working, or Goading Moscow to War?</td>
<td>Compound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Some Ukrainian Refugees Are Returning Home, Despite the Risks</td>
<td>Complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total frequency</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar to *The Guardian*, the number of declarative and interrogative sentences is distinct; eight declarative (80%) and two interrogative examples (20%) were found in *The New York Times*, showing priority to provide information more than seeking it. This is commonly applicable to declare statements straightforwardly. Foregrounding examples are found in the features of the texts that occur in the forms of deviation and parallelism. Starting with the former type, unlike *The Guardian*, there are lots of examples of deviation. However, no examples of parallelism are identified in this newspaper. Examples of deviation are shown in the upper case letters in the initial letter of a single word in the subtitles as a way of highlighting the importance of the content of the articles themselves. This would also indicate the different style of writing employed in reporting news, unlike the literary texts, i.e. poems, where this strategy is used to create an aesthetic element in language. Moreover, nine adverbs and one adjective (e.g. better) are recognised in the *New York Times* newspaper. This demonstrates the disparity in the stylistic strategy performed. Similar to the adverbs found in *The Guardian*, the adverbs are identified in contexts that denote negative characteristics such as Putin Raises Stakes in the war, within Days, Russia’s War on Ukraine, … Russian Invasion in Real-Time, Will Biden’s Sanctions Hold Him Back in Ukraine, Goading Moscow to War, and Despite the Risks. This normally describes war circumstances which are dominated by negative images intrinsically.

**9. Conclusion**

As explained at the beginning of this research, this study explores the language used in reporting political headlines integrating rhetorical and stylistic tools. The findings in relation to the research question, which is restated along with the concluding remarks, reveal certain patterns: What are the most significant similarities and differences found in the ways that the two newspapers employ in reporting political headlines?
This research has shown the rhetorical-stylistic relation represented in the headlines of the two selected newspapers the British *The Guardian* and the American *New York Times*. Regarding rhetorical tools that best describe the text structure according to nucleus and satellite relations, the findings show certain similarities between the two newspapers demonstrating the most significant part in a sentence. The former conveys the basic information in a sentence, i.e. macro level, whereas the latter contains additional information, i.e. micro level.

However, in terms of stylistic devices, examples of deviation strategy are predominantly recognised in the *New York Times* rather than *The Guardian*, reflecting certain structures of reporting the news to raise attention to the content of the headlines. The most dominant pattern is also found in the number of adverbs used to describe war circumstances, dominated by negative implications. The different stylistic features in the headlines of the two newspaper articles indicate a variety of structures used in the selected headlines. The outcomes are calculated using quantitative frequency analyses. Apropos sentence type structures, it is the complex type that is frequently found in *The Guardian* (60%) compared to the *New York Times* (9%). On the contrary, simple sentences are largely found in the *New York Times* (64%), whereas it is 40% in *The Guardian*. Such disproportion signifies the difference in the sentence structure wherein one newspaper, i.e. *The Guardian* might provide information considering complex structures, which make it difficult for the reader to follow the main points. However, the other one, i.e. the *New York Times* conveys the ideas in a very simple and short way.

Based on the remarks above, the rhetorical stylistic relation is mainly exposed when representing the complex sentence type in the case of the macro-nucleus level, and the simple sentence in the case of the micro-satellite level. This denotes how the main themes are represented rhetorically and stylistically when reporting political headlines. Assuming that political headlines are critical in their content as they draw readers' attention, the rhetorical-stylistic relation would apply to some extent to develop headlines. Accordingly, it became apparent that the reason behind this relation is that stylistics and rhetoric are closely interrelated to achieve persuasion and to grasp the reader's attention.

**References**


**Links**
