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A Critical Stylistic Analysis of Digital Addiction in British Newspapers

A Thesis

Submitted to the Council of the College of Education for Human Sciences, University of Kerbala in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for Master Degree in English Language and Linguistics

By

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2023 February **1444 Rajab**

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

﴿فَمَنِ اتَّبَعَ هُدَايَ فَلَا يَضِلُّ وَلَا يَشْقَىٰ (123) وَمَنْ أَعْرَضَ عَن ذِكْرِي فَإِنَّ لَهُ مَعِيشَةً ضَنكًا﴾

﴿ طه 123- 124 ﴾

﴿صدق الله العلي العظيم ﴾

In the Name of Allah the Most Gracious, Most Merciful.

((Whosoever follows My Guidance, will not ***lose*** his way, nor fall into misery (123), But whosoever turns away from My Message, verily for him is a life narrowed down (124)))

(Ta Ha 123-124)

(Almighty Allah, The Most High has told the truth)

(Ali, 2018)

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby certify that the thesis entitled **A Critical Stylistic Analysis of Digital Addiction in British Newspapers by Hiba Muslim Hamad** has been prepared under my supervision at the University of Kerbala in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master in English Language and Linguistics

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Dedication

To Al-Sayyida Zainab (peace be upon her),

To my family with deep gratitude especially my dear father,

To my best friend Ghufran Najdi,

To my best teacher at secondary school Hiba Al Aganimi.

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Abstract

Digital addiction is a new type of behavioural addiction that emerges as a result of excessive and compulsive use of new digital technologies. Many researchers have focused on studying substance addiction and some types of digital addiction in a variety of fields such as discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, and psycholinguistics. However, no linguistic study is conducted on digital addiction as an umbrella term. Therefore, the aim of the current study is to investigate digital addiction as an umbrella term for digital devices, digital platforms, and digital media in two British broadsheet newspapers. To accomplish the aim of the current study, Jeffries' analytical tools (2010) of critical stylistic analysis is adopted to detect which critical stylistic tools are employed and the differences in using these tools in Guardian and Independent's articles to reflect ideologies regarding digital addiction.

The results of the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data show that all textual-conceptual functions are employed in both newspapers to reflect negative ideologies regarding digital addiction. They reveal that digital addiction is a global problem in the modern-day and its effects are as dangerous as drugs to highlight the necessity of taking its effects more seriously and to convince readers to increase their awareness of its effects as well as moderate their use of digital technologies. However, in Guardian's articles, naming and describing tool occupies the highest rate while the tool of enumerating and exemplifying occupies the lowest rate to reveal the negative effect of digital addiction in all aspects of life, especially social life. At the same time, in the Independent's articles, the tool of representing actions/events/ states occupies the highest rate while the tool of negating achieves the lowest rate to reveal the negative changes that digital addiction causes in ethical values and behaviour of children and teenagers,

especially girls. Additionally, they highlight the confession of tech companies' employees that apps are intentionally designed with addictive properties.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviated Forms	Full-Forms
Art.	**Article**
CDA	**Critical Discourse Analysis**
CL	**Critical Linguistics**
CS	**Critical Stylistics**
CSA	**Critical Stylistic Analysis**
DAd	**Digital Addiction**
DA	**Discourse Analysis**
DS	**Direct Speech**
DSM-V	**Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder**
DT	**Direct Thought**
FIS	**Free Indirect Speech**
FIT	**Free Indirect Thought**
Fr.	**Frequency**
IS	**Indirect Speech**
IT	**Indirect Thought**
No.	**Number**
NRS	**Narrator's Report of Speech**
NRSA	**Narrator's Report of Speech Act**
NRT	**Narrator's Report of Thought**
NRTA	**Narrator's Report of Thought Act**
Pr.	**Percentage**
SLF	**Systemic Functional Linguistics**
TCF	**Textual-Conceptual Function**
Tech	**Technologies**

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Preliminary Remarks

The introductory chapter situates the problem of the current study by presenting several research questions, the aims, hypotheses, procedures, limits, and the value of the study.

1. The Problem

The world is always reshaped by new technologies. In the last decades of the 20th century, digital technologies have changed and still changing the world. New digital technologies are not intrinsically or naturally good or bad; they depend on how they are designed to be used and how they are actually used by people (Vink, 2020). As a result of excessive and compulsive use of new digital technologies, there are concerns about what has been termed "digital addiction" (Alrobai et al, 2019).

Addiction is defined as an uncontrollable desire to do something repeatedly that causes harm to a person's psycho-physiological health or social life (Karagün et al, 2018). Digital addiction (henceforth DAd) is a new type of behavioural addiction that is characterised by compulsive usage of digital devices that causes physical and mental harm to the addicts as well as their loved ones (Dicey, 2019).

Digital addiction is an umbrella term for digital devices, digital platforms, and digital media; it is becoming a recognised global problem (Cham et al, 2019). Notably, many scholars of various disciplines have studied addiction in general and digital addiction in particular. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the previous linguistic studies have mainly concentrated on substance addiction and some types of digital addiction from the perspective of discourse analysis, critical

discourse analysis, and psycholinguistics. No linguistic study is conducted on digital addiction as an umbrella term. Accordingly, the present study is set to bridge the gap by investigating the concept of digital addiction as an umbrella term via critical stylistic analysis to detect the underlying ideologies in the selected articles. Precisely, the present study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What are the underlying ideologies embedded in the newspapers' articles in a way that attracts the readers of these articles to change their minds about the ideologies of digital addiction?
2. Which critical stylistic tools are employed in the Guardian and Independent newspapers' articles to express the ideologies of digital addiction?
3. What are the differences between the Guardian and Independent's articles in using critical stylistic tools that express the ideologies of digital addiction?

1.2 The Aims

Based on the aforementioned questions, the current study aims to:

1. Reveal the underlying ideologies in the selected articles concerning the ideologies of digital addiction.
2. Identify the critical stylistic tools employed in the articles of the Guardian and Independent newspapers to express the ideologies of digital addiction.
3. Figure out if there are differences in using critical stylistic tools in the Guardian and Independent newspapers' articles.

1.3 The Hypotheses

It is hypothesised that:

1. The selected articles embody many negative ideologies toward the concept of digital addiction.

2. All ten critical stylistic tools are applicable to the selected articles under scrutiny.
3. There are differences in using the ten critical stylistic tools between the Guardian and the Independent's articles.

1.4 The Procedures

To achieve the aims of the study and to answer the questions, the following procedures are followed:

1. Presenting the literature review, relevant literature about stylistics, critical stylistics, the concept of digital addiction, and some other related topics to provide a complete background for the study.
2. Selecting ten articles from the Guardian and Independent as a sample regarding digital addiction.
3. Qualitatively, analysing the selected articles using the critical stylistic model by Jeffries (2010). This model consists of ten tools, each one having numerous categories.
4. Quantitatively, conducting a mathematical analysis to quantitatively support the finding of the analysis and verify or refute the hypotheses of the study.

1.5 The Limits

This study is limited to the analysis of ten articles on the digital addiction as an umbrella term for digital devices, digital platforms, and digital media from two British newspapers: The Guardian and the Independent newspapers, from 2010 to 2022. These articles are obtained from the internet website of the newspapers.

The analysis of the data is limited to the use of the critical stylistic model of Jeffries (2010), which comprises ten tools, to reveal the underlying ideologies of the selected articles.

1.6 Value

Hopefully, this study is will be valuable for those interested in stylistics and critical stylistics. Furthermore, It may enrich the field of critical stylistics by providing new insights into the language used by the writers of the articles to develop specific ideologies using specific linguistic strategies.

It may also be useful for journalists since it exposes how the writers of the articles employ and depict the concept of digital addiction in the articles. Moreover, it can also be useful for those interested in the science of addiction in general and digital addiction in particular.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter presents the theoretical background for the current study. It mainly reviews the style, stylistics, critical linguistics, critical discourse analysis, critical stylistics, and digital addiction as a core of this chapter. Furthermore, it clarifies the nature of media, and studies that are relevant to this research.

2.1 The Concept of Style

The word style is derived from the Latin “stilus” which refers to a short, flattened stick used by the Romans to write on wax tablets. Now the term “style” is employed in a variety of contexts and has become unclear (Tayeva & Orazbekova, 2020). This is emphasised by Wales (2011). She asserts that translation studies, literary criticism, sociolinguistics, and stylistics may all be used to define style. It is associated with several disciplines and defined in various ways

One of the prominent perspectives on style is that it is based on a particular choice. A literary author is said to choose features from the entire language’s resources at his or her disposal; a choice that is likely influenced by genre, form, theme, and others (Wales, 2011). Likewise, Verdonk (2002) and Finch (2003) agree that style is simply the use of language in a distinctive manner for certain purposes. Thus, the use of diverse choices can result in various styles and various effects. Van Gelderen and Strazny (2005, p. 1043) indicate that style can be defined in a variety of ways. “As a choice of linguistic means”; “as deviation from a norm”; “as recurrence of linguistic form” and “comparison”. In the same vein, Mukherjee (2005) states that user-based variables and situation-based factors guide language users in choosing particular forms over others. The user-based

component, on the one hand, is linked to the user's age, gender, social status, ideologies, and other factors. Situation-based criteria, on the other hand, relate to the field and medium of text.

Another perspective of style associates it with the author's personality, as Buffon points out, "The style is the man himself" (Tariq, 2018, p.47). Crystal and Davy (1969, p. 9) define style in several ways. For them, style might relate to personal linguistic habits, such as Dickens's or Austen's, or group habits, such as the romantic poets' style. Similarly, Wales (2011) indicates that style is the sum of features, which are distinct or characteristic of a writer, his or her dialect or "language habits". Such as Johnson's or Miltonic style which is frequently a feature of parody.

Other views of style attach it to sociolinguistics wherein the sociolinguist William Labov coins the term style in sociolinguistics. In sociolinguistics and other domains, the concept of style has long but largely disparate history. In sociolinguistics, style variation has been a rather restricted term and a minor concern (Coupland, 2007, p. 3). Thus, style refers to the formality of a situation. In this situation, speaking style can be categorised along a stylistic spectrum ranging from formal to informal (Swann, 2004, 299).

Finally, describing style is very difficult. This difficulty is justified by Malmkjaer (2010, p.518), who returns to the debate of whether the nature of the style is "extrinsic" or "intrinsic". The majority of recent opinions related it to both form and content. Jeffries and Mclntyre (2010, p.42) assert that "stylisticians are interested in all aspects of style, whatever their scope".

2.2 Stylistics

Broadly speaking, stylistics is defined as "the linguistic study of style" (Leech & Short, 1981, as cited in Yirsaw, 2016, p. 2; Verdonk, 2002, p. 3; Baker &

Ellece, 2011, p.142; Jeffries & Mclntyre, 2010, p. 2). It is a subfield of macrolinguistics that focuses on evaluating and studying a person or writer's style. It deals with both literary and non-literary texts as well as speech (Baldick, 2001; Hashim, 2018). Whereas, Simpson (2004) defines stylistics as a method of interpreting texts that is primarily concerned with language. Language is so significant to stylisticians because of various forms, patterns, and levels of linguistic structures. These linguistic structures are an important index of the text's function.

Leech (2008) claims that the field of stylistics provides a link between linguistic and literary studies. Stylistics is a branch of linguistics that investigates the aesthetic uses of language, especially in literature (Trask & Stockwell, 2007). Furthermore, Davies (2007) invokes Widdowson's definition of stylistics as a science that assembles literature and linguistics. Accordingly, it can be deduced that stylistics is concerned with both literary and non-literary texts, explaining how they work and assisting us in comprehending their contents. As a result, the stylistician is more concerned with a certain text's effects, rather than whether the text is written in English or any special variety of English.

According to Fish (1981), stylistics appears as a reaction to literary studies' subjectivity and impressionism. It aims to give an objective interpretation of how language is utilised in the literature. Stylistic analysis is concerned with identifying and classifying the elements of language used in literature and it is also concerned with commenting on the quality and meaning of a text. However, it is significant to indicate that stylisticians' are concerned with a rigour analysis but that does not mean that no stylistic analysis is not objective, but it is often influenced by many issues like the individual preferences of stylistician's focus and the selected methodology (Norgaard et al., 2010). Stylistics diverges from linguistic and

literary criticism since it is the connection between the two disciplines. Thus, it has an interdisciplinary function (Widdowson, 1975, as cited in Traiq, 2018).

For Crystal and Davy (1969), stylistics is a branch of linguistics that analyses specific language characteristics limited to specific types of social context. It probably explains why these characteristics are used rather than the others and to classify them into different types based on their function in a specific social context. Further, stylistics examines how the effects are created and achieved. It goes beyond the content and meaning of the text. Thus, the stylistic analysis of a text shows the aesthetic effect of a text not only how people concentrate on every form and structure. Hence, the notion of style involves the basic presumption of the researcher in which the choice is essential since different styles and outcomes are produced by different choices (Leech & Short, 2007).

Typically, the stylistic analysis emphasises phonological, grammatical, lexical, semantic, pragmatic, and discourse qualities of texts as well as cognitive aspects involved in the reader's processing of those features (Norgaard et al, 2010). Simpson (2004, p.4) asserts that the stylistic analysis should be "rigorous", "retrievable" and "replicable". He means "rigorous" in the sense that the stylistic analysis must follow a clear process of analysis and "retrievable" refers to the arrangement of analysis in clear words. While "replicable" means the procedures must be obvious to enable other stylisticians to confirm and support them. Likewise, Ogunsiji et al. (2013) state that the main purpose of stylistic analysis is to assist us to understand the author's intention in the light of how he or she delivers information in his or her work.

Stylistics is thriving and many new sub-disciplines emerge in which stylistic methodologies are fortified and qualified by theories of culture, discourse, and society (Simpson, 2004). Norgaard et al. (2010) mention the main branches of stylistics: cognitive stylistics, corpus stylistics, emotion stylistics approaches,

feminist stylistics, formalist stylistics, functionalist stylistics, historical stylistics, multimodal stylistics, pedagogical stylistics, pragmatic stylistics, reader-response stylistics, and critical stylistics.

2.3 Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic functional linguistics (henceforth SFL) is an approach to linguistics developed by Halliday in the 1960s (Endarto, 2017). The word "functional" refers to people's choice to communicate through language. The term "systemic" views language as a network of interconnected systems (phonology, semantics, and lexicogrammar) (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). The adjective systemic should not be muddled with systematic since the adjective systematic refers to linguistics in its everyday usage, but in specific cases, it has a limited definition commonly concerning phonetics and phonology (Crystal, 2008). Unlike the conventional linguistics paradigm, SFL focuses on the semogenic, "meaning-making", power of language tools that help us comprehend texts' intentional meaning. Halliday indicates that the goal should be to identify the grammatical tools accessible in language for producing meaning, rather than thinking about language "as an autonomous intellectual game" (Halliday and Webster, 2009).

According to Eggins (2004), SFL suggests four central theoretical claims about language. Firstly, language use is functional. Secondly, its function is to make meaning. Thirdly, these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context in which they are exchanged. Fourthly, the process of using language is a semiotic process, a process of making meaning by choosing. In Halliday's SFL, language has three types of functions called metafunction (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). These three metafunctions are:

1- Ideational function denotes language's capacity to interpret human experience into two components: experiential and logical. This metafunction

is denoted by transitivity, which contains three components participants, process‹ and circumstances.

2- Interpersonal function refers to language's ability to exchange social roles and attitudes. It is represented by mood, modality, speech acts, and interpersonal metaphors.

3- Textual function refers to the ability of language to create discourse. It expresses theme and rheme as devices

Baker and Ellece (2011) assert that SFL plays a key role in the development of critical linguistics and later, critical discourse analysis. Likewise, Critical stylistics and stylistics have widely embraced Halliday's explanations of how form-function pairings function in language. (Jeffries, 2014a)

2.4 Critical Linguistics

Critical linguistics (henceforth CL) is a social approach to the study of linguistics that is established in the late 1970s at the University of East Anglia by a group of scholars, like Roger Fowler, Gunther Kress, Tony Trew‹ and Robert Hodge (Bhatia et al., 2008). CL is a social application of language analysis that primarily employs concepts and methods associated with Halliday's theory of systemic-functional linguistics. Language usage can encode ideological forms or discursive in such a manner that different usages can encode different ideologies because of different situations. Noteworthy, the words "critical" and "critique" do not have to convey the negative meanings of carping and grumbling. Thus, CL is a branch of linguistics that studies the connections between ideas and the social conditions in which they might exist (Malmkjær, 2005, p.102)

Critical linguistics is the study of the texts and how the texts are comprehended and used (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Fairclough (1992, as cited in

Min, 1997) states that unlike formal linguistics, which studies linguistic form without regard to its social function, critical linguistics aims to understand the social function of language, to characterise linguistic processes in social terms, and to expose the ideological and political investments in language.

Further, critical linguistics draws on the area of stylistics by studying and analysing various writings and aiming to explain how values and belief systems reside in such texts. In other words, it goes beyond stylistics by attempting to show how ideologies manifest themselves in texts (Chaka, 2006). Crystal (2008) indicates that critical linguistics has been enlarged and applied to other fields such as sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and especially discourse analysis.

2.5 Text and Discourse

Paltridge (2012) defines text as "a piece of spoken or written language". It can be counted in a variety of ways, from newspaper articles to web videos (Ahmed, 2020, p.16). Cook (1989, p.14) states that text is "stretches of language treated only formally". Cook's definition means that "text comprises of written and spoken language, but excludes any context" (Tabbert, 2013, p.51). A stretch of spoken or written language with a clearly defined communication function is referred to as text (news report, poem, road sign, etc) (Crystal, 2010). The text has seven standards of textuality and without any of these standards, the text will not be communicative. They are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981). Notably, "it should be made clear at the outset that all texts are ideological" (Jeffries, 2010, p.6).

Discourse can be defined in a variety of ways. Van Dijk (1997, p.2) indicates that discourse is "the form that people make of language to convey ideas, thoughts, or beliefs within a social context". Discourse is a form of communication

that is created by language. This language refers to the limits and options that writers and speakers have in specific situations, which reflect their goals, intentions, thoughts, and interactions with readers and listeners (Paltridge, 2012). Likewise, discourse is a spoken or written text in the context of production and reception as well as the social context in which a text arises into play (Jeffries, 2010).

Although text and discourse can refer to written and spoken language, they are used interchangeably. The text has a more limited meaning than discourse (Sunderland, 2004, as cited in Hassan, 2019). Van Dijk (1998, p.194), disperses between text and discourse. He viewed a text as an "abstract theoretical unit" while discourse is "language in use or performance".

2.6 Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis (henceforth DA) is the investigation of how different language usages construct and convey the values of social institutions and/or how different uses of language are perceived as meaningful and united by their users in context (Cook, 2003). Critical discourse analysis (henceforth CDA) is a branch of discourse analysis that combines linguistic analysis, ideological critique, and cognitive psychology (Rahimi & Riasati, 2011). Wodak and Meyer (2008) indicate that CL and CDA are concepts that are frequently interchanged. Recently, the term CDA has been preferred. CDA can be viewed as an expansion of CL. This broadens the scope of critique in DA research (Tian, 2006).

As a comparison between CL and CDA, CL is formulated to study ideologies and how they are exposed in different texts (Thornborrow, 2002) whereas CL has been chastised for lacking a connection between language, power, and ideology (Fairclough, 1992). CDA, in contrast, is categorised by attentiveness in de-mystifying ideologies and power through the analysis of semiotic material

(written, spoken, or visual) in a systemic and reproducible manner (Wodak & Meyer, 2008). Likewise, van Leeuwen (2006) asserts that CDA aims to solve all of these problems in the theoretical framework of CL by realising a "more explicit dialogue between social theory and practice, richer contextualisation, greater interdisciplinarity and greater attention to the multimodality of discourse".

A group of scholars including Teun van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Theo van Leeuwen, and Ruth Wodak developed CDA in the early 1990s following a small symposium in Amsterdam (Wodak & Meyer, 2008). CDA, according to van Dijk (2015, p.466) is "discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social-power abuse and inequality are enacted, reproduced, legitimated, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context". Henry and Tator (2002) indicate that CDA is an approach for deconstructing media and other elite social groups' ideas and establishing and analysing economic, historical, and social power connections between subordinate and dominant groups. Further, Jeffries (2010) states that CDA has gone into great detail about the nature of social meaning and how discourse plays a role in the reproduction of social inequality and prevailing ideologies. In CDA, the term "critical" has no negative meaning. Indeed, it has a unique sense that aims to uncover associations that people may not comprehend (Fairclough, 1989).

Critical discourse analysis aims to expose fraud and manipulation in writings that would otherwise go unnoticed by normal readers; CDA integrates them into critical consciousness and demonstrates how language is being manipulated to benefit one group over another (Fairclough, 1992). CDA and other stylistic approaches are identical in their interests with the manipulative or convincing effect of newspapers, advertisements, political speeches, or reports (Jeffries & Mclntyre, 2010). Jeffries (2007) asserts that CDA and stylistics are similar. The distinction is that the interpretations are usually ideological in one, while in the

other, they are literary or emotive. However, it is possible to look at ideology in literature as well.

There is no singular ‘tradition’ of CDA and no agreed-upon set of analysis methods that should be employed to discover ideology (Jeffries, 2007). Tabbert (2015, as cited in Ahmed, 2020) mentions some important CDA approaches that have affected subsequent research, including Fairclough’s Marxist approach, van Dijk’s socio-cognitive approach, Wodak’s discourse-historical approach, and van Leeuwen’s socio-semiotics approach. Jeffries (2010) illustrates that Fairclough classifies CDA into three ‘dimensions’ or ‘stages’:

1. Description is concerned with the text’s formal qualities.
2. Interpretation is focused on the relationship between text and interaction, seeing the text as both a product of the process of production and a resource in the process of interpretation
3. Explanation is interested in the association of interaction and social context with the social determinants of development, processes, and consequences.

Many CDA researchers are interested in the process of explaining how texts are produced and read concerning the socio-political landscape. Whereas, stylisticians are interested in the first and second stages (Jeffries, 2010)

Critical discourse analysis has been criticised for proffering “partial” or “subjective” study of texts and it emphasising specific aspects of texts and ignores others (Widdowson, 2004). CDA approaches have been criticised for not supplying a comprehensive set of tools; they are more concerned with contextual qualities of powerful language, and these qualities are somewhat vague. CDA approaches have not supplied tools that help to illustrate how texts influence the reader to change or adopt the ideological views of texts (Jeffries, 2010). Thus, Jeffries (2010) has

developed critical stylistics (henceforth CS) as a more objective and textual version of CDA (Hassan, 2019).

2.6.1 Ideology

The term ideology has a wide range of interpretations depending on the approach to investigating it (Rahimi & Sahvagard, 2007). Eagleton (1991, as cited in Alaghbary et al., 2015, p2) indicates "nobody has yet come up with a single adequate definition of ideology". Typically, ideology is considered one of the cornerstones of CDA (Wodak & Meyer, 2009, as cited in Glover, 2015).

Hodge and Kress (1993) define ideology as a systemic collection of ideas, originating from a specific viewpoint. Ideology is a broad term that involves science and metaphysics. To van Dijk (1995, p.21) "ideology is not only as a system of ideas but specific basic frameworks of social cognition with specific social structures and specific cognitive and social functions". Ideology can be both positive and negative. It denotes cognitive and social representations. Cognitively, ideologies are a specific sort of belief stored in long-term memory. Socially, these ideological beliefs are adopted by members of groups or ideological communities (Van Dijk, 2015).

According to Jeffries (2010, pp. 5-8), ideology refers to the ideas shared by a society or community and it is a very significant aspect of the world, they are communicated, reproduced, structured, and exchanged using language. "Language can carry ideologies, either explicitly (I hate foreigners) or implicitly (those horrible foreigners are back again)". Moreover, ideologies are "identifiable through literary analysis", (Jeffries &Walker 2012, p. 214). Further, ideology is called

‘naturalised’ when the ideas and values become common sense or substantive parts of a community’s or society’s thinking, and they reject to be understood as ideological (Jeffries, 2015, p.386).

2.6.2 Naturalisation

One of the most significant notions underlying CDA is that some ideologies might be ‘naturalised’ to the point that they become ‘common sense’ to community members. For instance, the idea that children should be looked after and not forced to work 13- hours days has now become a widely held belief in the United Kingdom. This idea, may come as a surprise to Victorian families that relied on children’s wages and families in poor countries who do so today (Jeffries, 2010).

Fairclough (1992, as cited in Tabbert, 2016, p.33) asserts, “ideologies are most effective when they become naturalised, and achieve the status of common sense”. A naturalised text illuminates away the notion of ideology. It is claimed to be unbiased and objective with no self-effect (Fairclough, 1989). Thus, people view something as natural or common. (Sacawisastra, 2016).

2.6.3 Power

Power is difficult to define since it has varied meanings for different scholars and disciplines. Foucault (1979, p.93) affirms that “power is everywhere, not because embrace everything but because it comes from everywhere”. For CDA, power is one of the cornerstones. Richardson (2007, p.27) declares, “CDA engages with analyses and critiques of social power and how this is represented and both explicitly and implicitly reproduced”.

Power is derived through privileged access to social resources such as wealth, knowledge, education, and status, which enable dominant groups to use coercion, dominance, and control over subordinate groups (Simpson & Mayr,

2009). Chilton and Schaffner (2006, as cited in Bravo & Lanza, 2021, p.8) point out that “power can also be exercised through controlling others’ use of language. That is, through various kinds and degrees of censorship and access control”. Fairclough (2015) discriminates between two types of power: power in discourse and power behind discourse. Power in discourse is concerned with how power relations are acted out in the communication process, whereas the power behind discourse is concerned with how institutional or otherwise established power ties between communicating actors affect communication (Jeffries, 2010).

2.7 Critical Stylistics

Critical stylistics is a branch of stylistics that focuses on text analysis from a critical perspective. It tries to show hidden ideologies in texts and how texts offer the world of reality to the hearer or reader (Ahmed & Abbas, 2021). The study of the female body in women’s magazines (2007) lead to the development of the term “critical stylistics” in 2010 when Jeffries tried to describe how language could restrict and dominate women in their lives (Tabbert, 2016). CS has developed as a highly prominent approach to linguistic ideology and as a reaction to the development of CDA (Jeffries, 2014a).

Critical stylistics refers to the stylistic work that looks into how social meanings are expressed through language. CL and CDA have influenced and guided this stylistic trend (Norgaard et al., 2010). By combining the strength and merits of both critical discourse analysis and stylistics, critical stylistics could bridge the gap between them, and uncover the writers’ way of establishing their ideologies in their writings (Coffey, 2013). Jeffries (2016, p.159) asserts that “CS as mainstream text-based stylistics with a particular (critical) purpose and the interest it has in exposing the underlying ideologies of texts”. The term critical in CS has a different meaning than in CDA as Jeffries (2014a, pp.9-10) states:

> "The 'critical' in critical discourse analysis is intended to denote a specifically socialist (and probably Marxist) view of analysis language. While I have a great deal of political sympathy with this outlook on life. I cannot conceive of a linguistic approach which takes a narrowly political view as axiomatic. Instead, I would offer critical stylistics as a method of finding the ideology in any text".

Jeffries (2010) asserts that the main objective of CS is to expose the ideological structure of a literary (novels, poems, etc) or non-literary (newspapers, political speech, etc) texts. She introduces a set of tools that are more comprehensive than those provided in CDA for analysing the linguistic features and discovering the ideology in texts (Elsheheimy, 2022). Those tools are not entirely new; It is a collection of preceding tools employed by the critical linguist Fowler, the discourse analyst Fairclough, the stylistician Simpson, and Jeffries has introduced additional tools, which are comparable (at least semantically, pragmatically) to traditional tools like transitivity and modality. However, they differ from the previous critical linguistic and CDA tools in the form and function that represent more than one linguistic feature in order to address the lack of form-function mapping (Jeffries, 2010).

The idea of a level of meaning that is intermediate between the systematic (coded) meaning of what de Saussure called the "langue" and the contextual and relatively flexible meaning of language in use, which Saussure called "parole," is at the core f critical stylistics. In that point, the text (or utterance) can employ linguistic tools to present a particular worldview. The analyst must determine out "what the text is doing" and "how it presents the world" using the tools of analysis of critical stylistics are called "textual-conceptual functions". This demonstrates how different texts can elicit different kinds of meanings ((Jeffries, 2014a, p.409).

The three metafunctions of language (ideational, interpersonal, and textual) identified by Halliday (1994) are the most effective way to contextualise this textual meaning. Nevertheless, Jeffries connects Halliday's concept of 'ideational' meaning with the use of language in the context (particularly co-text). The idea on is motivated. When the language system is being used. Likewise, Jeffries draws a parallel for textual meaning with Austin's theory of speech act that includes: first, locution refers to the basic pattern and system of language; second, illocution refers to the producer's meaning (illocutionary force); third, perlocution refers to the impact in the real world. This falls within what the Halliday model would interpret as the "interpersonal" metafunction of language if the textual meaning is viewed as an intermediate concept between langue and parole. which falls within what the Halliday model may perceive as the 'interpersonal' metafunction of language if viewing of textual meaning as intermediate between langue and parole (Jeffries, 2014a).

To sum up, CS is based primarily on exposing and discovering hidden ideological aspects of linguistic features that exist in all kinds of texts by providing ten tools known as "textual -conceptual functions" to discover these ideological aspects.

2.7.1 Differences between CDA and CS

Regardless of the interdisciplinary CDA approaches that emphasise how language is used to create ideologies and power relations in social contexts, CDA approaches have received criticism in terms of theory, methodology, interpretation, and context (Hassan, 2019). CS has emerged as a reaction to CDA and there are several differences between them:

1. Critical discourse analysis is criticised for lacking a clear, complete, and comprehensive linguistic toolkit of analysis. While CS provides a more

systemic, comprehensive linguistic set of eclectic tools by combining the best tools of stylistics, CL, and CDA (Jeffries, 2010, pp1, 16).

2. Critical discourse analysis is criticised for proffering a "partial" or "subjective" study of texts and it emphasises specific aspects of texts and ignores others (Widdowson, 2004). Therefore, Jeffries in her framework of CS withstands personal biases and informs objectivity by constructing the interpretation textually grounded (Ibrahim, 2018).
3. "CDA main practitioners were often more interested in the contextual (and thus necessarily vague) features of powerful language and were less concerned to provide a reasonably broad range of tools" (Jeffries, 2010, p.1). Thus, the social, historical, visual, and such text- external represent the core of CDA analysis. Whereas, in CS the primary focus is on revealing the ideological underpinnings of texts and the way language is manipulated to pass certain ideological contents or convincing the reader to change or adapt ideological viewpoint to confirm the text (Jeffries, 2014a)
4. Fairclough distinguishes three stages of analysis: description, interpretation, and explanation. Many CDA researchers are interested in the process of explaining how texts are produced and read concerning the socio-political landscape. Whereas, CS researchers are interested in the first and second stages (Jeffries, 2010)
5. The term 'critical' in CDA is intended to imply a socialist and most likely Marxist, approach to language analysis. Conversely, the term 'critical' in CS refers to a method of uncovering ideology in any text (Jeffries, 2014a).

2.8 Addiction

The word addiction derives from the Latin verb "addico" which means "giving over" either in a positive or a negative sense. The traditional English

meaning of the word “addiction” as defined in the 1933 Oxford English Dictionary is “a formal giving over or delivery by a sentence of court” (Alexander and Schweighofer, 1988, pp.151-2). Orford (1985, cited in DiClements 2003) indicates that the scope of the term addiction has expanded to include any substance use or reinforcing behaviour in the last 20 years. That is, the term addiction is difficult to define, and its usage has been regarded as controversial. Yet, the dependence on a substance or activity is central to its definition (Alavi et al., 2012). According to the American Society of Addiction Medicine (2019):

> Addiction is a treatable, chronic medical disease involving complex interactions among brain circuits, genetics, the environment, and an individual’s life experiences. People with addiction use substances or engage in behaviours that become compulsive and often continue despite harmful consequences.

Psychologists and psychiatrists define addiction as a neuropsychiatric disorder characterised by a persistent desire to continue taking drugs despite the negative consequence (Zou et al., 2017). Herie et. al. (2010, p.vi) indicate that the term is used to describe anything from a desire to have or do something pleasurable. Thus, addictions activates a group of pleasure-related brain sites known as the “reward center” or “pleasure pathway” of the brain (Kusumawardani, 2021, p.8).

Karagün, et. al. (2018) state that addiction is a disorder in which people harm their psycho-physiological health or social life. It is said to be seen in various disciplines. Including behavioural neuroscience, epidemiology, genetics, molecular biology, pharmacology, psychology, psychiatry, and sociology (Kranzier & Li, 2008).

2.8.1 Types of Addiction

According to Sussman (2017), the general categories of addiction are substance and behavioural.

2.8.1.1 Substance Addiction

Chen et. al. (2017) define substance addiction as inveterate, relapsing brain disease categorised by compulsive drug seeking and use despite hurtful consequences. Poli (2017) states that substance addiction involves direct manipulation of pleasure by using products, legal or illegal, that are ingested into the body, including drug use disorder and food-related disorders. Sussman (2017, pp.104-6) clarifies that "the label substance refers to the fact that an object is imbibed as opposed to involving producing an effect through only motoric behaviour". The two categories of substance addictions are drugs and food. Drugs are consumed and create a direct physiological effect on the brain. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-V) includes these types of drugs: alcohol, caffeine, cannabis, hallucinogens, stimulants, and tobacco. Food, in comparison, may stimulate a direct (and indirect) effect on brain function.

According to Sussman (2017, p.6), DSM-V enlists the following criteria for the diagnosis of substance addiction:

a) Taking large amount or over a long period.
b) A persistent desire or failure to cut down or control the use of a drug.
c) A great deal of time is spent in activities and use of a drug.
d) Craving or a strong desire to use a drug.
e) Recurrent use due to a failure in a major role at work or home and continued use despite having social or interpersonal problems.
f) Recurrent in case that it is physically dangers, important social or occupational activities are reduced.
g) Tolerance achieved by increasing the amount of drug.

h) Withdrawal is either a syndrome for drug or a drug relieve withdrawal symptoms.

2.8.1.2 Behavioural Addiction

Behavioural or process addiction involves a set of potentially pathological behaviours that expose people to mood-altering experiences via which they gain pleasure and become addicted (Poli, 2017). Bolle (2014) defines it as a disorder where behaviour purposes solely used to create pleasure and to relieve feelings and stress thus an individual fails to control and continues to execute. Marlatt et. al. (1988, p. 224) assert that behavioural addiction is a pattern of behaviour that increases the risk of disease and/or personal and social problems.

Sussman (2017, p.91) mentions six types of behavioural addiction, including gambling, love and sex, exercise, workaholism, shopping, and internet or digital technology. Griffiths (1996, as cited in Alavi et al, 2012) suggests six diagnostic criteria for behavioural addiction:

a) Salience: when the specific activity becomes the most vital activity in people's lives.
b) Mood modification: an effect of engaging in a specific activity.
c) Tolerance: the increasing amount of specific activity to attain satisfaction.
d) Withdrawal: unpleasant emotional states or physical effects like shakes.
e) Conflict: intrapsychic conflict within the addicted individual or interpersonal difficulties between addicts and others around them.
f) Relapse: the desire to revert to the earlier patterns of the activity after the abstinence.

Substance addiction and behavuioral addiction share many similarities that include impaired control over engagement, continuous engagement despite hurtful consequences, and motive or cravings. The similarities between them extend to

biological, epidemiological, clinical, genetic, and other domains. Likewise, the criteria for substance and behavioural addiction share similarities (Chen et al., 2017). Whereas, the difference between them is that substance is directly taken into the body while behavioural addiction is not directly taken (Sussman, 2017). Moreover, dopamine is involved in rewarding effects in both but they may differ with respect to dopaminergic response specific manipulation (Chen et al., 2017).

2.8.1.2.1 Digital Addiction

The term "digital" derives from the Latin term "digitus" for counting. Recently, it is expanded to include technology (Brattli, 2016). Digital technologies are electronic tools, devices, systems, and resources that create, or process data such as social media, digital games, mobile phones, and multimedia (Erdin, 2020). Because of the emergence of digital technologies in our times and the integration of mass media with digital technologies, digital addiction has emerged and spread widely (Bagci, 2019).

Digital addiction (henceforth DAd) is a new type of behavioural addiction and is characterised by compulsive usage of digital devices that causes physical and mental harm to the addict as well as their loved ones (Dicey, 2019). Alrobai et. al. (2014) describe DAd as an important degree of dependent behaviour triggered by software products and can lead to both pleasure and relief of discomfort. However, it can harm a person psychologically, physically, and socially. Digital addiction is an umbrella term for online/ internet addiction, digital games addiction, and mobile telephony. For Young (1985), digital addiction is viewed to 'penetrate' like an 'epidemic'. The fact that the work of Young and others on

digital addiction is motivated by an ideological viewpoint that addiction is located in the digital is viewed as a ‘negative’ (Cover, 2004).

Digital addiction is not listed in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder. Only gaming disorder has been added to the section on the addictive disorder in the new International Classification of Diseases, 11th Revision (World Health Organization, 2018, cited in Seema et al, 2021). However, Griffiths’ six diagnostic criteria for behavioural addiction applied to DAd, namely, salience: when a user's use of digital media becomes an essential activity; mood modification: when used by individuals as a coping strategy; tolerance: increasing the use of digital media; withdrawal: behaving badly when unable to view or interact with digital media; conflict: when digital usage causes interpersonal or intrapersonal issues; relapse: rapidly falling back to a user’s old digital usage (Cham et al., 2019).

The current study is based on Singh and Singh’s (2019) classification of digital addiction since they have reviewed 125 studies in the existing literature on digital addiction. They have established a conceptual overview of digital addiction, dividing it into three categories:

a) Digital device addiction such as computer addiction, smartphone addiction, and digital gadget addiction

b) Digital platforms addiction such as google search addiction, YouTube addiction, Facebook addiction, Twitter addiction, and so on.

c) Digital media/ medium addiction such as video games addiction, computer games addiction, and mobile apps addiction.

2.9 Media

The term ‘media’ refers to a communication medium between senders and recipients. Media has two categories: old and new. The first category includes newspapers, magazines, books, and radio while the latter includes the internet, digital TV, and so on. Thus, the newspaper is mediated between them; it is old because it is printed and connected to a legacy news media, and it is new because it can be online (Tabbert, 2016).

Laughey (2007) defines media as a tool that delivers messages to audiences in various places of the region, country, or even the world. It is a broad term that can denote the entirety of how reality is represented in broadcast and printed media, from television to newspapers (O’keeffe, 2006). Meyrowitz (1985, as cited in Jones, 2021, p.12) refers to media as “information systems”. Besides, Hodge and Kress (1993) state that media has the power to influence our perception and awareness of the world that we live in by using a specific language. It can mutually perform as “a source of conflict and as a source of consensus” (van Dijk, 2008). Thus, media is a mirror of society by which the latter reflects the image of the world that represents outside interests and ideologies, i.e., “all news is always reported from some particular angle” (Fowler, 1991, p.10).

Garrett and Bell (1998) clarify that linguists and media communicators have paid attention to media because it is important for various reasons. First, media is a rich source of data that is easily accessible for research and education. Second, media can provide us with a clear understanding of the social meanings and stereotypes conveyed through language and communication. Third, People's attitudes toward language are reflected in the media. Four, media plays a central role in shaping political, cultural, and social life.

The characteristics of media news language include defining stylistic consistency, rhetorical accessibility, and brevity, as well as appropriate story structure, use of quotes and attribution, and a well-crafted lead (Cotter, 2010). Das

(2009, p.1) declares that the role of media is global for all “positive and negative changes” in society regardless of geographical position. It depends on the way media works in its responsibilities and tasks in such a situation. The main role of media in determining what information the public has justified is regarded as the main reason that justifies the recent increased attention to how the media forms public stances, knowledge, and behaviour. Likewise, van Dijk (1992) asserts that the power of media is normally persuasive and representative. That is, media predominantly have the perspective of changing people’s minds and controlling the readers’ or viewers’ views.

Social media should not be confused with mass media. Social media is a term used to refer to all services an umbrella term for services, broadly defined as “internet-based sites and services that promote social interaction between participants” such as Twitter. Social media has a large number of transmitters and recipients, having the potential for a prompt response. Despite the fact that social media cannot replace newspapers or journalism, they are considered game-charge news. Mass media is non-reciprocal or “one-to-many. By virtue of the internet, accessing free news from a variety of sources directly has never been easier than it is right now. This, along with shifting human lifestyles (Tabbert, 2016).

2.9.1 News Value

Reah (2002, p.4) defines news as “information about recent events that are of interest to a sufficiently large group, or that may affect the lives of a sufficiently large group”. News values in the literature on journalism studies is the application of features of events or tales or criteria/principles by news workers as a method of determining which events or stories qualify as news or choosing the format and order of reporting (Bednarek & Caple, 2014, as cited in Abeed, 2017).

For van Dijk (1988), the term ‘news’ is ambiguous since it might be associated with various meanings. The first meaning is information about either people or things. The second is as a media program that offers news. The third meaning is a news article or news report (i.e., a text or discourse on radio, on TV, or in the newspaper). However, the third meaning can be regarded as the most common and most used one because it denotes news in texts or discourse. Benger and Luckman (cited in Conboy, 2007, p.5) state that “the language of the news plays a major part in the construction of what have been referred to as the social construction of reality”.

Richardson (2007) adopts news value as a criterion that journalists use to assess and evaluate the newsworthiness of an event. Galtung and Ruge (1973) coins the term “news values” including twelve criteria influencing news item collection. Such criteria involve frequency and threshold, clearness, significance, and congruence. Other characteristics include unpredictability, consistency, and composition, as well as references to elite nations, elite individuals, and negative characteristics (Abeed, 2017, pp.21-2).

2.9.2 Newspapers

Bucher et. al. (2005) point out that despite the fact that the newspaper is the oldest mass medium. It has never become outdated in its nearly 400-year history. Instead, the newspaper has proven to be extremely adaptable and flexible over the centuries. Reah (2002) states that the term ‘newspaper’ refers to the main subject of a publication as news, commentary, and reflection on the news of the day. However, newspapers contain various items, news, commentary, publicity, and culture, as well as publications.

Reah (1998) indicates that newspapers as an instrument for creating attitudes and beliefs. They serve as more than just means of information delivery.

They direct the reader's ideological viewpoint. Likewise, it can be presumed that newspapers play a significant role in society because they can be regarded as one of the fastest and most authentic sources of news. Chapman (2006, as cited in Ibrahim, 2018) proclaims that the language in the newspaper depicts “a state of mind and is communication at the same time”. The impact of newspapers is that they have the capacity to shape public opinion (Clark, 2012).

Nowadays, online newspapers have become one of the most important information sources in society, allowing readers to access updated news in the digital and technological era. Language in this form of mass media expresses social structure and power relations both explicitly and implicitly. As a result, they reflect the attitudes, beliefs, and perspectives of each socio-cultural background (Nurjannah, 2018).

Two characteristics set newspaper discourse apart from other forms of media discourse. First, newspaper discourse consists of a diverse range of written communication modes such as news, analysis, advertising, comments, and entertainment. Second, it is referred to as a non-literary language. It can take various forms and serve a variety of purposes. These two characteristics explain why newspaper discourse “displays several kinds of language and is stylistically very eclectic” (Khalil, 2000, p. 22).

2.10 Previous Studies

Addiction has grown greatly over the last decade and studied by a wide range of disciplines. However, this section chronologically introduces a review of some linguistic related studies on addiction. Despite the fact that all studies are relevant to the current one, they are classified into two groups: the first deals with the most recent previous studies on addiction in general, and the second deals with digital addiction as a specific type of behavioural addiction.

2.10.1 Previous Studies on Addiction

1. **Sills (2017)**

The title of the study is “Constructing the Addict: A Discourse Analysis of National Newspapers Concerning North America’s First Supervised Injection Site”. The study centred on a discursive analysis of newspaper representation of Insite. It examined how Canadian national newspapers represented the supreme court decision in 2011 that allowed Insite to open under an exemption. The framework of analysis is based on Foucauldian notions of discourse, power, knowledge, and governmentality.

The selected data included 25 articles in total from the Globe, Mail, and National Post. The finding indicated that Insite is well-represented in terms of the health benefits that gives to its clients as well as the benefits it provides to the larer community by improving public order.

2. **Haider et. al. (2020)**

The research is entitled “Language and Addiction: Exploring the Role of Discourse in Drug Addiction”. It explored drug addiction from the perspective of the discourse of drug addicts. The researchers adopted social construction and Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. Social constructivism used for understanding the perspective of drug addicts and the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis used for comprehension of the role of their discourse in addiction.

The selected data are obtained from different cities in Pakistan as participants of the research and informal interviews are used to gather data.

Regarding findings, different types of drug users employed different types of discourse. Language has an important part of drug addiction. The study also

proposed that drug addiction is treated with a novel type of therapy known as Discourse Therapy.

3. **Al-Mamoory and Kareem (2022)**

The study is entitled "A Critical Discourse Analysis of Addiction in American Newspapers". It aimd to determine how the American newspapers deal with the topic of addiction and its harmful consequences in society. The researchers used van Dijk's model of 'discourse and manipulation' to analyse the data.

The data included two newspaper reports from the Washington newspaper. These reports were chosen from an online newspaper from 2015 to 2022.

The findings showed that these newspapers have a proclivity for linguistically conveying news by aggressively emphasising drugs while disregarding the victims. These publications use ideological rhetoric to undermine security and stability in nations with widespread drug use.

2.10.2 Previous Studies on Digital Addiction

1. **Tiidenberg et. al. (2017)**

The research is entitled "I'm an Addict" and Other Sensemaking Devices: A Discourse Analysis of Self-Reflections on Lived Experience of Social Media". It investigated how young people negotiate their own experiences and existing discourse about social media. The researchers used a unique methodology for generating self-reflexive, auto-ethnographic narratives and focus on micro-level discourse and rhetoric.

The data of the study are based on discourse analysis of approximately 500 pages of written data and 390 minutes of video (produced by 50 college students aged 18-30 and from 2014 to 2016).

The findings showed continual effort to balance or resolve competing discourses. Some of these tensions are drown from totalising discourses (grand narratives) whereas others emerge as individuals reflect on their own reflections about their lived experiences in social media.

2. Setyawan (2019)

The study is entitled "Nomophobie Student's Critical Discourse Analysis on New Yogyakarta International Airport News". It aimed to find out the critical discourse analysis capability of nomophobie students toward the news articles. The study is based on the theories of van Dijk of macrostructure, superstructure, and microstructure.

The data of the study were obtained from Yogyakarta University and the time was from January to September 2018. The samples were nomophobie students from different places in Yogyakarta.

The findings illustrated that the "theme" elements are 100% known; the "rhetoric" elements are 91.6% known; the "stylistics" elements are 41.6% known, and "syntax" elements are 16.6% known by the nomophobie students. The "Scheme" and "Semantics" elements are not known at all (0%) by the nomophobie students so far.

2.10.3 The Current Study

The previous studies have focused on drugs addiction as a type of substance addiction and types of digital addiction from the perspective of psycholinguistics, discourse analysis, or critical discourse analysis. Unlike the previous studies, the current study comes to be the first attempt, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, to investigate the concept of digital addiction as an umbrella term via critical stylistic analysis in British newspapers.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter provides a detailed account of the research methodology adopted in this study. It clarifies the research design, data collection, and selection as well as the analytic model of the current study.

3.1 Research Design

A research design is defined by Creswell (2014) as a plan or strategy researchers use to answer the research questions underpinned by philosophy, methodology, and methods. Three types of research design are advanced: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The qualitative method involves the researcher making a textual or a narrative description of the phenomena under investigation while quantitative research indicates a numerical task of the phenomenon under investigation. That is, the target of the qualitative research is descriptive more than predictive; the aim is to have a deep understanding and interpretation with a precise analysis of the phenomenon. In the quantitative method, the aim is to confirm the results in the form of numbers, and statistics are used to support the interpretation (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

The mixed method includes collecting the elements of the qualitative and quantitative methods for reaching a deep understanding (Johnson et al., 2007). This collection causes both methods to complete, support each other, and resulting in “richer and more comprehensive” research (Neuman, 2014).

The researcher of the current study adopts the mixed method in analysing the data since it leads to a deep understanding of the data and results.

3.2 Data Collection and Selection

The collected data of the current study comprises of ten articles about digital addiction gathered from two British broadsheet newspapers: Guardian and Independent, from the period of 2010 to 2022. The decision to focus on newspapers is due to newspapers' language which is typically considered popular and easily accessible (Hillbom, 2009). Likewise, newspapers belong to old and new media because they could be printed and online (Tabbert, 2016).

British newspapers are preferred over other Western newspapers because of their prominence in the UK and their considerable global effect (Abeed, 2017). British newspapers can be divided into tabloids and broadsheets. Baker et. al. (2013, as cited in Hassan, 2019) identify the differences between broadsheets and tabloids in terms of format/style and popularity/quality, in which the former is typically larger than the latter. Broadsheets include more text, employ a formal style of writing, and focus on international news. Tabloids, in comparison, employ an informal style of writing, headlines with puns and an emphasis on national issues like sports, celebrities, and entertainment. Due to these differences, broadsheets now offer the highest level of quality. Moreover, van Dijk (1998, p. 3) regards broadsheets newspapers as "authoritative, trustworthy or credible sources". Due to the above-mentioned differences, the researcher of the current study selected British broadsheet newspapers.

Two broadsheet newspapers (Guardian and Independent) are selected to investigate. The selection of these two newspapers can be justified for the following reasons:

1. The most popular broadsheet newspapers in the United Kingdom (UK) from 2019 to 2020 were Independent since it has (28,101) individuals who

reached in thousands and The Guardian which has (27, 149) individuals who reached in thousands (Watson, 2020).

2. The Guardian and The Independent were awarded a 100% trust rating by the media watchdog NewsGuard (Dearden, 2020). Likewise, research from media regulator Ofcom has rated the Guardian as the most trusted newspaper in the UK among regular readers (Sweney, 2020).
3. Both newspapers' websites have an easy access and rich archive of the term digital addiction and its types.
4. Both newspapers' websites have free access.

3.2.1 The Guardian

Guardian is one of the British broadsheet newspapers (Hassan, 2019). It began as The Manchester Guardian, a regional newspaper, in 1821. After that, it changed its name to Guardian in 1959 and developed into a national voice. It is owned by the Guardian Media Group, which in turn is owned by the Scott Trust Ltd. Its financial independence means that it has a social democrat. Further, its avid readers claim to have an almost exclusive influence. (Tabbert, 2016). Likewise, Katherine Viner, editor-in-chief of the Guardian stated "our independent ownership structure means we are entirely free from political and commercial influence. Only our values determine the stories we choose to cover" ((https://www.theguardian.com/about/history). Furthermore, the Guardian is the UK newspaper that regular readers trust the most, according to research by the media watchdog Ofcom (Sweney, 2020).

3.2.2 The Independent

The independent is one of the British broadsheet newspapers (Hassan, 2019). It was founded in 1986 and a variety of names were considered, including

Arena, The Examiner, The Nation, the Chronicles, and 24 Hours. However, the famous name is the Independent. A recent international survey conducted by Oxford University placed The Independent firmly as one of the British quality newspapers, alongside names such as BBC (https://www.independent.co.uk/subscribe/our-story). In 2003, the Independent has launched two sizes, broadsheet, and tabloid, becoming the world's first newspaper to give readers a choice (https://www.independent.co.uk/news/media/the-independent-launches-tabloid-version-to-give-readers-a-choice-581355.html).

3.3 Model of Analysis (Theoretical Framework)

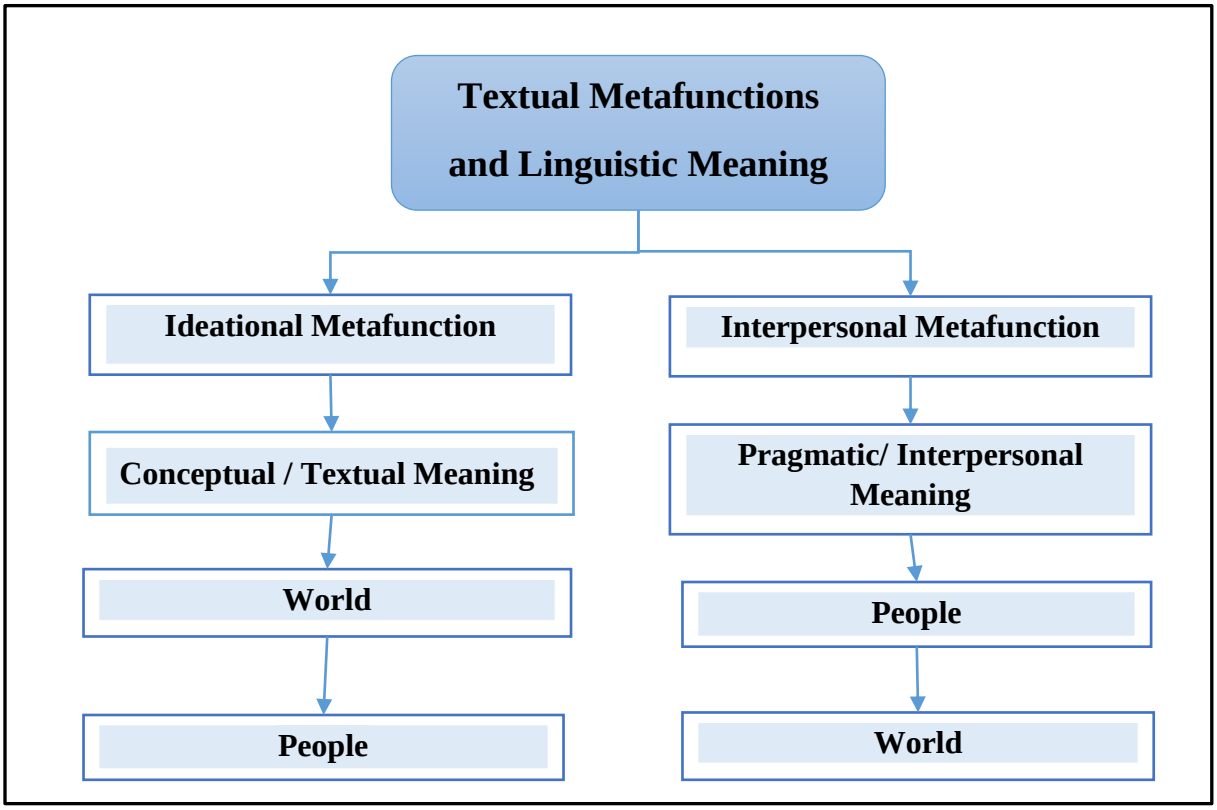
The current study adopts CS model of Jeffries (2010). Jeffries (2010, pp.1-16) asserts that the CS provides a more systemic, comprehensive linguistic set of eclectic tools by combing the best tools of stylistics, CL, and CDA. Critical stylistics aims "to give the reader a clear set of analytical tools to follow in carrying out the critical analysis of texts". These tools are called textual-conceptual functions (TCFs). The term 'conceptual' in TCFs refers to how these are used to capture what a text does conceptually in presenting the reality or a fictitious world in a specific way. The term 'textual' refers to how the language system's resources are used to produce this conceptual meaning. The analyst's role is to figure out what the text is doing and how it is presenting the world's perspectives to the readers (Jeffries, 2014a). Hence, these tools help in showing the ways that texts tend to persuade readers to alter or adapt their ideological perspectives to match that of the text producers (Jeffries, 2010).

It is mentioned, Jeffries' (2010) model is composed of ten textual-conceptual tools. This model is not totally new, it is based on earlier models of Simpson, Halliday, Fowler, and Fairclough. Noteworthy, Jeffries' CS tools are part of Halliday's (1985) ideational metafunction because they establish a particular view

of the text world (Jeffries, 2010; Jefferies, 2014a). Tabbert (2016, p.38) states that "Jeffries adds 'textual meaning' into the space between the idealised system of language and its use".

Figure 1

Textual Metafunctions and Linguistic Meaning



Note: Revised metafunction of language and their relationship to meaning adapted from Jeffries (2014a, p. 472, as cited in Tabbert, 2016, p.38)

Jeffries' ten textual- conceptual tools include the following:

3.3.1 Naming and Describing

The term 'naming' describes a style feature and reflects a broadening of CDA's nominalisation category. This method is conceptually identical to putting something into a definite noun phrase and considering it as 'given' to establish its existence (Jeffries, 2007). It is not entirely new to emphasise the importance of

naming practices, as it is similar to CDA's "referential strategies". Jeffries' approach is distinctive in that she considers the noun phrase to be the fundamental unit of analysis (Coffey, 2013, p.70).

Naming and describing look at how individual texts (and indirectly their authors) may choose from language's regular resources to represent a worldview. It is the linguistic process through which persons, places, and things are frequently identified in language, as well as the various ways in which such items can be described. The different ways of naming and describing can have ideological effects in a particular context (Jeffries, 2010).

To Jeffries (2014a, p.413), "the most obvious thing that texts do is to name- and describe - the animate, inanimate and abstract 'things' that the project world of the text contains". Jeffries (2010) asserts that this textual-conceptual tool's function is to help writers or speakers describe a specific event or item in a way that appears to create ideological meaning. Naming is a broad term that refers to a range of linguistic practices, containing:

- The choice of a noun to represent a referent;
- Noun phrase modification to determine the nature of the referent;
- Nominalisation is the process of converting verbs into nouns.

(i) Choice of Nouns

Jeffries (2010) adopts three kinds of choices that any person can make for naming things. First, the choice of nouns could be influenced by regional variation. For example, calling a small portion of bread a roll, bap, teacake, and breadcake are all choices that represent a regional variation of British English. The second kind of choice in naming has noticeable ideological potential. This choice of nouns is connected with words that have pejorative and ameliorative connotations that

show the speaker's opinion of the thing being discussed or referred to. For instance, the choice between saying someone gives you smile or leer is one between a neutral and negative evaluation of the facial expression. The third kind of choice in naming is the use of metaphorical expression instead of the literal for it requires more efforts to elicit its relevance by the hearer/ reader. For example:

1. *He lived in a Victorian terraced house with original features.*
2. *He lived in a museum.*

Even though the first sentence is more detailed with information, the speaker might prefer the second sentence to indicate his disapproval of the lack of modern furniture and negative view of the same referent.

(ii) Noun Modification

Jeffries (2010, p.21) points out that modification of nouns reversing the nominal component of English sentences and clauses can use morphological and syntactic techniques to name referents and yield ideological effects. The nominal component does not create the sentence or clause's proposition; instead, it manipulates something that is assumed to exist. In a simple sentence such as "*Janie ate the last biscuit*", the existence of the verb *ate* that shows a relationship among named entities Janie and the last biscuit in which one eats the other. To exploit this clause ideologically one can alter the verbal into nominal construction, altering the processes/actions into nominal through nominalisation. Thus, the sentence *"Janie's eating of the last biscuit was a scandal in her father's eyes"* would focus on the process of eating into a query about the whole action that is described negatively as a scandal.

It can be concluded that the nominal has a huge capacity for the ideological packaging that encourages the recipient to agree with concepts that must be open to discussion.

(iii) Nominalisation

According to Jeffries (2010), nominalisation is a morphological phenomenon in which a noun takes the place of a verb. It is employed to encapsulate ideological content in the head noun itself by morphologically transforming a process into a state. The main function of the nominal aspect is to name the participants of an event in a clause, which is essentially referring to a location, thing, or person, while the verb phrase denotes the type of process that works against formal-functional relations in English. Hence, if the nominal entity in the clause's role is to name participants in an action, event, or process. Then the head of the nominal group is prototypically assumed to be that action, event, or process. For instance:

3. *The British invaded Iraq.*
4. *The invasion of Iraq by the British*

The first clause depicts the two participants as noun phrases (British/Iraq), with the verb (invaded) connecting the subject (actor) to the object (goal). The clause is subject to debate in the process because the clause's fundamental argument is just about the relationship. The second phrase, however, is no longer considered a whole sentence because the verb is nominalised, and the entire clause becomes a noun phrase. The process of altering a process into a nominal is comparable to passivation, in which the actor is ignored. Accordingly, the phrase "the invasion of Iraq" appears on surface structure as a common type of noun phrase, similar to "the sound of music". The writer of the text may wish to include specific evaluative entities and incorporate their ideological intentions.

Critical discourse analysis refers to nominalisation as a method that is an essential choice in the construction of text. Fairclough (1989. p.51, cited in Jeffries, 2010) defined the process of nominalisation as a transformation process into a noun as if it were an entity with important characteristics left undefined. This can lead to ideological content being packaged in the head noun itself. However, Fowler (1991, p.79, cited Jeffries, 2010) indicates that nominalisation does not always have an ideological association. Thus, the reader may be able to determine whether the text is ideologically based or not. Further, with few details provided, it is difficult to pin down because so many details are taken away through normalisation (Jeffries, 2010).

3.3.2 Representing Actions/Events/States

Representing actions/ events/ states depends on the choice of the verb to characterise the situation as an action, event, or state in a clause. Each of these options can have an ideological impact based on how the recipients see the situation (Jeffries, 2010). This textual-conceptual function is based on the model of transitivity as set out by Simpson's (1993) version of Halliday's system of transitivity. This version is attainable and is acquainted with a symbiosis of CDA and stylistic methods for text analysis (Khuzaee, 2019). This tool is based on Simpson's model of transitivity because it is clear and relatively usable. Simpson states that transitivity "shows how speakers encode in language their mental picture of reality and how they account for their experience of the world around them" (Jeffries, 2010). The selection of transitivity type is affected by the construction of occurrence. Therefore, its purpose is to clarify who is responsible for the action that results (Jeffries, 2016). Jeffries (2010) states that the transitivity model categorises the lexical verbs according to the type of state or process that they are describing. The four main processes of transitivity involve:

a) The material actions processes are the most prototypical verbs and they refer to something done physically or abstractly. These material actions could be performed in three ways. First, intentional actions like “the joint union committee walked out of the meeting”. Second, unintentional actions called ‘material action supervention’ such as “the judge lost her temper”. Third, the material action verbs are known as ‘material action events’ and refer to the use of verbs with inanimate actors like “the sun shone”.

b) Verbalisation processes are actions that include the use of language and they necessarily involve a human actor. They appear to be frequently close to material actions such as *“he (sayer) said (process) no one wanted the dictator to remain (verbiage)”*.

c) Mental processes refer to what happens in the minds of individuals. They are divided into three subcategories: First, mental cognition like thinking, realising, knowing, understanding, and so on. For example, *“the interviewer (senser) realized (process) her mistake (phenomenon)”*. Second, mental reactions include feeling (emotionally), liking, hating, etc. *For example, “I (senser) hate (process) the political system in Britain”*. Third, mental perception like hearing, feeling (literally), seeing, tasting, etc. *For example, “they (senser) heard (process) the rumour about Mr. Price”*.

d) Relational processes describe the stable or static relationship between the Carrier and Attribute instead of changes or dynamic actions. These verbs involve the copula (to be) and other ‘intensive’ relations, possessive relations by using verbs like have and circumstantial relation which involve the verb be and verbs of movement with an emphasis on timing and spacing the process. For example, “the white paper is our attempt to re-balance

wealth"; "the students have a huge television". The following table is a summary of the transitivity model:

Table 1

Simpson's (1993) Transitivity Model

Main Category	Participants	Subcategories
Material Action Processes	Actor, Goal	Intention, Supervention, Event
Verbalisation Processes	Sayer, Verbiage, Goal	
Mental Cognition Process	Senser , Phenomenon	Cognition, Reaction Perception
Relational Processes	Carrier, Attribute	Intensive, Possessive, Circumstantial

Moreover, Jeffries (2014a) illustrates that choosing one verb instead of the other in a sentence can change how the recipients of the text/ utterance perceive the process being described. For instance, the same incident (someone telephoning the police) might be rephrased in a variety of ways to assert different aspects while keeping the core facts the same:

5. *John informed the police* (Material Action Intentional).
6. *John spoke to the police* (Verbalisation).

7. *John was a police informer* (Relational Intensive).
8. *John let the cat out of the bag to the police (Supervention).*

These examples demonstrate that the text creators have choices about how to present their stories and that these choices have (sometimes ideological) ramifications. In some cases, the transitivity of the verb in the context is debatable, and two labels may be employed at the same time. Thus, a sentence like "John informed the police" can be labeled as intentional material action and verbalisation.

This textual-conceptual function has ideological effects since it has the capability to reveal the text producer's mental images and worldview via language, as well as its various effects on the receptors. That is, the text producer's transitivity choices have direct impacts on the receptor, and have the capacity to change a sense of reality. Further, transitivity can interact with other textual tools like prioritising by placing the choice of transitivity verb in main or subordinate clauses (Jeffries, 2010).

3.3.3 Equating and Contrasting

The tool of equating and contrasting investigates how texts use the equivalence and opposition to structure the world. Texts can create new synonymies and oppositions, sometimes between words that people would never associate with each other out of the context and sometime between phrases and clauses, or even entire paragraphs. The text producers use a variety of "syntactic triggers" to produce these associations, which are then important in conveying their ideology (Jeffries, 2010, pp.51-3). Several triggers are often generated by syntactic frames that cause the production of opposites and fewer frames generate equivalence such as apposition (Jeffries).

(i) Equating

Jeffries (2010) states that equating refers to the employment of synonyms, despite the fact, that many linguists agree that there are no identical synonyms, and even near-synonyms are not truly similar, and each one has its own implications. There are still some items that English speakers regard to be comparable in meaning. In addition numerous dictionaries demonstrate that meaning equivalence is psychologically real for English speakers. Four syntactic triggers create textual equivalence relations within a text, which are:

a) Intensive relational equivalence employs intensive verbs. This informative type of equivalence is employed to make a general case more particular to inform the reader and to achieve some aims.

9. "so the best way to get in shape at your age is to get active and eat healthily" (Jeffries, 2007, p.108).

b) Appositional equivalence refers to the same referent made in an appositional structure without conjunction like (and).

10. it was fury, incompetence.

c) Parallel structure refers to the equating of two ideas by placing them in a parallel construction with otherwise identical wording. It expresses equated ideas and some other structures containing identical elements.

11. high immigration is dangerous, high immigration is our children's future

d) Metaphorical equivalence refers to the conceptual equivalence constructed by using metaphors and similes. They need the cognitive strategies related to them to interpret them. For example,

12. This government is like a poodle (simile).

13. This government is a poodle (metaphor).

Table 2

Types of Equivalence	Syntactic Triggers
Intensive relational equivalence	X is Y; X seems Y; X became Y; X appears Y; Z made X Y; Z thinks X Y; Z cause X to be Y etc.
Appositional equivalence	X,Y,(Z) etc.
Parallel structure	X is Y. X is ZX,Y,(Z) etc.
Metaphorical equivalence	X is Y; The X of Y; X is like Y etc.

Textual Triggers for Equating by Jeffries (2010)

(ii) Contrasting

Jeffries (2010) states that contrasting is the use of opposition. Tabbert (2016, p.103) asserts that opposition involves not only opposite conventionally accepted, that also called "canonical or binary opposite" like black/white, but also textually generated opposition between seemly unconnected entities. A Syntactic trigger or a negation could all be contributing factors to the opposition. The sense of opposition can be activated by negativity. However, opposition and negation are separated (Tabbert, 2015, p.49). Nahajec (2009, p.110) indicates that "opposition puts two events, states or existences into contrast to each other whereas negation

opposes non-events against events, non-states against states or non-existence against the existence and thereby constructs unrealized worlds". Jeffries (2010) illustrates the more common syntactic triggers of opposition that she cites for Jones (2002), Davies (2008), and Jeffries (2007, 2009).

Table 3

Opposition	Syntactic Triggers
Negated	X, not Y; Some X, no Y; Plenty of X, a lack of Y
Transitional	turn X into Y; From X to Y; X becomes Y
Comparative	more X than Y; Less X than Y
Replacive	X instead of Y; X rather than Y; X in preference of Y
Concessive	despite X, Y; X, yet Y; X, still Y
Explicit	X, by contrast with Y; X, as opposite to Y
Parallelism	he like X, she likes Y; Yours is X, mine is Y
Contrastive	X, but Y

Textual Trigger for Contrasting by Jeffries (2010)

Jeffries (2010) mentions other lexical subcategories of opposition that can be identified to create an ideology in a text, including:

a) Complementarities are logically mutually exclusive; if one is not X, then one is Y. Instances: dead/alive, male/female, right/wrong.

b) Gradable antonyms identify the value between two extremes. They accept quantifiers (very hot, quite rich) and comparative/superlative forms (poorer, longest) like hot/cold, short/long, rich/poor.

c) Converses are dependent pairs with varied perspectives on the same scenario, either a relationship like a husband/wife or a transaction like a buy/sell.

d) Directional or Reversive oppositions are actions revers to one another like pack/unpack, arrive/depart.

This textual tool is based on syntactic triggers and also based on semantic/pragmatic triggers since the influence is an equivalence or contrasting of meaning that is tentatively devoted to the words, phrases, clauses or paragraphs. It has also a link to conceptual meanings such as when the equivalence or opposition is made with unconnected words so the readers' intuition is verified (Jeffries, 2010). Moreover, the ideological implication of this tool can clarify the good-bad, positive-negative, moral-immoral directions of subjects in question like validating or invalidating actions and legitimating specific activities that others may perceive as illegal or inhuman (Jeffries, 2014b).

3.3.4 Exemplifying and Enumerating

Jeffries (2010) states that exemplifying illustrates as an example of a number of the cases from a particular category rather than listing all the cases while enumerating is listing all the cases of a particular category. Exemplifying and enumerating are closely linked and linguistically difficult to distinguish. Thus, the

readers need to rely on the “pragmatic inferencing” to identify them. To clarify the fuzzy ends of these two textual functions, two examples will be offered:

> *14. The whole household turned out to welcome us: Mum, Dad, Uncle Sam, and the twins.*
>
> *15. The whole town was there: The Mayor and his wife, the City Councillors and representatives of every trade and business you could imagine.*

The first example is obvious as a case of enumerating since the reader/hearer will not assume that there is another person who is there but not mentioned. The second example is an example of exemplifying since the expression “whole town” appears to be an exaggeration and the reader/hearer will not assume the entire town to be listed in this sentence. Jeffries (2016) asserts that the difference between exemplifying and enumerating is that the list is indicative when exemplifying occurs in a text and the list is complete when enumerating occurs in a text.

The structural techniques used to set up exemplification are numerous and varied but they frequently contain explicit reference to the fact that they are examples, utilising verbs like *include* or adverb introductions like *such as* (Jeffries, 2007). Jeffries (2010, pp.68-74) indicates that specific phrases used with exemplification to be explicit like “for example”, “for instance”, “to exemplify” and this is rarely with enumeration. In addition to any words or clauses that indicate whether exemplification or enumeration appears to be occurring, there is a list included in these textual practices. A list in English is a straightforward construction, composed of a set of similar structures (often, but not always, noun phrases) separated by commas and there is the conjunction “and” connecting the penultimate with the final items:

16. The committee agreed that the staffing group should explore possibilities for new funding and possibilities for rationalization if no funding is forthcoming.

The textual practice of a listing may be difficult to differentiate from the structure of the apposition to illustrate the equivalence. Apposition depicts the juxtaposition of at least two parts that are structurally comparable, serve the same grammatical function, and have the same referent. Listing without final conjunction after the penultimate element indicates that it is neither exemplifying nor enumerating, but apposition, for instance:

17. They wanted to sleep all day, to refresh their tired bodies.

However, there are some cases, the exemplification, and enumeration list may omit the final conjunction. Hence, the receiver would interpret the list as an appositional one with indications of exemplification and enumeration.

Although the structure of items in the listing are assumed comparable, not all lists are built in the same way. Real lists or lists that are close to enumeration have a variety of forms. Lists of different parts have different pragmatic effects. The parts include the following:

a) Two-part lists are often similar to the textual construction of opposites and the two items in the list are mutually exclusive like in example 9 “where the two outcomes of the committee’s work are mutually exclusive (they will either get more money or not and the result will be job security or not)”.

b) Three-part lists are frequently used to represent completion. Commentators recognizs that three-item lists imply that all alternatives have been considered, and the reader/ hearer is encouraged to believe that the list is, at least symbolically, comprehensive.

c) Four-part lists (and more) are unlike the three-part lists are symbolically complete and frequently end up with a catch-all element, four-part lists are explicitly complete.

The potential for the ideological effect of the two related textual functions of exemplifying and enumerating is linked with the issue of completeness of the list. Thus, there is no risk of the reader being misled when there is a simple list that is obvious to be comprehensive.

3.3.5 Prioritising

Prioritising is a textual-conceptual tool that aids in the understanding of various ideological interpretations coming from foregrounding/backgrounding in clauses structure (Jeffries, 2014a). Jeffries (2010) states that there are three ways in which information can be prioritised in English sentences, each of which has the influence of making some portions of the sentence more prominent than others, including, information structure, transformation, and subordination.

(i) Information structure

According to Jeffries (2010), information structure refers to the main element in a sentence that distinguishes the final obligatory element that will carry the focus. The final position in the English clause or sentence is the place of new and salient information. Clause structure in English can be divided into seven basic categories: SP/SPO/SPOO/SPOC/SPC/SPA/SPOA. However, the focal element can be changed by intonation, where the stress position on even optional items can be changed to make them compulsory.

The information structure in a sentence can be structurally altered by using a process known as ‘fronting’ or a structure called a ‘cleft sentence’. Fronting is a process in which any key clause element is placed at the beginning of the sentence and to be the theme of the sentence while the remainder of the sentence is shifted to the right such as:

18. The luggage (subject) was (predicate) in the boot (adverbial) when they left (optional adverbial).

After fronting:

19. In the boot (adverbial) was (predicate) the luggage (subject) when they left (optional adverbial).

A cleft structure is another common way to change the structure of information in English sentences which highlights one of the clause elements from the basic sentence after 'It is...' or 'It was...'. The employment of an 'empty' Subject pronoun (it) and a copula verb (be) in these structures allows all of the focus to be placed on their Complement position, and the rest of the original sentence to be placed into a relative clause post-modifying the noun in the Complement:

Subject	**Predicator**	**Complement**
20. It	*was*	*my mother who sent me a cheque for my birthday.*
21. It	*was*	*a cheque that my mother sent for my birthday.*

(ii) Transformation

Tabbert (2016) indicates that the transformation process is manifested in the transformation of active sentences into passive to hide responsibility or presenting

adjectival descriptions as pre-modifiers in noun phrases as given facts rather than subjecting them to debate by presenting them as subject or object complements. Jeffries (2010) indicates that transformation is based on the work of Chomsky (1957, 1964). Passive transformation involves a transference of an active sentence into a passive, which makes the subject of the sentence optional and establishes the idea that active-passive sentences seem to be saying the same thing with superficial differences:

22. The government accepted the law on detention.

23. The law on detention was accepted by the government

Another case of transformation is an adjectival transformation that refers to some kind of relationship of meaning between adjectives that arise with the noun phrase as a premodifier to the head noun and those which arise in the complement of a clause, for instance:

24. The man is old.

25. The old man

The ideological effect of this adjectival transformation is that the first sentence allows the question that the man is old while the second phrase does not.

(iii) Subordination

According to Jeffries (2006, p.144), "subordination is essentially that a higher-level unit is included in one of the lower-level units, meaning that there is a circularity to the description of the structure". Jeffries (2010) indicates that subordination in the English language contains clauses, phrases at all levels, and more than one level of subordination. Nonetheless, the ideological point of view is

in the lower level of subordination; the less adaptable the structure is to scans and/or objections or disagreements by the listener/reader.

Jeffries (2014a) illustrates that placing of information in the main or subordinate structure is a feature of textual meaning. Bits of information are foregrounded by being the main clause and the background by being in the subordinate clause. For instance, the following two sentences contain the same information but the focal point is altered due to the subordination mechanism where the subordinate clauses are not interrogated. Thus, the first sentence below is interested in the attitude of minsters while the second is interested in the 55ehavior of the government:

> 26. "*Though the Government is split down the middle, Ministers are not admitting there is a problem".*
>
> *27. "Though Ministers are not admitting there is a problem, the government is split down the middle"*

Text producers pick out what is to be present in the main and subordinated structure, either within the phrase or within the clause. The use of subordination to foreground and background to various narrative elements is considered partially an economic use of language. Likewise, it may have the effect of 55tilized55ing ideology by positioning it low down in the structure (Jeffries, 2016).

3.3.6 Implying and Assuming

The textual-conceptual tool of assuming and implying are associated with what is known as a presupposition in semantics, and implicature in pragmatics respectively (Jeffries, 2014a). Jeffries (2010) states that pragmatics is more interested in what is implicit in language than what is explicit. One of the

language's most powerful abilities is its ability to project naturalised ideologies and so influence other people's worldviews through assumption and implicature.

The presupposition is ubiquitous and is a valuable shorthand for providing an economic meaning. It also expresses ideological significance (Jeffries, 2014a). Jeffries (2010) affirms that the term presupposition denotes assumptions that are built into the text, so, they are frequently viewed as semantic rather than pragmatic. They remain elusive since they are not conveyed directly by the text, but rather serve as the foundation upon which it is formed. Presupposition is divided into two main kinds:

a) The existential presupposition is associated with definite expressions as the use of definite articles, possessive constructions, and demonstrative pronouns. It is not clearly manipulative or persuasive since it depends on the shared general knowledge of the participants such as "The Prime Minister we applauded turns out to be the Headmaster from Hell!"

b) Logical presupposition has several triggers:

(i) Change of state verbs presuppose a previous state of affairs altered by the process of the verb such as start, stop, resign, finish, etc.

(ii) Factive verbs are a small group of verbs in English, containing realize, understand, discover, know, believe, etc. normally followed by a clausal complement (often, but not always beginning with the subordinator *that*) which is presupposed.

(iii) Cleft sentence changes the default information into focus. Moreover, the clefting process presents a presupposition in the post-modifying relative clausal complement such as it was John that broke your vase.

(iv) Iterative word involves adverbs (yet, again, anymore) adjective (another), or main verbs that can have some morphological evidence of their iterative nature (reassure, revisit) which presuppose the occurrence of a process such as they are going to *rewrite* the whole article (They wrote it before).

(v) The comparative structure indicates that the base of comparison is presupposed such as "Sarah is taller than Jessica (But Jessica is still quite tall)".

Implicature, as it is a domain of pragmatics, may appear to "belong" to the interpersonal meta-function. However, it is textual nature and the real-world resemblance between "assuming" and "implying" make it partly like an ideational function. It produces a view world (or text world) similar to the other textual-conceptual function in the CS framework that reflects the producer's (or narrator's) opinion. Therefore, it is less interpersonal than for instance speech act. Implicature may be 57tilized in written language or any other one-way communication. As Simpson (1993) points out, Grice's maxims can be applied in a political setting, such as when a political party gives more or less information on a particular problem and is accused of revealing or concealing the truth. Implicature as an analytical tool is based on Grice's (1975) cooperative concepts as well as Levinson's work (1983) (Jeffries, 2014a).

Jeffries (2010) illustrates that implicature could be established in a text because of violating or flouting the Gricean maxims of cooperative principle, the four maxims including, quality (say what you believe to be true), quantity (make your contribution as informative as is required), relation (be relevant), and manner (be clear). These maxims may be flouted by giving false, unrequired information, irrelevant, or unclear information. The following example arises from the flouting of quantity:

28. "If we reject the false choices..." (Jeffries, 2010, p.98)

The dispensable addition of 'false' to the noun phrase implies that there are others who involve in the wrong ways and encourage us to choose false choices and this example also presupposes the existence of false choices (Jeffries, 2016).

According to Jeffries (2010), these implicatures of the four maxims could be conversational implicature that depends on the situational context or conventional implicature that is triggered by the text.

The presupposition and implicature meanings have a potential impact on the hearer/reader because of their relatively "hidden" nature. However, the difference between them is that presupposition is text-based, simply defined, verifiable, and cannot be abolishment, even if the statement in which they are contained is negated while implicature is easily repealed such as:

29. "The Prime Minister we applauded turns out not to be the Headmaster from Hell!"

In this sentence, the meaning is different since it carries the negation but the two noun phrases still invoke existential presupposition but are no longer proposed to the same person.

3.3.7 Negating

Negating refers to the conceptual practice broader than simply the negation of the verb. It is a potent linguistic device having the expression of absence draws attention to the possibility of the presence and produces a hypothetical copy of reality such as:

30. I did not go to the cinema last night.

This example has two views, first as the absence of an event, *I was not in the cinema,* and second, as a hypothetical presence, I *could have gone under different circumstances* (Tabbert, 2016, p.127).

To Jeffries (2014a, p.416), negating creates a mental image of both the negated and the positive proposition. If the creator of the text attempts to persuade the reader to imagine the positive version, negating can have a substantial ideological impact such as "the Prime Minister is not an incompetent fool out of touch with the electorate". Jeffries (2010) confirms that negating can create a case in the reader/header's mind that is completely different from one confirmed in the text. Negating can be created at various levels:

a) Syntactic negation is accomplished by adding the negative particle to the verb phrase either to the auxiliary or to the dummy auxiliary verb (do) such as "this law doesn't produce the right effect". It can also be recognised by using pronouns such as "nobody, no one, nothing, etc" in the place of a noun phrase.

b) Semantic negation can be constructed by particular lexical items to reflect the absence or availability of something, including nouns (lack, absence, dearth, scarcity, etc), adjectives (absent, scare, etc), verbs (fail, reject, refuse, etc) or adverb (barely, scarcely, never, etc).

c) Morphological negation is achieved by adding affixes that refer to the negative version of nouns like "inability, inactivity, etc.", verbs like (deactivate, disrespect, dislike, etc.), adjectives like (irrational, incomplete, etc).

In pragmatic terms, particular negative constructions cause implicature in the pragmatic terminology, giving a negated piece of information may appear

irrelevant at first glance and it can be seen as a violation of the maxims. The hearer/reader attempts to find the connection between text and context that may have a positive effect on the planting of ideas. Moreover, negation and opposition relations work together, thereby the text produces not only the presence-absence kind of opposition but informs the reader about what the absence causes as a beneficial side effect as in "The decision to introduce ID cards was a gamble, not a principle". Ideologically, it is a benefit when virtual reality is discussed, it can successfully implant a separate world in the recipient's mind that can be used to persuade them.

3.3.8 Hypothesising

This textual-conceptual tool investigates the contribution of modality to the ideology of the text by considering the hypothetical situation that modality establishes. This means that whatever is the text producer's attitude about the truth or desirability of a process, the imagined situation or process itself is still somewhat hypothetical. Likewise, modality explicitly presents the author's attitudes toward the world that might have a specific influence on the reader/hearer based on what the recipients think about the author. Thus, those in the influential position can publish a vast amount of information and have access to the public domain like news organizations (e.g., the BBC or national newspapers), politicians, doctors, and even teachers (Jeffries, 2010).

Jeffries (2014a) states that SFL followers generally regard the Hallidayan system of modality as an interpersonal system because it conveys the producer's point of view such as "*No one should deny the importance of controlling*

government spending." However, all textual-conceptual functions in CS promote the worldview of the produce and fit the ideational function. Thereby, modality is a typical textual-conceptual function in having a clear prototypical form that is based on Simpson's (1993) splendid model of modality since it serves the purpose of CS. Jeffries (2016, p.165) asserts that modality "is ideational in its textual-conceptual function and interpersonal only in the sense that all ideational meaning is – that is, that it can influence or affect the recipient in various ways".

Jeffries (2010) clarifies that the use of modal auxiliary verbs can represent the formal features of hypothesising; including "will, would, shall, should, may, might, can, could, must, ought, dare, and need (though the last two may be on their way to becoming full verbs". The meanings of modal forms fall into two central classifications:

a) Epistemic meaning concerns the likelihood or unlikelihood of something happening. The speaker's doubt can be conveyed by a sentence as "she might come" and "she will come" conveys the speaker's certainty. Thus, this kind of meaning reflects the text produce's opinion of the doubt and certainty about something. The certainty can range from strong to weak certainty.

b) the second type of meaning concerns the desirability of something happening that further separates into an obligation (denotic modality) as in "you should take more exercise" and desire (boulomaic modality) as in "I wish you would phone your mother".

Depending on the context and, in some cases, the content (other word choices), modal verbs can have a variety of meanings, for examples

31. You may step down from the witness box now (deontic modality – permission).

32. It may be best to wait for the next train (epistemic modality – medium certainty).

Additionally, modality includes some modal items in English that are not auxiliary verbs that can be classified into the following:

- Lexical verbs – think (I think that she'll come), suppose, wish, hope, and so on.
- Modal adverbs – probably, maybe, definitely, of course, and so on.

• Modal adjectives – probable, possible, definite, sure, certain, obligatory, forbidden, and so on.

• Conditional structures – if …, then…

Jeffries (2014a) asserts that "the ideological importance of modality is that it allows producers to suggest things that are not certain without being accused of over-stating them e.g. Climate change could be unfounded". Modality refers to the "hypothetical world" produced by the producers of a text for the purposes of ideologies expressed in a text and how these ideologies can be manipulative, harmful, or even persuasive (Tabbert, 2013).

3.3.9 Presenting Others' Speech and Thoughts

Jeffries (2010) indicates that this textual-conceptual tool is related to how the speakers/writers use the power of language to quote others' speech and thoughts that might potentially involve manipulation and highlighting certain ideological meanings. Many texts claim to reflect the words of others faithfully. Indeed, even if no malice is intended, there are constantly gaps between the quoted

speech and the original version caused by not only hesitation, intonation, false starts, and facial expression but also the selection of which words to quote may be important.

This textual-conceptual tool depends mainly on the model of speech and thought presentation by Short (1996). The traditional difference between direct and indirect forms of speech presentation lies at the root of this model. The direct speech presents what is said exactly while the indirect speech presents a reported version that is close to the original version but there is a change from the first person to the third and from present tense to the past such as:

33. He said "I am innocent".

34. He said that he was innocent.

The two seem equivalent sentences but in fact, they have different degrees of faithfulness in conveying the message and these have a range of potential effects on the ideology of the text. Therefore, the indirect speech can range from being less to more faithful with each having a different potential effect on the reader like faithful to the speech act alone (he asked a question), less faithful to the content (he asked whether she was lying) or the exact words themselves (he asked was she telling the truth?). The model of speech and thought presents the following categories, they represent a progression from the least faithful at the top (NRS) to the most faithful at the bottom (DS):

Table 4

Short's Speech Faithfulness to the Original Speech

Category	Example

Narrator's report of speech (NRS)	He spoke
Narrator's report of Speech Act (NRSA)	He apologized
Indirect speech (IS)	He said that he was terribly sorry.
Free indirect speech (FIS)	He was terribly sorry'
Direct speech (DS)	He said 'I'm terribly sorry.

The formal features of various types of speech representation are as follows:

a) NRS involves a verbalisation process (speak, talk, shout, etc.) that may be followed by a prepositional phrase or noun phrase that specifies subject-matter of the verbiage like "they discussed the situation in Tibet".

b) NRSA can be represented through the verbalisation process denoting a certain speech act (apologize, accuse, etc.) followed by a goal (prepositional phrase), for instance "she apologized for the mess".

c) IS involves a reporting clause (he said) followed by a subordinate clause presented by that and including the verbiage with a needful difference in the tense from present to past, the first-person pronoun to the third, and proximal deictics to distal ones such as "She declared that she would stand as a candidate for the Presidency".

d) FLS does not have a reporting clause but instead represents the original speech with tense, pronouns, and deixis in the same way as IS does such as "she would stand as a candidate for the Presidency".

e) DS includes a reporting clause with inverted commas holding a verbatim representation of original speech with no change in pronoun, tense, and deictics, for example, “I will stand as a candidate for the Presidency“.

These are the formal characteristics of the different thought representation categories:

(i) NRT involves a mental cognition process (think, consider, etc.) followed by a prepositional phrase or a noun phrase such as “he thought about the war”.

(ii) NRTA involves a mental cognition process denoting a specific thought act (imagine, decide, etc.) followed by the phenomenon of thought act like “she imagined the scenario after the bomb had exploded”.

(iii) IT involves a reporting clause (he thought) followed by a subordinate clause introduced by that with a change in the tense, pronouns, and deixis such as “He thought that he had seen enough of that horror”.

(iv) FIT does not have a reporting clause, but it is a representation of the original speech with the same tense, pronouns, and deixis as IT. For instance, “He had seen enough of that horror”.

(v) DT has reporting clause with inverted commas involving verbatim representation of original speech. For instance, “He thought ‘I have seen enough of this horror”.

The ideological substantial of this tool is that words and thoughts can be attributed to people without fear of being sued for libel, especially if the modality is also introduced like “he seemed to think that Europe was the problem and not the solution” (Jeffries, 2014a, p.416).

3.3.10 Representing Time, Space, and Society

According to Jeffries (2010), this tool is concerned with the textual processes that construct the essential features of time and space for a text world, as well as some of the parameters of the social world in which human participants act. The linguistic model of this tool is based on deixis since it brings time, space, and society together in a theoretical framework. Deixis is a technical term derived from Greek that means pointing via language and any linguistic patterns applied to accomplish this pointing are called deictic expressions (Yule, 1996)

Jeffries (2010) illustrates that deixis are items that formally convey little or no sense. They become meaningful in the context of use since these items have a shifting reference that is based on identifying the speaker or the speaker's location in space or time, for example, the pronoun (I) or (you) do not occupy the same position in the conversation, (I) is the speaker and (you) is the listener. The use of the third person instead of the first person seems nonsense. However, in a context like "mom is going to get your bottle" where a mother is addressing her baby, the use would become meaningful since the baby needs this shifting reference to comprehend the message.

The general effect of deixis is to focus attention on a specific time, place, and social circumstance of the interaction that is taking place. Thus, at a basic level, here is the default place of interaction, and now is the default time, the addresser is I, and the addressee is you. The focal position in time and space is called the 'deictic centre' of the speakers. It is assumed that both speakers and the addressees are at the deictic centre of their speech. The ability to understand the deictic centre of the others is known as 'deictic projection'. This human ability allows us to see things from the perspective of others which is crucial for text processing. Deictic expressions have main categories in the English language, which are summarized below:

a) Place Deictic: It is expressed by the use of adverbs such as (here and there), demonstrative such as (this, that, those, and these), and prepositional structures such as (in front of, opposite to, etc.).

b) Time Deictic: It is expressed by adverbs as (now and then), verb tenses, demonstrative, adverbials as later, earlier, etc.

c) Personal Deictic: It is expressed by personal pronouns, i.e., first person, second person, and third person.

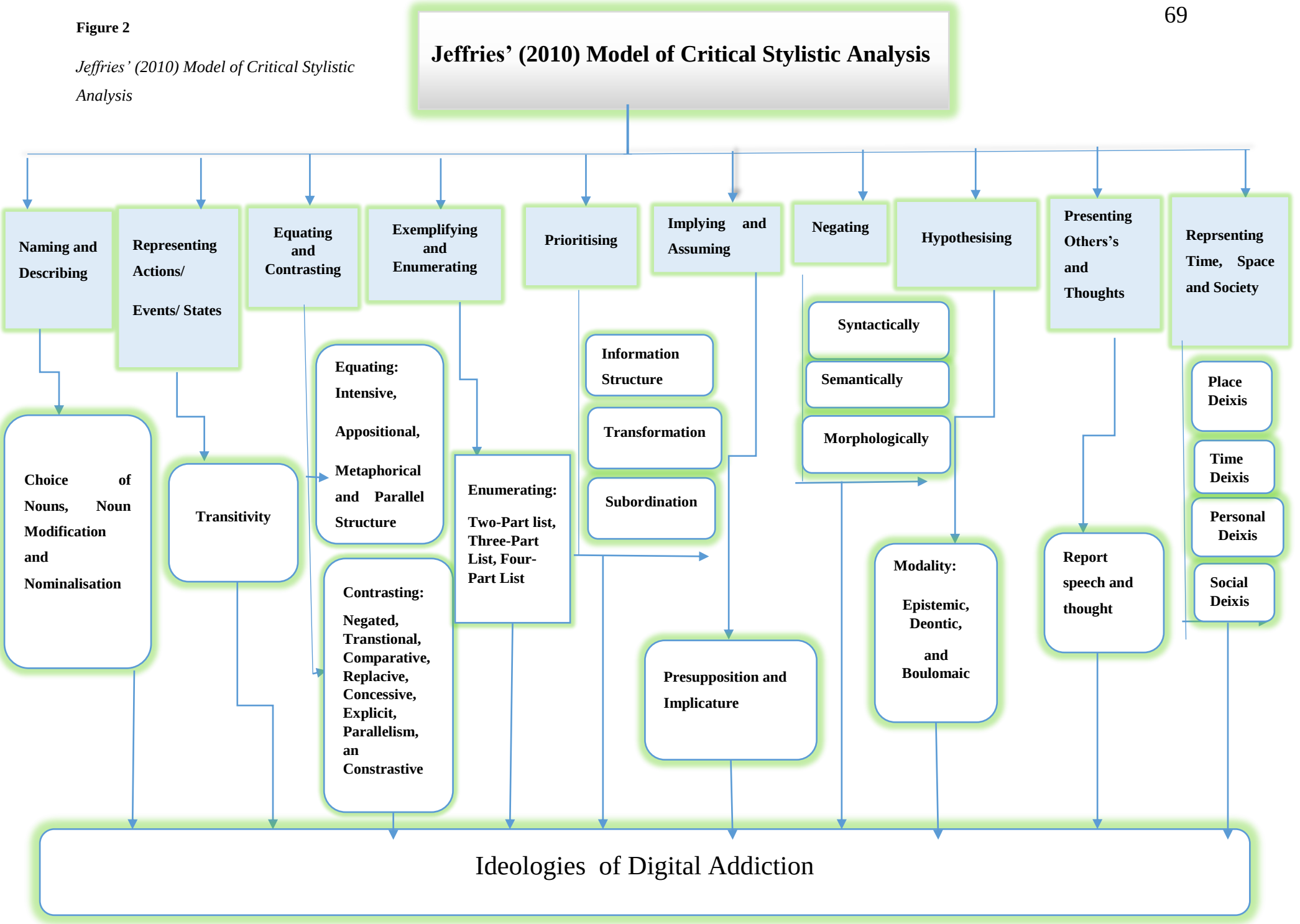
d) Social Deictic: It includes titles such as Mr., Dr., etc.

Deixis plays an important role in text processing for positioning self and others in face-to-face interactions. The deixis of written texts aids in positioning the reader of the text through interaction with the text's contents. The deictic expressions assist the reader in locating their consciousness in the text, which serves as the text's deictic centre. Most texts create what is known as a 'deictic field,' which is a time and place intersection that appears in the event.

The most significant ideological effect of deixis is the ability of the text creator to create a deictic centre that directs the reader to place him/herself mentally at the point of the deictic field created by the text. This demonstrates the ability of humans to comprehend experiences and concepts from the perspective of others. It also allows the reader to comprehend unreal or unusual issues in the text. This power stems from the human ability to imagine alternative worlds, which aids in the processing of both fictional and non-fictional worlds. Likewise, Jeffries (2014a, p.417) clarifies that the ideological inferences of this facility are valuable, as the capacity to create ‘text worlds’ that reflect political realities like “here we are in recession again” can also reverberate political dogmas like “people from elsewhere are taking our jobs“.

Figure 2

Jeffries' (2010) Model of Critical Stylistic Analysis



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter is dedicated to the practical part of the current study. It describes the analytical procedures and analyses the selected data based on the adopted model. Besides, it introduces the discussion of the results.

4.1 Analytical Procedures

The process of analysis comprises several steps to be followed to accomplish the analysis of the current study. These procedures are as follows:

1. Researching the Guardian and the Independent's website archives to find relevant articles on the concept of digital addiction and its types. The researcher found 65 articles in Guardian's archive and 55 articles in the Independent archive.
2. To reduce the repetition and lengthiness of the study, the researcher reads all articles several times and selected ten articles based on their most relevant titles and contents to the concept of digital addiction.
3. Dividing the articles into sentences and analysing them using the adopted model described in Chapter Three.
4. The analysis of the selected article is to be both qualitative and quantitative. By employing qualitative analysis, the researcher attempts to illustrate how critical stylistic tools are pivotal to exploring ideologies. Quantitatively, conducting a statistical analysis to support the finding of the analysis.
5. Discussing the results of the analysis and presenting conclusions with some recommendations as well as suggestions for further studies.

4.2 The Qualitative Analysis

4.2.1 The Guardian

The qualitative analysis comprises four sentences from each article of the Guardian's five represented articles for each tool to represent the concept of digital addiction.

4.2.1.1 Naming and Describing

This textual-conceptual tool involves the naming practices where a text producers takes a view of certain entities. This practice includes three tools: choice of nouns, noun modification, and nominalisation. All three tools have the potential to uncover the underlying ideologies.

> 1. "According to addiction expert Dr Anna Lambkin, our smartphones are making us **dopamine junkies**". (Art. 1)

Regarding the formal features of the textual tool of 'naming and describing', the first sentence of the article has a subject –predicator- object structure, and the choice of noun "dopamine junkies" is used as an object. Ideologically, the choice of noun "dopamine junkies" is a synonym for "dopamine addicts" and is used to clarify the idea that our smartphones use is so pleasurable but constantly craving is not good at all and this unconscious using of our smartphone can lead us to be addicts.

> 2. "During our interview I confess, in passing, to having an **unhealthy attachment** to my iPhone, checking it every few minutes like a **compulsive** tic". (Art. 1)

The noun phrase "an unhealthy attachment" is pre-modified by the adjective 'an unhealthy' for the nominalisation 'attachment' and the noun "a compulsive tic" function as a subordinate clause. Ideologically, the writer uses the adjective

"unhealthy" to describe the process of attachment as emotionally, and physically harmful. Then, he describes the attachment to the phone as compulsive tic, which means a disorder of unwanted, repetitive compulsive behaviour that is difficult to control.

> 3 "She calls **the smartphone the "modern-day hypodermic needle**": we turn to it for quick hits, **seeking attention**, **validation** and **distraction** with each swipe, like and tweet". (Art 1)

The highlighted part is the apposition phrases used to identify the same thing, which function as an object for the sentence. Likewise, the words "seeking attention", "validation", and "distraction" are nominalisation. The ideological implication of the metaphorical expression is to describe the smartphone as the modern-day hypodermic needle, implying that the needle is used to inject drugs into the body. Thus, smartphone addiction is as dangerous as drug addiction. The process of seeking attention describes the behaviour of waiting for the admiration of others, validation is the action of declaring something officially acceptable, and distraction refers to the entertainment things; all these nominalisations elucidate the features of the smartphone that stimulate us to be addicts.

> 4. "We've all heard **about digital detoxes** and mindfulness practices, but unlike many spiritual gurus, Lembke is straight-shooting". (Art 1)

The prepositional phrase is made up of the preposition "about" and the embedded noun phrase "digital detoxes". Ideologically, the writer describes digital detoxes as familiar things, and all of us heard about them to encourage us to experience them. Digital detox is defined as a timeout from using digital devices, media, and games.

> 5. "On Monday a report was published by an all-party parliamentary group (APPG), proposing that **internet addiction** could be classified as **a disease**". (Art 2)

The relative clause is made up of the choice of nouns "internet addiction" as a subject and "a disease" as an object. Ideologically, the excessive use of the internet

could be described as an abnormal condition that negatively affects people's health.

> 6. "The paper includes surveys showing that 27% of **children** who spend three or more hours a day online show **symptoms of mental ill health**, and called for "**robust**, **longitudinal research**" into the possibility of **social media addiction**". (Art 2)

The subordinate clause is post-modified by the object that contains the choice of noun "children", the noun phrase "symptoms of mental ill health", the choice of noun "robust, longitudinal research", and the noun phrase "social media addiction". Ideologically, the article's writer focuses on children because they are immature and easily influenced by anything. Thus, the compulsive use of social media may harm their cognitive, emotional, or social abilities.

> 7. "In 1995, The Unabomber manifesto asked that we "never forget that a human being with technology is exactly like **an alcoholic with a barrel of wine**". (Art 2)

The object of the sentence is post-modified by a subordinate clause that comprises the choice of noun "an alcoholic" and the prepositional phrase "with a barrel of wine". It is used to portray people's excessive use of technology as an alcoholic who is unaware.

> 8. "The link between social media and this narrowing of perspective is well documented: back in 2011, the term "**filter bubble**" was popularised by Eli Pariser in his book of the same name". It describes the algorithmic hypnosis that companies like Google, Facebook and Twitter perform on their users, learning their habits and reinforcing them with tailored content." (Art 2)

The choice of noun "filter bubble" functions as a subject of a subordinate clause. Ideologically, the writer urges the readers that social media companies manipulate them by bringing their favourite content to spend more time on their platforms.

> 9. "Smartphone is now '**the place** where we live', anthropologists say". (Art 3)

The choice of the noun "the place" functions as a complement, to suggest that the smartphone is no longer just a device. It drives us to ignore our homes and families.

> 10. “A UCL study has found **people around the world** feel the same about their devices as they do about their homes”. (Art 3)

The prepositional phrase is post-modified the noun phrase, which functions as a complement, to show that the excessive use of digital devices and their negative effects on our relationships at home are global problems.

> 11. “Smartphone users have become “**human snails** carrying our homes in our pockets”, with a tendency to ignore friends and family in favour of their device, according to a landmark study“. (Art 3)

The complement is made up of the noun phrase, to show how people’s smartphones have become the most important things in their life and how people carry them everywhere like a snail carries his home. People are more concerned with their smartphones than with essential priorities like family, friends, and work.

> 12. “They conclude, coining the term **“transportal home”** to describe the effect”. (Art 3)

The noun ‘home’ is pre-modified by the noun “transportal”, which functions as an object to describe how the excessive use of digital devices separates the members of families.

> 13. “**Children** aged five and under are at risk of becoming addicted to the internet in a trend that could damage **their mental health**, according to Barnardo’s”. (Art 4)

The subject is made up of the noun “children” whereas the noun phrase “their mental health” functions as a relative clause, to show that children are unaware of the potentially harmful effects of excessive internet use on their thinking, feeling, and behaviour.

> 14. “**Key apprehensions** included the failure to think creatively, interact with others socially and manage their own emotions.” (Art 4)

The subject is made up of the noun phrase “key apprehensions”, to argue the readers that the early excessive use of the internet restricts children’s creative

thinking, social interaction, and expression of their feeling because they may spend their daytime on a specific platform or game

> 15. “Children of that age are being exposed **to unsuitable or harmful material online”.** (Art 4)

The writer, to attract the readers’ attention to the immoral and harmful contents of some apps that harm the children’s mental health, uses the prepositional phrase.

> 16. “**The children and young people** we work with tell us about the positives of using technology, but also that being exposed to harmful content or being bullied round the clock on social media can have **a serious impact on their mental health.”** (Art 4)

The subject is made up of a coordinated phrase and the noun phrase functions as a complement to the subordinate clause. The writer draws the readers’ attention to the fact that using technology is positive since reducing young people’s loneliness and serves as a source of various information. However, excessive use can influence their mental health negatively.

> 17. “**Huge popularity of online games** sparks fears over young people’s mental health”. (Art 5)

The noun phrase “Huge popularity of online games” functions as a subject, to suggest that the growing concern about the potential of harmful mental health consequences connected with online games is increased.

> 18. “**The 25-year-old** adds: “**These games** did help me in a way but if I didn’t have someone willing to pull me away ... I would’ve closed myself off from the world more as I was already doing it.” (Art 5)

The noun phrase “The 25-year-old” functions as a subject and the noun phrase “these games” operates as an object implying that games have no positive effects on young people; games waste their time and cut them off from reality, which has a negative impact on their personalities. Therefore, to overcome their game addiction, their families or anyone else should assist them.

19. “The topic has gained attention in recent weeks after gaming disorder was classified by **the World Health Organization** as **a mental health disorder”**. (Art 5)

The subordinate clause of the noun phrases is employed to draw the readers’ attention that the compulsive playing of games is a worldwide phenomenon that affects cognition, emotion, and behavioural control of people. To urge specialists to treat addicts, the World Health Organization officially defines game addiction as a disorder.

20. “P**roblematic gaming** will only get worse unless more help is available”. (Art 1)

The adjective “problematic” is pre-modified by the noun “gaming”, suggesting that game disorder requires additional research in order to provide treatments for those who become addicted to it.

4.2.1.2 Representing Actions/ Events/ States

The textual-conceptual function of actions/ events/ states depends on the choice of the verb to describe the situation as an action, an event, or a state in a clause. Each of these options can have an ideological implication based on how the recipients see the situation.

1. “our smartphones **are making** us dopamine junkies, with each swipe, like and tweet feeding our habit”. (Art 1)

The kind of process in the above clause is a material action event expressed by the verb “are making”, in which the actor “our smartphones” is inanimate, while “us dopamine junkies” is the goal. The writer uses the verb “making” with the inanimate actor to imply that smartphones can create or cause powerful effects that may be turning us into dopamine addicts.

2. “We**’ve forgotten** how to be alone with our thoughts”. (Art 1)

The mental cognition process is denoted by the verb “forgotten”. The senser is “we” and the relative clause is presented as a phenomenon. By using the negative

process of forgetting, the writer clarifies that digital media make us incapable of remembering things or thinking about new things.

> 3. “I do **believe** there is a cost – one that I don’t **think** we fully **recognise** because it’s hard to [see it] when you’re in it”. (Art 1)

The kind of verbs “believe”, “think”, and “recognise” are mental cognition processes. The expert Dr. Anna utilises the verb ‘believe’ to express the utmost certainty of paying a cost. However, she uses the verb ‘think’ to express the expectation that not all people heed this cost. Additionally, she uses the verb ‘recognise’ to indicate that not all people have awareness of this cost.

> 4. “it all **starts** with phone in drawer”. (Art 1)

The verb “starts” is a material action event, the writer uses the verb “starts” to imply that the reduction of digital dependency is the beginning of a good new life.

> 5. “Facebook et al **have** 3 billion users”. (Art 2)

The verb “have” with “Facebook et al” as a carrier and “3 billion users” as an attribute denotes the relational possessive process. Presenting Facebook et al as owners of 3 billion users that could manipulate and affect their way of thinking.

> 6. “The UX design employed by these platforms **is** a maze of dark patterns and cues borrowed from the world of gambling”. (Art 2)

The relational intensive copula verb “is” with “The UX design employed by these platforms” as a carrier and “a maze of dark patterns and cues borrowed from the world of gambling” as an attribute. Expressing the user experience (UX) is a set of a company’s products for satisfying its users (Biswal, 2019, p.1) like the tricks used in gambling to make users constantly crave these platforms.

> 7. “I **spent** more time online than with other people, and social media had **narrowed** my view of the world, encouraging me to think in binary terms of good and bad, like and

> dislike, the kind of black-and-white thinking common to personality disorders and depression". (Art 2)

The verb "spent" is a material action intention, in which the actor is "I" and the goal is "more time online than with other people". Likewise, the verb "narrowed" is material action event with "social media" being the inanimate actor and "my view of the world" being the goal. The writer uses these verbs to suggest that social media waste our time and restrict our ability to think.

> 8. "We**'re** all cyborgs now". (Art 2)

The relational intensive process is expressed by the copula verb "are", in which "we" is the carrier and "all cyborgs now" is the attribute. To describe us as cyborgs that our physiological functioning is aided by or dependent upon a mechanical or digital devices.

> 9. "Smartphone users **have become** "human snails carrying our homes in our pockets". (Art 3)

The relational intensive verb "become" with "Smartphone users" as a carrier and "human snails carrying our homes in our pockets" as an attribute suggest that smartphone users start to be more concern with their smartphones than their homes and families.

> 10. "People **felt** the same way about their devices as they did about their homes". (Art 3)

The mental reaction process is expressed by the verb "felt", in which "people" is the senser and "the same way about their devices as they did about their homes" is the phenomenon. Stating that people perceive digital devices as more than just devices since they consider them necessities like homes.

> 11. "This phenomenon was leading to the death of proximity when it comes to face-to-face interaction, he **said**". (Art 3)

The writer uses the verbalisation process “said” with the sayer being “Prof Daniel Miller” and the clause is the verbiage. Prof Miller vocally states that smartphones reduce our actual verbal interaction with our families and friends.

> 12. “They **observe**: “In other ways, the smartphone may reduce the prior experience of home as a refuge”. (Art 3)

The verb “observe” is a material action intention, in which “they” is the actor and “In other ways, the smartphone may reduce the prior experience of home as a refuge” is the goal, suggesting that researchers have found that smartphones have a harmful impact on our homes.

> 13. “Charity’s report into effects of technology on under-18s **warns** of threat to mental health”. (Art 4)

The material action event is expressed by the verb “warns”, in which the actor is inanimate and “of threat to mental health” is the goal. It is utilised to give an advice for us to protect our children and adolescents from the harm of technology.

> 14. “Children aged five and under **are** at risk of becoming addicted to the internet in a trend that could damage their mental health, according to Barnardo’s”. (Art 4)

The relational intensive process is expressed by using the copula verb “are” to emphasise that children can easily become addicts.

> 15. “These findings **shine** more light on the potentially harmful relationship between social media and youngsters’ mental health and wellbeing.” (Art 4)

The verb “shine” is a material action event, in which the actor “These findings” is inanimate, and “more light on the potentially harmful relationship between social media and youngsters’ mental health and wellbeing” is the goal, indicating that the findings assert a correlation between the excessive use of social media and mental health disorders.

> 16. “Using phones and being online from a young age, including having access to social media accounts, has **become** a normal part of life for many children.” (Art 4)

The relational intensive process is denoted by the verb “become” to suggest that parents should observe or restrict the development of their children’s use of smartphones.

> 17. “The change in his personality **was** down to a gaming disorder that crept up on him at the age of 12, when he started secondary school.” (Art 5)

The relational intensive process is realised by copula verb “was” with “The change in his personality” being the carrier and the complement being the attribute. It is utilised to imply the strong connection between game disorder and the negative change in the personality.

> 18. “Dr Richard Graham, a consultant in adolescent psychiatry at the Nightingale Hospital in London, **welcomes** the move but says any help that is offered should involve a broad approach.” (Art 5)

The verb “welcome” is a material action intention, in which “Dr Richard Graham” is the actor and “the move” is the goal to state that Dr Graham encourages the opening of an internet addiction centre for treating addicted people but the approach of treatment should be effective.

> 19. “Peter Gray, a developmental psychologist at Boston College, **advised** caution about creating a moral panic around video gaming”. (Art 5)

The material action intention is denoted by the verb “advised”, with “Peter Gray” being the actor and “caution about creating a moral panic around video gaming” being the goal to inform people about the fact that video game is enjoyable and is not an epidemic but the excessive gaming can become an addiction.

> 20. “After a three-year battle for a diagnosis for her son, Parmar **sees** the internet addiction centre as a glimmer of hope”. (Art 5)

The verb “see” is a mental perception, in which the senser is “Parmar” and “the internet addiction centre as a glimmer of hope” is the phenomenon, highlight the importance of the existing internet addiction centre.

4.2.1.3 Equating and Contrasting

This textual-conceptual tool is concerned with how two entities are equated or contrasted in the texts and illustrates how contrasts and similarities are ideologically significant.

> 1. "**Dr Anna Lembke, a world-leading expert on addiction,** is concerned about my "phone problem"". (Art 1)

This sentence contains an appositional equivalence, which is constructed by the juxtaposition of two noun phrases to provide more elaboration for Dr. Anna as a very skillful and knowledgeable about the science of addiction.

> 2. "The first 12 hours will be filled with anxiety and Fomo, **but** as time unfolds, I'll experience a sense of real freedom, will gain insight into my relationship with my digital companion and will "resolve to get back to using it a little differently, she says". (Art 1)

The contrastive opposition is constructed by the conjunction 'but' to depict two opposite states. The first effect of avoiding using a digital companion is negative but as time unfolds, the effect will be positive because the writer tells the readers that they will be free from the unreal world and they will gain insight into their relationship with a digital companion.

> 3. "Behavioural (**as opposed to** substance) addictions have soared". (Art 1)

The writer implies that substances may be run out. However, behaviours like using digital companions do not run out and are always available.

> 4. "It might seem a little less fun and it will involve tolerating discomfort rather than seeking refuge in shiny things, **but** this "new form of asceticism" is, she promises, the "path to the good life". (Art 1)

The contrastive opposition is used by the writer to express that abstaining of constantly seeking a digital companion is not easy but Dr. Anna promises it is the beginning of a better life.

5. “None of these behaviours were normal a few decades ago, nor are they especially useful to us today, **but** they’re practised by billions of people across the world”. (Art 2)

The conjunction “but” is used to denote the contrastive opposition, which highlights how our behaviour has changed negatively as a result of the overuse of social media.

6. “In 1995, The Unabomber manifesto asked that we “never forget that a human being with technology is exactly **like** an alcoholic with a barrel of wine”. (Art 2)

The simile “like” indicates that the harm of alcohol and technology is similar, which sets off the metaphorical equivalence.

7. “Social media, which once promised to act **as a window** to the world, has slowly **but** surely become an engine for a kind of global solipsism, a breeding ground for fake news, bias, compulsion and vanity – which profit the shareholders of these platforms”. (Art 2)

The metaphorical equivalence is constructed by using the simile “as” to depict social media as a window to knowing what happens in the world. However, the writer uses the contrastive opposition with the conjunction “but” demonstrating that this window becomes the source of negative things more than positive things.

8. “Any resulting regulation must focus on living with social media, **rather than** abandoning, restricting or censoring it”. (Art 2)

The contrasting process of replacive opposition “rather than” illustrates that the preferred way of dealing with social media addiction is moderation.

9. “Smartphone users have become “**human snails** carrying our homes in our pockets”. (Art 3)

The metaphorical equivalence is triggered by the noun phrase “human snails”, which suggests that smartphone users are more preoccupied with their smartphones than with their homes.

10. “This phenomenon was leading to the **death of proximity** when it comes to face-to-face interaction, he said”. (Art 3)

The metaphorical equivalence is triggered by the noun phrase “death of proximity” to emphasise that smartphones turn us into digital natives and reduce our face-to-face interaction. Hence, we become physically together but emotionally and socially psychologically separated.

> 11. “The researchers suggest it may be chat apps such as WhatsApp, which they call the “**heart of the smartphone**”. (Art 3)

The noun phrase “heart of the smartphone” triggers the metaphorical equivalence to portray that chat apps become the most important things for users.

> 12. “They observe: “In other ways, the smartphone may reduce the prior experience of home **as a refuge”.** (Art 3)

The metaphorical equivalence is triggered by the simile “as” to indicate that smartphones reducing the privacy of homes.

> 13. “**Although** the internet offers incredible opportunities to learn and play, it also carries serious new risks from cyberbullying to online grooming,” said **Javed Khan, Barnardo’s chief executive**”. (Art 4)

The contrasting process of concessive opposition “although” highlights the serious negative effects of the internet. Then, the writer uses appositional equivalence to clarify that this information has been obtained from a reliable person.

> 14. “These findings shine more light on the potentially harmful relationship between social media and youngsters’ mental health and wellbeing, with this report suggesting it could be a problem for some children, from a very young age,” said **Claire Murdoch, NHS England’s national mental health director”.** (Art 4)

The writer asserts that Murdoch is knowledgeable by using an appositional equivalency, which is created by the juxtaposition of two noun phrases.

> 15. “The children and young people we work with tell us about the positives of using technology, **but** also that being exposed to harmful content or being bullied round the clock on social media can have a serious impact on their mental health.” (Art 4)

The conjunction “but” triggers the contrastive opposition to indicate that there are advantages and disadvantages to technology. It depends on how people and companies actually design it.

> 16. “when gaming **becomes** an addiction”. (Art 5)

The equivalence is denoted by the intensive relational verb “becomes” to express the equivalence between gaming and addiction.

> 17. “Kendal Parmar’s son went **from** being a sporty and sociable boy who loved school, **to** a child who would stay in his room and rarely go outside”. (Art 5)

The contrasting process of the transformational opposition illustrates the negative change in personality that game disorder causes.

> 18. “It was sad that I didn’t notice how I soon **replaced** the people I actually knew in life **for** others online, due to gaming ability”. (Art 5)

The contrast of replacive opposition illustrates how gaming makes us digital natives and has a bad impact on our communication with people in the real world.

> 19. “We are not saying this is an epidemic **but** there will be people with this disorder who need treatment”. (Art 5)

The contrastive opposition is triggered by the conjunction “but” to suggest that gaming disorder is not an epidemic; it still requires appropriate therapy for those who experience it.

4.2.1.4 Exemplifying and Enumerating

Exemplifying is not listing all the cases of the category while enumerating is so. Exemplifying and enumerating are closely linked and the hearer/ reader is required to rely on pragmatic inferencing. Ideologically, exemplifying brings out a sense of indicative or incompleteness that incites the reader to add items from his repertoire while enumerating brings out a sense of completeness and comprehensiveness.

> 1. “You might try putting barriers between you and the vice, **like removing all screens from your bedroom, putting your phone on airplane mode, or committing to only using the thing at certain times, like at weekends**.” (Art 1)

The writer makes explicit exemplification by using “like” to indicate the list is incomplete and to invites the readers to add or think of other ways that can help them to reduce their constant craving for phones.

> 2. “When we do things that are challenging – **going for a run, having an ice bath, talking to a stranger, reading a book on philosophy.”** (Art 1)

The exemplifying is identified by incomplete list of suggestions and therefore the readers are invited to add other things that can help them to reduce their digital dependency.

> 3. “It gets into philosophical questions: how is the time I’m spending on my phone in subtle ways affecting my ability to be **a good parent, spouse or friend**?” says Lembke.” (Art 1)

The three-part list is denoted as enumerating to represent symbolic completeness of aspects of the people’s social life in order to attract the readers’ attention to the negative impact of phones on their social life.

> 4. “Whereas our ancestors put all their efforts into seeking a **mate** and **tasty food**, we can find those, and much more besides, with the click of an app.” (Art 1)

The writer uses two-part list to enumerate the most essential things to the ancestors in order to convey the idea that the essential things nowadays are increased.

> 5. “It describes the algorithmic hypnosis that companies **like Google, Facebook and Twitter** perform on their users**,** learning their habits and reinforcing them with tailored content”. (Art 2)

The word “like” denotes the explicit exemplification to suggest that the list is incomplete and invites the readers to pay attention to the techniques employed by these companies and others to entice users to constantly utilise their platforms.

6. “Returning again and again even though it can make us feel **depressed and alone.”** (Art 2)

By exemplifying an incomplete list of symptoms, the reader is encouraged to consider additional symptoms that the social media addiction causes.

7. “Social media, which once promised to act as a window to the world, has slowly but surely become an engine **for a kind of global solipsism, a breeding ground for fake news, bias, compulsion and vanity –** which profit the shareholders of these platforms”. (Art 2)

The enumeration is triggered by a five-part list to draw the readers’ attention to the explicit completeness of sources of negative things or events that the shareholders of social media platforms promote in order to increase their profit.

8. “We’re all cyborgs now: we outsource **our emotions, our relationships and our working lives to the internet.”** (Art 2)

The three-part list is described as enumerating to represent symbolic completeness that how social media dominates our personal and professional lives.

9. “Smartphone users have become “human snails carrying our homes in our pockets”, with a tendency to **ignore friends and family** in favour of their device, according to a landmark study“. (Art 3)

The exemplifying is identified by the incomplete list to invite the readers to think about other things that excessive use of smartphones affects them like study or work.

10. “The researchers suggest it may be chat apps **such as** WhatsApp, which they call the “heart of the smartphone”. (Art 3)

The explicit exemplification is triggered by the phrase “such as” to prompt the readers to think about other chap apps that are important for users and waste their time.

11. “Employees may now be expected to remain in contact with their work, **for instance**, even after leaving the workplace”. (Art 3)

The phrase “for instance” denotes the explicit exemplification to prompt the readers to consider how using a smartphone decreases the productivity of work and affects their other responsibilities.

> 12. “The flip side of that for human relationships is that at any point, whether **over a meal, a meeting or other shared activity,** a person we’re with can just disappear, having ‘gone home’ to their smartphone.” (Art 3)

The enumeration is triggered by a three-part list to represent symbolically completeness which implies that smartphones are becoming more important than other shared activities with family or friends, which may have a negative impact on our relationships.

> 13. “The charity said very young children – one as young as two – were learning to access websites**, for example** YouTube and those related to children’s television programmes.” (Art 4)

The explicit exemplification is triggered by the phrase “for example” to illustrate that the list is incomplete and draws the readers’ attention to other risky websites that their children may access.

> 14. “It warns in a report into the effects of technology and social media on children that platforms **such as** Snapchat, Instagram and Twitter are having a disturbing impact on the mental health of under-18s.” (Art 4)

The phrase “such as” denotes the explicit exemplification to suggest that the list of apps is incomplete and attracts the readers’ attention to their risky impact on the mental health of children and teenagers.

> 15. “the charity added that social media can also offer benefits, **such as** reducing vulnerable young people’s isolation and loneliness, and letting them link up with people like them”. (Art 4)

In order to demonstrate that the list of benefits is incomplete, the phrase “such as” denotes an explicit exemplification. The aim is to convince the reader that moderate social media use is a good thing but that risky websites or excessive use are not.

> 16. “Using phones and being online from a young age, **including** having access to social media accounts, has become a normal part of life for many children”. (Art 4)

The exemplifying is identified by the incomplete list of suggestions that have risky impacts on the children’s mental health but parents do not pay attention to them.

> 17. “For the great majority, video gaming is a **healthy**, **enjoyable**, **brain-building activity** ... For some very small percentage of players, excessive gaming can become a problem”. (Art 5)

The three-part list trigger enumeration to provide symbolic completeness of game benefits. It also emphasises how playing video games too much undermines their positive effects and becomes problematic.

> 18. “Parmar is now getting support for her son through a woman she describes as **a gamer and coach**, who is helping her son prepare for therapy” (Art 5)

Enumerating is triggered by a two-part list to describe the qualifications of people who can assist patients with gaming disorder.

4.2.1.5 Prioritising

This textual-conceptual function is concerned with how the ideological effect can be produced by shifting the position of the focal information in the sentence by using three ways of prioritising in English by exploiting information structure, transformation and subordination.

> 1. “The first 12 hours **will be filled** with anxiety and Fomo, but as time unfolds, I’ll experience a sense of “real freedom.” (Art 1)

By transformation, the writer prioritises the verb over the doer of the action to attract the readers’ attention to the time that they are spending on digital media.

> 2. “**In this comedown state**, “we really want that second piece of chocolate or to watch another episode,” she says, but if we’re not severely addicted, the craving soon passes”. (Art 1)

The writer uses fronting to attract the readers’ attention to the comedown state of dopamine as focal information that may lead us to lose control and be addicts

3. “**It’s very different from** how life used to be, when we had to tolerate a lot more distress, says Lembke”. (Art 1)

The writer prioritises the big difference between the digital life and real life by using a cleft sentence to draw the readers’ attention to the change that digital life has caused.

4. “**Just remember**: it all starts with a phone in a drawer”. (Art 1)

The writer uses fronting to convince the readers to keep in their minds the decision of regulate their spending time on digital technologies.

5. “**It’s** obvious that what social media does to us, especially those of us who are heavy users, is not natural, or normal.” (Art 2)

The cleft structure is used to prioritise the evidence that heavy use of social media is irregular and needs a solution.

6. “**On Monday a report was published** by an all-party parliamentary group (APPG), proposing that internet addiction could be classified as a disease.” (Art 2)

The fronting “on Monday” and the passive “was published” are used to prioritise the action of bringing internet addiction to public attention more than the doer of the action.

7. “**Add social media,** and the result is a toxic brew of solipsism and information overload, the kind that one is either overwhelmed by, or turns one into a monster in order to survive.” (Art 2)

The fronting is utilised to prioritise the view that social media becomes an engine of harmful things and increases the fake news and bias.

8. “Three years ago **I was advised** by psychiatrists to avoid social media”. (Art 2)

By using passive transformation, the priority is given to the action of advice over the doer to convince the readers avoiding excessive use of social media.

9. “The smartphone is no longer just a device that we use, **it’s** become the place where we live”. (Art 3)

The cleft structure is used to prioritise how smartphones affect people's way of living and communication with their families.

> 10. **At first** an emphasis upon older people may appear strange because we have become so used to concentrating upon youth, once thought the natural users of smartphones, the researchers wrote." (Art 3)

The impact of smartphones on older people is prioritised by using fronting. People at all ages are therefore impacted.

> 11. "Even with that distinct focus, the researchers find **that** around the world smartphones are basic necessities." (Art 3)

The impact of smartphones on all generations is given priority and given the highest level of subordination, while the significance of smartphones is embedded in the lower level of subordination to imply that the risks outweigh the advantages.

> 12. "A child **bullied by** other pupils at school now finds little or no respite through coming back to her or his home." (Art 3)

By using transformation, priority is given to the action over the doer of the action to attract the readers' attention to the fact that a home is no longer a place of respite or privacy since the bullying will continue at home and impact the children's psychological health.

> 13. "The charity said very **young children** – one as young as two – were learning to access websites". (Art 4)

The prioritising is triggered by adjectival transformation to shift the focus from the adjective to the noun, suggesting that young children easily affected by the contents of websites.

> 14. "The charity added **that** social media can also offer benefits, such as reducing vulnerable young people's isolation and loneliness, and letting them link up with people like them". (Art 4)

The benefits of social media are embedded in the lower level of subordination to suggest that the benefits are less than the disadvantages of social media.

15. "**Due to the comments**, I began to hate myself and felt 'outside' of everything, so then I tried to kill myself," the girl told the charity". (Art 4)

The fronting is used to prioritise and convince the readers that the opinions on social media platforms negatively affect our mental health.

16. "**In a white paper in April on combating online harm**, the government pledged to take action to tackle the problem." (Art 4)

The prioritising is denoted by fronting to emphasise and convince the readers that online harm must be taken more seriously by the government.

17. "**It was** sad that I didn't notice how I soon replaced the people I actually knew in life for others online, due to gaming ability". (Art 5)

The cleft structure is employed to prioritise the fact that excessive gaming causes players to become antisocial and increases depression.

18. "**Despite the growing number of reports of people having difficulties,** the scale of gaming addiction is not yet known". (Art 5)

Fronting is used to indicate prioritisation in order to draw readers' attention to the growing problem of game addiction and the necessity for treatment.

19. "The topic has gained attention in recent weeks after gaming disorder **was classified** by the World Health Organization as a mental health disorder". (Art 5)

By using passive transformation, the priority is given to the action over the doer of the action to shift the readers' attention to the fact that gaming is seriously classified as disorder.

20. "**Now an increasing number** of parents are also banning children from video gaming". (Art 5)

The fronting is used to prioritise that the awareness of risk of video gaming in children increases among parents and to encourage the readers to restrict their children's gaming time.

4.2.1.6 Implying and Assuming

This textual-conceptual tool demonstrates the ability to use language to produce assumptions and implications that make naturalised ideologies.

> 1. “It’s deemed worthy of clinical care when it “significantly interferes” with someone’s life and ability to function, but when it comes to minor digital attachments, **the effect** is pernicious”. (Art 1)

The existential presupposition is represented by the definite determiner ‘the’, which assumes that the harmful effects of digital companions exist.

> 2. “I do believe there is a cost – one that **I don’t think** we fully **recognise** because it’s hard to [see it] when you’re in it”. (Art 1)

The implicature is triggered by the violation of the quality maxim to imply that Dr Lembke is unsure about people’s awareness of the harmful effect of digital media. Likewise, the factive verb “recognise” assumes the less conscious comprehension of the negative effect, which sets off the logical presupposition.

> 3. “**It’s “easier** to go from abstinence to moderation, **than** from excessive consumption to moderation,” says Lembke”. (Art 1)

The logical presupposition is triggered by the cleft sentence and comparative structure to assume the best method of treatment is moderation.

> 4. “we’ve all heard about digital detoxes and mindfulness practices”. (Art 1)

The implicature is represented by the violation of the quantity maxim to imply that the information is not adequately informative because there is no elaboration on the concept of digital detoxes and not all readers are aware of it.

> 5. “**It’s** not normal to live under the surveillance of software companies, which tailor their advertising with such eerie precision that it seems impossible that they are not listening in on our conversations”. (Art 2)

The logical presupposition is denoted by the cleft sentence to assume this information is true and draw the readers’ attention to the fact that these platforms are unsafe.

6. “Returning **again and again** even though it can make us feel depressed and alone“. (Art2)

The iterative adverb “again” triggers the logical presupposition assumes that using social media repeatedly can have a detrimental impact on our behaviour.

7. “We are the alcoholics, and the barrel is a collection of scrolling feeds we gorge on, drowning before we’ve had our fill”. (Art 2)

The implicature is denoted by flouting the maxim of quality to imply that the risk of excessive use of social media is like the risk of alcohol.

8. “Add social media, and **the result** is a toxic brew of solipsism and information overload, the kind that one is either overwhelmed by, or turns one into a monster in order to survive”. (Art 2)

The existential presupposition is triggered by the definite article “the” to assume that the result is true and exists. Likewise, the role of implying process is done by violating the maxim of quality by using the metaphorical expression “monster” to depict the negative change in personality that excessive use of social media can cause.

9. “Smartphone users have become “human snails carrying our homes in our pockets”. (Art 3)

The implicature is denoted by flouting the maxim of quality to imply that smartphone have become the most important thing to the users and they carry it everywhere like a snail carries its home.

10. “This phenomenon was leading to the “death of proximity” when it comes to face-to-face interaction, he said”. (Art 3)

The implicature is denoted by flouting the maxim of quality by using metaphorical expression to imply that excessive use of smartphones negatively affects our real communication and turns us into digital natives.

> 11. “The researchers also describe how **this “home**” can be far from being a place of respite, with work communications and social media both having the potential to encroach”. (Art 3)

The demonstrative “this” triggers the existential presupposition to assume the existence of a harmful influence on our privacy and homes.

> 12. “**It is** only by looking at the vastly different uses and contexts that we can fully **understand** the consequences of smartphones for people’s lives around the world”. (Art 3)

The factive word “understand” and cleft sentence indicate the logical presupposition, to assume that the effect of this global phenomenon needs more awareness.

> 13. “The charity said very young children – one **as young as** two – were learning to access websites, for example YouTube and those related to children’s television programmes, as a result of their parents giving them access to smartphones or tablet computers to distract or entertain them”. (Art 4)

The comparative structure triggers the logical presupposition to presume that parents are not particularly aware of how websites affect very young children.

> 14. “The report said: “Barnardo’s practitioners **raised** concerns in relation to the social and emotional development of very young children when they interact with social media”. (Art 4)

The change of state verb “raised” logically presupposes that social media has an impact on young children's mental health development.

> 15. “**These risks** can have a devastating impact on the lives of the UK’s most vulnerable children”. (Art 4)

The existential presupposition borne out by the demonstrative “these” assumes the real existence of the harmful effects of social media on young vulnerable children.

> 16. “Due to the comments, I **began** to hate myself and felt ‘outside’ of everything, so then I tried to kill myself,” the girl told the charity”. (Art 4)

The change of state verb “began”, which logically presupposes that our attitudes and behaviours may change as a result of what we read and see on social media.

> 17. “**The change** in his personality was down to a gaming disorder that crept up on him at the age of 12, when he started secondary school”. (Art 5)

The definite article “the” denotes the existential presupposition to assume that personality change due to gaming disorder exists and is common, convincing the readers to pay more attention to young children and teenagers playing the digital game.

> 18. “The problem **reached** breaking point when Joseph was admitted to hospital for eight weeks because he was forgetting to eat and wash, and simply not functioning”. (Art 5)

The change of state verb “reach” logically presuppose that excessive gaming has a harmful extension on the players’ health.

> 19. “**It was sad** that I didn’t notice how I soon **replaced** the people I actually knew in life for others online, due to gaming ability”. (Art 5)

The cleft sentence and the change of the state verb “replaced” trigger the logical presupposition to presume the veracity of the claim that excessive gaming makes people more antisocial.

> 20. “**The 25-year-old adds:** “These games did help me in a way but if I didn’t have someone willing to pull me away ... I would’ve closed myself off from the world more as I was already doing it”. (Art 5)

The definite article “the” denotes the existential presumption to suppose that games have an impact on young adults' behaviour.

4.2.1.7 Negating

This textual-conceptual tool is used to create a mental image of both the positive and the negative propositions. Accordingly, negating can promote ideological effects if the text producer is attempting to influence the readers.

1. “Addiction is a spectrum disorder: **it’s not** as simple as being an addict or **not** being an addict.” (Art 1)

The syntactic negation is used to draw in receptors’ minds a negative reality that addiction is more than just having an uncontrollable desire. Indeed, it can negatively interfere with all aspects of someone’s life.

2. “The digital world enables bingeing on a previously **unseen** scale because there **are no** practical limitations forcing us to pause”. (Art 1)

By using morphological negation ‘unseen’ and syntactic negation ‘are no’, the writer draws the readers’ attention to the fact that the digital world is indefatigable and has unlimited content that may affect our way of thinking.

3. “The goal **is generally not** to banish it forever, but to figure out how to enjoy it in moderation – that most elusive of things”. (Art 1)

The writer uses the syntactic negation to convince the readers to use digital companions properly.

4. “And really, **it’s not**. Life is a slog and I think if we could admit that and take comfort in knowing **we’re not** alone in the day-to-day struggle, paradoxically, we would be happier”. (Art 1)

The syntactic negation is used to draw in receptors’ minds a reality that real life requires effort and is not as enjoyable as it may seem in the digital world.

5. “It’s obvious that what social media does to us, especially those of us who are heavy users, **is not** natural, or normal”. (Art 2)

The syntactic negation “is not” is utlised to draw in the readers’ minds a negative reality that excessive use of social media has a harmful influence on all aspects of our life.

6. “**It’s not** normal to live under the surveillance of software companies, which tailor their advertising with such eerie precision that it seems **impossible** that they **are not** listening in on our conversations”. (Art 2)

The readers' perception that they are under the control of software companies is heightened by the usage of the syntactic negations “it's not,” “are not,” and morphological negation “impossible.” As a result, rather than expanding freedom, the digital age is restricting it.

> 7. “**It’s definitely not** normal to wake in the night to use social media, or to spend roughly 24 hours a week on it”. (Art 2)

The syntactic negation “It’s definitely not” is used to attract the readers’ attention to the fact the excessive use of social media platforms negatively influences sleeping and ultimately causes problems related to physical wellbeing.

> 8. “It risks shifting focus away from governments, which have **failed** to regulate platforms, encouraging a culture where vulnerable individuals are at fault”. (Art 2)

The semantic negation is represented by using the verb “failed” to highlight the fact that governments are powerless to control the risk posed by social media platforms, but that public awareness can do so.

> 9. “The smartphone **is no** longer just a device that we use, it’s become the place where we live,” said Prof Daniel Miller, who led the study”. (Art 3)

The syntactic negation “is no” is used to draw the readers’ attention to the influence that smartphone may cause to our relationships with our families.

> 10. “The flip side of that for human relationships is that at any point, whether over a meal, a meeting or other shared activity, a person we’re with can just **disappear**, having ‘gone home’ to their smartphone”. (Art 3)

The morphological negation is denoted by using the verb “disappear” to highlight the reality that smartphones do not let our experiences unfold naturally.

> 11. “A child bullied by other pupils at school now finds little or **no** respite through coming back to her or his home”. (Art 3)

The syntactic negation “no” is utilised to show how smartphones lessen children's comfort and safety at home.

> 12. “Barnardo’s is concerned that early access to electronic devices could lead to both addiction and a **loss** of key social skills as families spend less time talking among themselves”. (Art 4)

The semantic negation is represented through the noun “a loss” to show the absence of skills have to exist. Therefore, using electronic devices puts our relationships with our families in jeopardy.

> 13. “Children of that age are being exposed to **unsuitable** or harmful material online”. (Art 4)

The morphological negation is represented through the addition of the prefixes to the adjective “unsuitable” to draw the readers’ attention to the fact that some contents of websites are immoral or affect the children’s thinking.

> 14. “Although the internet offers **incredible** opportunities to learn and play, it also carries serious new risks from cyberbullying to online grooming,” said Javed Khan, Barnardo’s chief executive”. (Art 4)

The morphological negation is represented through the addition of the prefix “in” to the adjective “incredible” to describe the wonderful and unlimited positive opportunities and the unlimited risk of the internet. That is, it depends on how people use the internet.

> 15. “That included putting a new legal duty of care on providers to ensure that young users **do not** come to harm from accessing their content”. (Art 4)

The syntactic negation “do not” show the necessity of an effective system to ensure that children are not expose to harmful content.

> 16. “Although this is an extreme example, Joseph **is not** alone”. (Art 5)

The syntactic negation “is not” is utilised to draw the readers’ attention to the reality that many other children suffer from gaming disorder which negatively impacts all aspects of their lifes.

> 17. “We **are not** saying this is an epidemic but there will be people with this disorder who need treatment”. (Art 5)

In order to emphasise that gaming disorder is not a rapidly spreading disease, the grammatical negative “are not” is employed. Nevertheless, people who suffer from this problem must receive therapy.

> 18. “She feels that there **is not** enough awareness about the problem”. (Art 5)

The syntactic negation “is not” is used to convince the readers to read more about gaming disorder and increase their awareness of its impact.

> 19. “Despite reports that her son would be the first child to be diagnosed with a gaming disorder after recent WHO changes, her local NHS trust said it **did not** have enough guidance to determine this”. (Art 5)

The syntactic negation “did not” is used to highlight the lack of enough guidance to treat gaming disorder and encourage specialists to take it seriously in order to find effective guidance.

4.2.1.8 Hypothesising

This textual-conceptual tool explores how modality affects the ideology of text by considering the hypothetical situation that modality produces.

> 1. “She **wants** me to abstain from using it for at least 24 hours by locking it in a drawer and going out”. (Art 1)

The hypothesising process is proposed through the boulomaic modal verb ‘wants’ to express the desire of Dr Lembke to convince the readers in order to beat their digital dependency.

> 2. “To understand addiction you **must** first understand dopamine”. (Art 1)

The modal auxiliary verb “must” is used to indicate the deontic modality, conveying directed towards the readers to comprehend how pleasurable things stimulate our brains and ultimately cause us to become addicts.

> 3. “And the version of life presented on screens removes all rough edges: faces are filtered and beautiful, there are no awkward silences, and if we don’t like what we see we **can** simply click on another tab”. (Art 1)

The epistemic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “can” to express the ability of digital life to portray an enjoyable version of the life. However, this digital life is unreal and badly affects our capacity to deal with real life.

> 4. “Lembke is sanguine that we **can** beat our digital dependencies by embracing a more monastic mindset”. (Art 1)

By using epistemic modality through the modal auxiliary verb ‘can’, the writer encourages the readers to beat their digital dependency by informing them that the expert Dr Lembke is certain that we can control our digital dependency.

> 5. “On Monday a report was published by an all-party parliamentary group (APPG), proposing that internet addiction **could** be classified as a disease“. (Art 2)

The hypothesising process is proposed through the epistemic modal auxiliary verb “could” to express the likelihood of considering the negative impact of internet addiction on mental health as a disease to attract people’s attention to it.

> 6. “**Could** anyone stand to live without a smartphone, in 2019, and to go without social media?” (Art 2)

The epistemic modality is denoted by modal auxiliary verb “could” to reveal the certainty of the strong influence of smartphones in our life.

> 7. “One benefit of a disease classification **would** be that psychiatric professionals might take social media more seriously”. (Art 2)

The boulomatic auxiliary verb “would” is used to express the desire of the writer to take social media addiction more seriously.

> 8. “Any resulting regulation **must** focus on living with social media, rather than abandoning, restricting or censoring it – even for children and young adults”. (Art 2)

The deontic modality is denoted through the auxiliary verb “must” to reveal the obligation to moderate our use of social media.

> 9. “This behaviour, and the frustration, disappointment or even offence it **can** cause, is what we’re calling the ‘death of proximity’”. (Art 3)

The epistemic modality is triggered by the modal auxiliary verb “can” to express the likelihood that excessive use of social media causes bad relationships in real world.

> 10. “We are learning to live with the jeopardy that even when we are physically together, we **can** be socially, emotionally or professionally alone”. (Art 3)

The epistemic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “can” to highlight the possibility of having a negative interaction with our loved ones and turning into digital natives due to the excessive use of social media.

> 11 “They are the means by which you **can** still be a grandparent even if living in another country”. (Art 3)

The modal auxiliary verb "can" specifies the epistemic modality to highlight the certainty of being close to our grandparents even if they live in another country due to the regular use of a smartphone. That is, regulating the use of a smartphone is positive.

> 12. “The researchers also describe how this “home” **can** be far from being a place of respite, with work communications and social media both having the potential to encroach”. (Art 3)

The modal auxiliary verb “can” indicates the epistemic modality to reveal the likelihood that smartphones have a negative impact on our responsibilities and relief at home.

> 13. “Barnardo’s is concerned that early access to electronic devices **could** lead to both addiction and a loss of key social skills as families spend less time talking among themselves”. (Art 4)

The use of electronic devices may develop into abnormal behaviour and lead to social isolation, as suggested by the use of the epistemic modal auxiliary verb "could". Therefore, parents ought to concentrate more on their children.

> 14. "With this report suggesting it **could** be a problem for some children, from a very young age". (Art 4)

The epistemic modality is signified in "could" to draw the readers' attention to the risk that children may encounter when using the internet because they lack adequate awareness.

> 15. "Social media platforms **need** to start paying a levy to help fund NHS treatment of the growing number of children and young people whose mental health is harmed by using them, Murdoch added". (Art 4)

The obligation to tax social media companies to force them to remove the addictive qualities of apps that negatively affect children's mental health is expressed by the modal auxiliary word "need."

> 16. "The children and young people we work with tell us about the positives of using technology, but also that being exposed to harmful content or being bullied round the clock on social media **can** have a serious impact on their mental health". (Art 4)

The epistemic modality is signified in "could" to draw the readers' attention to how their children are influenced by risky technology use, which may have an impact on their mental health.

> 17. "She said: "We are not saying this is an epidemic but there **will** be people with this disorder who need treatment". (Art 5)

The epistemic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb "will" to highlight the certainty of existence of people who suffering from gaming disorder.

> 18. "There **should** be one every two years". (Art 5)

The deontic modal auxiliary verb "should" is used to indicate the obligation of following the changing of gaming disorders and its effects.

19. “For some very small percentage of players, excessive gaming **can** become a problem”. (Art 5)

The epistemic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “will” to reveal the certainty of problem that excessive gaming causes.

20. “She believes that more support **should** be offered through schools”. (Art 5)

The deontic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “should” to highlight the necessity to increase the awareness of risk of gaming disorder in schools

4.2.1.9 Presenting Others’ Speech and Thought

This textual-conceptual function is concerned with how the speakers/writers use the power of language to quote others’ speech and thoughts that might potentially involve manipulation and highlighting certain ideologies.

1. **“She’s urging us to** make space in our brains to let our thoughts wash over us rather than constantly seeking stimulation”. (Art 1)

The writer uses the narrator's report of a speech act to persuade the readers that the expert Dr. Lembke recommends us to lessen our usage of digital companions since it is healthier for our brains.

2. “**We’re losing our capacity to delay gratification, solve problems and deal with frustration and pain in its many different forms,” says Lembke”.** (Art 1)

Direct speech is adopted by the writer in presenting Dr Lembke’s speech to express the truthfulness of what Dr Lembke says regarding the negative effect of excessive use of digital companions.

3. “It’s **“easier to go from abstinence to moderation, than from excessive consumption to moderation,” says Lembke**”. (Art 1)

In order to convince the readers to adopt Dr. Lembke's method of treatment, the writer employs direct speech that makes the facts presented seem unquestionably true.

> 4. "**Doing things that are hard is one of the best ways to pursue a life worth living, because the pleasure we get afterwards is more enduring," she says".** (Art 1)

The writer uses direct speech in presenting Dr Lembke' speech to express the faithfulness of what she says concerning the substitution of constant craving for digital companions by other beneficial and pleasurable activities like going to run.

> 5. "In 1995, The Unabomber manifesto asked that we **"never forget that a human being with technology is exactly like an alcoholic with a barrel of wine".** (Art 2)

Direct speech is used to express the truthfulness in what the Unabomber manifesto asks regarding the jeopardy of technology.

> 6. "Smartphone users have become **"human snails carrying our homes in our pockets",** with a tendency to ignore friends and family in favour of their device, according to a landmark study". (Art 2)

Direct speech is adopted in presenting the finding of landmark study to express faithfulness in what the study has found concerning the changing that smartphone causes in our life.

> 7. "The smartphone is no longer just a device that we use, it's become the place where we live," said Prof Daniel Miller, who led the study". (Art 3)

Direct speech is used in presenting Prof Miller's speech to convey the truthfulness of what Prof Miller states about the impact of smartphones.

> 8. "He said "This behaviour, and the frustration, disappointment or even offence it can cause, is what we're calling the 'death of proximity'. We are learning to live with the jeopardy that even when we are physically together, we can be socially, emotionally or professionally alone". (Art 3)

Direct speech is adopted in presenting Prof Miller's speech to reveal the truthfulness of what Prof Miller illustrates regarding the influence of smartphones in real communication.

> 9. "At first an emphasis upon older people may appear strange because we have become so used to concentrating upon youth, once thought the natural users of smartphones," the researchers wrote". (Art 3)

To demonstrate the accuracy of the researchers' claims on the effects of smartphones on all generations, direct speech is used to present their speech.

> 10. "The smartphone is perhaps the first object to challenge the house itself (and possibly also the workplace) in terms of the amount of time we dwell in it while awake," they conclude". (Art 3)

To demonstrate the veracity of the researchers' findings regarding the detrimental impact of smartphones on how we organise our time, their conclusion is presented in direct speech.

> 11. "The charity **said** very young children – one as young as two – were learning to access websites, for example YouTube and those related to children's television programmes, as a result of their parents giving them access to smartphones or tablet computers to distract or entertain them". (Art 4)

In order to support the writer's belief about the risky impact of cellphones on children and the lack of parental awareness, the narrator's report of speech is expressed using the verbalisation process "said," which is less faithful than direct speech.

> 12. "The report said: **"Barnardo's practitioners raised concerns in relation to the social and emotional development of very young children when they interact with social media".** (Art 4)

Direct speech is adopted in presenting the speech of the report to convey the truthfulness of what the report signifies concerning the effect of smartphones on children's development.

> 13. “Although the internet offers incredible opportunities to learn and play, it also carries serious new risks from cyberbullying to online grooming,” said Javed Khan, Barnardo’s chief executive”. (Art 4)

Direct speech is utilised in presenting Khan’s speech to convey the truthfulness of what Khan states concerning the advantages and disadvantages of the internet.

> 14. “I got horrible messages from children saying: ‘Your dad’s a pervert, you might as well kill yourself now.’ Due to the comments, I began to hate myself and felt ‘outside’ of everything, so then I tried to kill myself,” the girl told the charity”. (Art 4)

Direct speech is utilised in presenting the girl’s speech to express faithfulness in what the girl states about potentially harmful effects of social media on psychological health.

> 15. “He became too terrified to go to school and he was terrified of people,” she says”. (Art 5)

Direct speech is adopted in presenting Parmar’s speech to convey faithfulness in what Parmar states about her son’s situation due to gaming disorder.

> 16. “It was sad that I didn’t notice how I soon replaced the people I actually knew in life for others online, due to gaming ability. I never noticed the time of night and somehow felt this urge that I couldn’t stop playing yet,” she says”. (Art 5)

Direct speech is used in presenting Amanda’s speech to signify the truthfulness of what Amanda states regarding the negative consequences of gaming disorder in her life.

> 17. “Experts have urged caution, however, at over-sensationalising the problem, saying that only a small minority who will be affected”. (Art 5)

To convince the readers to believe the specialists’ thoughts on the slow rise of gaming disorder, the narrator's report of a speech act is used, which is less frightful than direct speaking.

> 18. “She said: “We are not saying this is an epidemic but there will be people with this disorder who need treatment ... We will only know the scale of the issue and whether it is changing and worsening when we start having relevant prevalence surveys. There should be one every two years”. (Art 5)

Direct speech is adopted in presenting Bowden-Jones' speech to reveal the faithfulness in what Bowden-Jones states regarding the development of gaming disorder.

4.2.1.10 Representing Time, Space, and Society

This textual-conceptual tool is used to explore how the linguistic realisation of space, time, and society may be ideological by mentally directing the hearers or readers to a deictic centre that represents the writer's point of view.

> 1. "According to addiction expert **Dr Anna Lembke**". (Art 1)

By using social deictic 'Dr', the writer draws the readers' attention to the fact that Anna Lembke is an expert and her information is so reliable.

> 2. "Her new book, Dopamine Nation, emphasises that **we** are **now** all addicts to a degree". (Art 1)

The personal deictic 'we' and temporal deictic 'now' denote an in-group sense, in which people in general in modern-day are addicted to something since the types of addictive things has increased.

> 3. "Y**ou** should start with a period of fasting, from 24 hours up to one month (the longer, the better)". (Art 1)

The writer addresses the readers by utilising the personal deictic pronoun "you" and urges them to lessen the use of digital companions.

> 4. "Many of these ideas are familiar: **we**'ve all heard about digital detoxes and mindfulness practices". (Art 1)

The personal deictic pronoun 'we' is used to suggest that the writer deliberately chooses to address people in general and encourages them to experience digital detoxes.

> 5. “**We** should be focusing on living with it, rather then abandoning, restricting or censoring it”. (Art 2)

The personal deictic “we” is used to represent an in-group sense, in which all people should regulate their use of social media platforms in order to avoid the negative effects of excessive use.

> 6. “**There** will be readers who argue it’s easy, but for a vast number trying to stay afloat in a precarious, internet-ravaged job market, the answer is no”. (Art 2)

The place deictic “there” is used to represent the existence of the few readers who can manage without or responsibly utilise smartphones. Thus, smartphones have an impact on every part of our lives.

> 7. “**We** are the alcoholics, and the barrel is a collection of scrolling feeds we gorge on, drowning before we’ve had our fill”. (Art 2)

The personal deictic “we” is used to represent a sense of in-groupness that people are impacted by social media's addictive qualities in a similar way to how alcohol affects people.

> 8. “In the US, **the senator** Elizabeth Warren recently proposed to break apart tech multinationals and rework antitrust laws, the MPs’ report feels unambitious, and more like a palliative measure”. (Art 2)

The social deictic “the senator” is used to describe Elizabeth Warren as an important person and her proposal is important and could influence people’s thought.

> 9. “Smartphone is **now** ‘the place where **we** live’, anthropologists say”. (Art 3)

The time deictic “now” and personal deictic “we” signify that smartphones change the way of living for all people in the present time.

> 10. “The smartphone is no longer just a device that we use, it’s become the place where we live,” said Prof Daniel Miller, who led the study”. (Art 3)

Daniel Miller is referred to as a “Prof” in order to convey to the reader that he is an expert and that the knowledge he provides is trustworthy.

> 11. “**These** apps are the platforms where siblings come together to take care of elderly parents, proud parents send out endless photographs of their babies, and migrants reconnect with families”. (Art 3)

The place deictic “these” is used to represent the proximal of these apps to us more than the actual communication.

> 12. “The researchers also describe how **this** “home” can be far from being a place of respite, with work communications and social media both having the potential to encroach”. (Art 3)

The place deictic “this” is used to describe the home as a proximal existing home where smartphones negatively affect its privacy.

> 13. “Worries regarding addiction and the substitution of time spent with family for the use of social media were issues that were felt to cause problems related to mental health and emotional wellbeing in **this age group”**. (Art 4)

In order to convey the close proximity of young children to our lives and the potentially harmful effects of social media use on them, the place deictic “this” is utilised. Parents must therefore focus more on their children.

> 14. “**These** risks can have a devastating impact on the lives of the UK’s most vulnerable children”. (Art 4)

Using the locative pronoun “these”, the risk is referred to as the current proximal threats that endanger youngsters.

> 15. “With this report suggesting it could be a problem for some children, from a very young age,” said Claire Murdoch, NHS England’s national mental health **director”**. (Art 4)

The social deictic “director” is utilised to convince the readers that Claire Murdoch is an important person and her information is trustworthy and could guide patients to the right way of therapy.

> 16. “**I** got horrible messages from children saying: ‘Your dad’s a pervert, **you** might as well kill yourself now”. (Art 4)

The personal deitics “I, you” are used to represent the influence of the opinions and comments on social media platforms on the self and others.

> 17. “**He** became too terrified to go to school and **he** was terrified of people,” she says”. (Art 5)

In order to indicate otherness, the personal deictic “he” is utilised .the patient with a gaming disease is recognised by his symptoms. Thus, parents have to pay attention to their children’s behaviours.

> 18. “**She** also put the internet router in a locked safe so her son could not override the parental controls that stopped him accessing the internet”. (Art 5)

The personal deictic “she” is used to represent one of the mothers that tries to safeguard and treats her son from gaming disorder to convince other mothers to protect their children from the harm of excessive gaming.

> 19. “**Now** an increasing number of parents are also banning children from video gaming, thereby depriving them of one of the few forms of play still available to them”. (Art 5)

The time deictic “now” is used to illustrate that at the present time parents’ awareness has increased about the harmful effects of excessive gaming to encourage readers to moderate their children’s playing since the young generation mostly plays only video games.

> 20. “Parmar is **now** getting support for her son through a woman she describes as a gamer and coach, who is helping her son prepare for therapy”. (Art 5)

The time deictic “now” is used to emphasise that gaming disorders are currently a growing concern.

4.2.2 The Independent

The qualitative analysis comprises four sentences from each article of the Independent’s five represented articles for each tool to represent the concept of digital addiction.

4.2.2.1 Naming and Describing

This textual-conceptual tool involves the naming practices where a text producers takes a view of certain entities. This practice includes three tools: choice of nouns, noun modification, and nominalisation. All three tools have the potential to uncover the underlying ideologies.

> 1. “Giving **your child a smartphone** is like “giving them **a gram of cocaine**”, a top addiction therapist has warned”. (Art 1)

Regarding the formal features of naming and describing, the noun phrase “your child a smartphone” functions as subject and the noun phrase “a gram of cocaine” functions as a complement to draw the readers’ attention to the potentially dangerous addictive properties of the smartphones that negatively impact children’s mental health since they are immature.

> 2. “Concern has grown recently over the number of young people seen to be sending or receiving **pornographic images**, or accessing age **inappropriate content** online through their devices”. (Art 1)

The noun “image” is pre-modified by the adjective “pornographic” and the the noun “content” is pre-modified by the adjective “inappropriate”. both function as a complement. Ideologically, the writer attracts the parents’ attention to the fact that this pornographic image or inappropriate content may normalising sexual violence for teenagers and increase the risk of addiction.

> 3. “Ms Saligari, who heads the Harley Street Charter clinic in London, said around two thirds of her patients were 16-20 year-olds seeking treatment for addiction – a “**dramatic increase”** on ten years ago - but many of her patients were even younger”. (Art 1)

The noun “increase” is per-modified by the adjective “dramatic” to highlight the sudden notable change in the number of teenagers who seeking treatment for addiction and to demonstrate that experts warn parents from risky impact of smartphone on the teenagers’ brain.

> 4. “**Greater emphasis** was needed on sleep and digital curfews at home, the experts suggested, as well as a systematic approach within schools, for example by introducing a smartphone amnesty at the beginning of the school day”. (Art 1)

The adjective “greater” is pre-modified to the nominalisation “emphasis”, highlighting that the writer convinces the readers to reduce the use of smartphones by stating that experts emphasise this.

> 5. “**Internet addiction** has for the first time been linked with changes in the brain similar to those seen in people addicted to alcohol, cocaine and cannabis”. (Art 2)

The choice of the noun “internet addiction” functions as a subject to highlight that excessive use of internet may become abnormal behaviour that affects people’s brain like other types of substance addiction.

> 6. “The majority are **games players** who become so absorbed in the activity they go without food or drink for long periods and their education, work and relationships suffer”. (Art 2)

The complement is made up of the noun phrase “games players”, to demonstrate that excessive gaming can have a harmful impact on players’ and their loved ones’ lives.

> 7. “It does tend to be **the gaming** that catches people out”. (Art 2)

The choice of noun “the gaming” functions as an object to illustrate that designing games with addictive features to encourage players play more to increase the

financial benefit of companies. However, the gaming would cause players to disregard all aspect of their life.

> 8. "**A mother** was jailed for 25 years after her daughter starved to death while she played an online game for hours at a time". (Art 2)

The subject is made up of choice of noun. The writer uses the noun "mother" rather than her name to illustrate how online gaming or internet negatively affect the responsibilities of mothers and ultimately entire families.

> 9. "**The family** of Christopher 'CJ' Dawley allege that their son developed a social media addiction that led to his death". (Art 3)

The choice of noun functions as a subject to show how social media addiction destroys the family and to urge other families to protect their children.

> 10. "We are calling on the parent companies of Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat to prioritize the health and wellness of its users by implementing safeguards to protect minors from the danger of **cyberbullying** and **sexual exploitation** that run rampant on their platforms". (Art 3)

The choice of noun "cyberbullying" and the noun phrase that is pre-modified by the adjective "sexual" is used to highlight the harmful effects of social media contents that negatively influence children's and teenagers' thinking. Thus, urging the companies to restrict these harmful contents and draw the parents' attention to these contents to protect their children.

> 11. "A spokesperson for Snap said: "While we can't comment on active litigation, **our hearts** go out to any family who has lost a loved one to suicide". (Art 3)

The noun phrase functions as a subject of the subordinate clause. Ideologically, the spokesperson uses the noun phrase "our hearts" to emotionally manipulate people into thinking that these companies do not promote addictive design and only support useful contents.

12. “Nothing is more important than the safety and wellbeing of **our community** and we are constantly exploring additional ways we can support Snapchatters”. (Art 3)

The noun phrase functions as a complement. Spokesperson uses the noun phrase “our community” to manipulate people that the benefit and safeguard of people more important than the financial benefits to encourage them use snapchatters more.

13. “**A group** of former Facebook, Google and Apple employees have launched a campaign to protect people from **addictive technologies**”. (Art 4)

The subject is made up of the choice of noun and the prepositional phrase is made up of noun phrase. The writer utilises the noun “group” to imply that there is an agreement among employees about the fact that this platforms are designed with addictive properties.

14. “Several prominent technology experts have spoken out against Silicon Valley giants over recent months, accusing them of causing damage to **people’s minds** and **society** as a whole, for their own gain”. (Art 4)

The coordinated noun phrase is used to draw the readers’ attention to the huge negative manipulation that these platforms can cause to people’s thoughts and society as a whole.

15. “**The Truth About Tech campaign** is aiming to educate people about the methods these companies use to get users hooked, and will provide practical advice to help them fight back”. (Art 4)

The subject is made up of the noun phrase to draw the readers’ attention to the fact that these platforms are designed to be addictive urging readers to reduce their using.

16. “In November, Harris warned that companies like Facebook are “steering” users’ thoughts, and that even if you know exactly how so-called **“persuasive technologies**” work, they can still have an enormous amount of power over you”. (Art 4)

The noun “technologies” is pre-modified by the adjective “persuasive” which functions as a subordinate clause. The writer clarifies that the technologies have effective design that could change the attitudes and behaviours of users.

17. “**Obsessively playing video games** could be the sign of **a serious mental health issue**, officials have said”. (Art 5)

The subject is made up of the noun phrase to clarify that obsessively gaming could be a disorder that affects the players’ mood, thinking, and behaving.

18. “The scourge of gaming addiction is not only damaging those who show signs of it but tearing **entire families** apart, experts have warned”. (Art 5)

The adjective “entire” is pre-modifier for the noun “families” to highlight the negative effect of gaming in our interaction and relationship with our families.

19. “Dr. Shekhar Saxena, director of the WHO's department for mental health and substance abuse, said the agency accepted the proposal that gaming disorder should be listed as **a new problem** based on **scientific evidence,** in addition to “the need and the demand for treatment in many parts of the world”. (Art 5)

The noun phrases function as a subordinate clause to draw readers' attention to the scientific finding that gaming disorder is a widespread issue that needs a solution.

20. “Others welcomed WHO's new classification, saying it was critical to identify people hooked on video games quickly because they are usually **teenagers** or **young adults** who don't seek help themselves”. (Art 5)

The choice of noun and the noun phrase operate as a complement to highlight that teenagers and young adults are immature and not aware of the harmful effect of excessive gaming.

4.2.2.2 Representing Actions/ Events/ States

The textual-conceptual function of actions/ events/ states depends on the choice of the verb to describe the situation as an action, an event, or state in a clause. Each of these options can have an ideological implication based on how the recipients see the situation.

> 1. “Giving your child a smartphone is like “giving them a gram of cocaine”, a top addiction therapist **has warned**”. (Art 1)

The kind of the verb “has warned” is a material action intention, in which the actor is “a top addiction therapist” and the goal is the subordinate clause. The writer uses the verb “warn” to make the readers aware of the danger of smartphone on children’s mental health.

> 2. “Speaking alongside experts in technology addiction and adolescent development, Harley Street rehab clinic specialist Mandy Saligari **said** screen time was too often overlooked as a potential vehicle for addiction in young people”. (Art 1)

The verbalisation process “said” with the sayer being “Harley Street” and the verbiage is the subordinate clause uses to declare that Harley Street vocally states that people do not notice the risk of excessive use of smartphones thereby more elaboration should be provided.

> 3. “Concern **has grown** recently over the number of young people seen to be sending or receiving pornographic images, or accessing age inappropriate content online through their devices”. (Art 1)

The relational circumstantial process is expressed by the verb “has grown”, in which “concern” is the carrier and the complement is the attribute, to highlight the negative change in young people’s ethical values and behaviours.

> 4. “Many young girls in particular **believe** that sending a picture of themselves naked to someone on their mobile phone is “normal”. (Art 1)

The “believe” is a mental cognition process, in which “Many young girls in particular” is the senser and the relative clause is the phenomenon, stating the utmost certainty of altering the girls’ values due to excessive use of smartphones.

> 5. “An estimated 5 to 10 percent of internet users **are** thought to be addicted – meaning they are unable to control their use”. (Art 2)

The relational intensive process is denoted by the copula verb “are” with “An estimated 5 to 10 percent of internet users” as a carrier and the subordinate clause as an attribute to suggest that seeking internet can be an abnormal behaviour similar to other types of addiction.

> 6. “I **have seen** people who stopped attending university lectures, failed their degrees or their marriages broke down because they were unable to emotionally connect with anything outside the game”. (Art 2)

The kind of the verb “have seen” is a mental perception with “I” being the senser and the relative clause being the phenomenon to imply the truth of existence of gaming addicts and perceive the negative effect of obsessively gaming.

> 7. “You **know** they have a problem”. (Art 2)

The verb “know” is a mental cognition, in which “you” is the senser and “they have a problem” is the phenomena to clarify that all of us knowing the risky impact of obsessively gaming.

8. “Chris Staniforth, 20, **died** of a blood clot after spending up to 12 hours at a time playing on his Xbox”. (Art 2)

The verb “died” is a material action supervention, in which the actor is “Chris Staniforth, 20” and the goal is “of a blood clot after spending up to 12 hours at a time playing on his Xbox” is used to depict a mental image of the terrible consequences of excessive gaming.

9. “Parents **sue** Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat claiming they caused teenage son’s suicide through ‘addictive design’”. (Art 3)

The material action intention is expressed by the verb “sue”, in which “parents” is the actor and the coordinate clause is the goal. The writer uses the verb “sue” to draw the parents’ attention to the awful effect of social media addiction in order to protect their children.

10. “Congressional testimony has shown that both Meta Platforms and Snapchat **were aware** of the addictive nature of their products and failed to protect minors in the name of more clicks and additional revenue,” said Matthew P Bergman, the firm's founder”. (Art 3)

The verb “were aware” denotes the mental cognitive process, with “Meta Platforms and Snapchat” as the senser and the subordinate clause as the phenomena, to imply that these platforms were purposefully built with addictive properties and to warn readers against such designs.

11. “We **are calling** on the parent companies of Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat to prioritize the health and wellness of its users by implementing safeguards to protect minors from the danger of cyberbullying and sexual exploitation that run rampant on their platforms”. (Art 3)

The verbalisation process “are calling,” with “we” as the sayer and “the verbiage” as the subordinate clause is used to express the strong urge to safeguard children and teenagers from the inappropriate and harmful content.

12. “In response to an inquiry from *The Independent*, a Meta spokesperson **laid** out the company's rules against graphic suicide and self-harm content”. (Art 3)

The verb “laid out” is a material action intention with “a Meta spokesperson” as an actor and “the company's rules against graphic suicide and self-harm content” as a goal to manipulate the readers into believing that company’s decisions for benefit them rather than for financial gain.

13. “A group of former Facebook, Google and Apple employees **have launched** a campaign to protect people from addictive technologies”. (Art 4)

The material action intention is expressed by the verb “have launched”, in which the actor is “employees” and the goal is “a campaign”. The writer encourages readers to raise their understanding of harmful addictive technologies by using the verb “have launched” to introduce the idea of protecting people.

14. “They will also **warn** people about the dangers of technology, and help engineers build products that have less potential to inflict harm on users”. (Art 4)

The material action intention is denoted by the verb “warn”, in which the actor is “they” and the goal is “people” is to inform the readers about the dangers of technology and promote the use of safety equipment.

15. “The most powerful tech companies in the world **are making** deliberate decisions that do great harm,” said Tristan Harris, an ex-Google employee, who is part of the campaign”. (Art 4)

The material action intention is expressed by “are making”, in which the actor is “tech companies” and “deliberate decisions” is the goal to clarify that the

tech company's presidents intentionally design harmful addictive apps to increase their financial profit.

> 16. "Facebook recently **admitted** that social media can be bad for you, but added that it all comes down to how you use it". (Art 4)

The verb "admitted" signifies material action event with "Facebook" as an actor and the relative clause as a goal to confess the intentionally harmful addictive effect of this app as reality.

> 17. "Obsessive video-game playing **recognised** as mental health problem". (Art 5)

The mental cognition process is denoted by the verb "recognised" with "Obsessive video-game playing" being a senser and "as mental health problem" being a phenomenon to identify the existence of gaming disorder.

> 18. "People need to understand this doesn't mean every child who spends hours in their room playing games is an addict, otherwise medics are going to be flooded with requests for help," she **said**". (Art 5)

The verb "said" denotes the verbalisation process, in which the sayer is "she" and the subordinate clause is the verbiages, recommending more awareness of gaming disorder is required.

> 19. "The studies **suggest** that when these individuals are engrossed in Internet games, certain pathways in their brains are triggered in the same direct and intense way that a drug addict's brain is affected by a particular substance,". (Art 5)

The verb "suggest" expresses a material action event with "The studies" being the actor and the relative clause being the goal to draw the readers' attention to the risky effect of gaming on individuals' brains.

> 20. The gaming **prompts** a neurological response that influences feelings of pleasure and reward, and the result, in the extreme, is manifested as addictive behavior. (Art 5)

The verb “prompts” is a material action event, in which the actor is “gaming” and the goal is “a neurological response” to imply that excessive gaming stimulates the dopamine in our brains to become uncontrolled behaviour like other type of addiction.

4.2.2.3 Equating and Contrasting

This textual-conceptual function is concerned with how two entities are equated or contrasted in the texts and illustrates how contrasts and similarities are ideologically significant.

> 1. “Giving your child a smartphone is **like** “giving them a gram of cocaine”, a top addiction therapist has warned”. (Art 1)

The metaphorical equivalence is constructed by using a simile to equate the risk of smartphone use on children’s brains with the risk of substance addiction.

> 2. “When people tend to look at addiction, their eyes tend to be on the substance or thing – **but** really it’s a pattern of behaviour that can manifest itself in a number of different ways”. (Art 1)

The contrastive opposition is triggered by the conjunction “but” to assert that engaging in behaviours stimulate people to be addicts.

> 3. “**Ms Saligari, who heads the Harley Street Charter clinic in London,** said around two thirds of her patients were 16-20 year-olds seeking treatment for addiction – a “dramatic increase” on ten years ago - **but** many of her patients were even younger”. (Art 1)

The appositional equivalence is constructd by the juxtaposition of two noun phrases to provide more elaboration that Ms Saligari is an expert and her information is reliable. Likewise, the contrastive opposition is used to clarify that very young children at the risk of becoming internet addicts.

> 4. “So many of my clients are 13 and 14-year-old-girls who are involved in sexting, and describe sexting **as** ‘completely normal’,” said Ms Saligari”. (Art 1)

The use of the simile “as” to equate sexting to normal behaviour sets off the metaphorical equivalent, which demonstrates how young girls' morals and thought are negatively changing.

> 5. **“Henrietta Bowden Jones, consultant psychiatrist at Imperial College, London, who runs Britain's only NHS clinic for internet addicts and problem gamblers**, said: “The majority of people we see with serious internet addiction are gamers”. (Art 2)

By means of an appositional equivalence, the author claims that “Henrietta Bowden Jones” is a specialist and that her information is trustworthy in order for the readers to accept the damaging effects of gaming.

> 6. “We are doing it because modern life requires us to link up over the net in regard to jobs, professional and social connections – **but** not in an obsessive way”. (Art 2)

The conjunction “but” triggers the contrastive opposition to declare that utilising the internet is beneficial and to caution the readers about the dangers of the obsessive use.

> 7. “When someone comes to you and says they did not sleep last night because they spent 14 hours playing games, and it was the same the previous night, and they tried to stop **but** they couldn't – you know they have a problem”. (Art 2)

The contrastive opposition is indicated by the conjunction “but,” which emphasises how excessive gaming may be an abnormal behaviour that needs treatment.

> 8. “Mainey **turned to** internet bingo following the breakdown of her marriage”. (Art 2)

The contrasting process of transitional opposition “turned to” highlights how people uses the internet to ignore their problems and feelings of loneliness. The writer implies that their loved ones should be aware of their behaviour because it can harm them.

> 9. “**Donna Dawley, the mother of Christopher** “CJ” Dawley, filed a lawsuit against Meta Platforms and Snap in the federal court circuit of Wisconsin last week, alleging wrongful death”. (Art 3)

The appositional equivalence is used to suggest that mothers should monitor their children's use of social media because it could be harmful to them.

10. “Congressional testimony has shown that both Meta Platforms and Snapchat were aware of the addictive nature of their products and failed to protect minors in the name of more clicks and additional revenue,” said **Matthew P Bergman, the firm's founder**”. (Art 3)

The appositional equivalence is used to assert that this information is obtained from reliable person to convince readers to believe that social media platforms have addictive designs that could harm the minors.

11. “A spokesperson for Snap said: “**While** we can't comment on active litigation, our hearts go out to any family who has lost a loved one to suicide”. (Art 3)

The concessive opposition is denoted by the conjunction “while” to promote the goodness of the company in order to manipulating people that the company concern their benefits over the legality of the litigation

12. “Its attempts to prevent allowed **but** potentially detrimental content from being recommended to users by its algorithms, and its suicide prevention programme that automatically detects signs of suicidal intent and notifies emergency services about the most dangerous cases”. (Art 3)

The conjunction “but” expresses the contrastive opposition to show how some content might be damaging and have an impact on people's thoughts.

13. “The most powerful tech companies in the world are making deliberate decisions that do great harm,” said **Tristan Harris, an ex-Google employee, who is part of the campaign**”. (Art 4)

The writer uses appositional equivalence to pay readers' attention to the fact that designs on this platform are designed to be addictive. This information is obtained from a reliable source who worked on this platform.

14. “Plenty of smart engineers and designers in the industry want to create apps that provide us with the information we need to improve our lives as quickly as possible**, instead of** just sucking us in for as long as possible”. (Art 4)

The replacive opposition is triggered by adverb “instead of” to encourage the design of platforms that focus on the needs of people rather than creating platforms that are addictive and increase corporate profits.

> 15. “Around the same time, the person who invented the Like button, Justin Rosenstein, the first president of Facebook, Sean Parker, and a former executive for the social network, Chamath Palihapitiya, also fiercely criticised the company“. (Art 4)

The writer emphasises to the readers that the staff of these platforms emphasise the detrimental addictive effect of these platforms by employing appositional equivalency.

> 16. “Facebook recently admitted that social media can be bad for you, **but** added that it all comes down to how you use it”. (Art 4)

The contrastive opposition is denoted by the conjunction “but” to encourage the readers to reduce their use of social media platforms and be aware of their potentially negative impacts.

> 17. “We come across parents who are distraught, not only because they're seeing their child drop out of school, **but** because they're seeing an entire family structure fall apart”. (Art 5)

The contrastive opposition is triggered by the conjunction “but” to show the risk of gaming disorder in family relationship and interaction.

> 18. “Playing them compulsively now qualifies **as** an official mental health condition, according to the World Health Organisation”. (Art 5)

The simile “as” denotes metaphorical equivalence to portray gaming as a disorder that significantly affects a person's ability to think clearly, regulate emotions, and behave appropriately.

> 19. “**Dr. Shekhar Saxena, director of the WHO's department for mental health and substance abuse**, said the agency accepted the proposal that gaming disorder should be listed as a new problem based on scientific evidence”. (Art 5)

By using appositional equivalence, the writer draws the readers' attention to the fact that this information is obtained from a specialist and the classification of gaming as a mental disorder based on scientific evidences that specialists have discovered.

> 20. "Video gaming is **like** a non-financial kind of gambling from a psychological point of view," said **Griffiths, a distinguished professor of behavioral addiction at Nottingham Trent University".** (Art 5)

The metaphorical equivalence is denoted by the simile "like" to describe obsessive gaming as an uncontrolled behaviour, in which this description is obtained from an expert by using appositional equivalence.

4.2.2.4 Exemplifying and Enumerating

Exemplifying is not listing all the cases of the category whereas enumerating is listing all the cases of a category. Exemplifying and enumerating are closely linked and the hearer/ reader is required to rely on pragmatic inferencing. Ideologically, exemplifying brings out a sense of indicative or incompleteness that incites the reader to add items from his repertoire while enumerating brings out a sense of completeness and comprehensiveness.

> 1. "Time spent messaging friends on **Snapchat and Instagram** can be just as dangerously addictive for teenagers as drugs and alcohol, and should be treated as such, school leaders and teachers were told at an education conference in London". (Art 1)

The list is presented as a case of exemplification because the list of social media platforms is incomplete. The writer invites the readers by using incomplete list to think about other platforms that may have harmful effects like other types of addiction.

> 2. "When people tend to look at addiction, their eyes tend to be on the substance or thing – but really it's a pattern of behaviour that can manifest itself in a number of different ways," Ms Saligari said, **naming food obsessions, self-harm and sexting as examples**". (Art 1)

The explicit exemplification is triggered by the phrase “as example” to encourage the readers to think about other behaviours or activities that may lead people be addict in order to avoid or reduce practicing them.

> 3. “Greater emphasis was needed on sleep and digital curfews at home, the experts suggested, as well as a systematic approach within schools, **for example** by introducing a smartphone amnesty at the beginning of the school day”. (Art 1)

The phrase “for example” indicates explicit exemplification to convince the readers to reduce their using of smartphones and think about other ways that could restrict children incessantly using of smartphones.

> 4. “Internet addiction has for the first time been linked with changes in the brain similar to those seen in people addicted to **alcohol, cocaine and cannabis”.** (Art 2)

The exemplifying is identified by the incomplete list of types of addiction to invite the readers to think or research about other types of addiction that harm their health like internet addiction, gaming, gambling and so on.

> 5. “The majority are games players who become so absorbed in the activity they go without **food or drink for long periods and their education, work and relationships suffer**”. (Art 2)

The enumeration is triggered by a five-part list to draw the readers’ attention to the explicit completeness of the harmful impacts of gaming disorders that affect to all aspects of players’ life.

> 6. “We are doing it because modern life requires us to link up over the net in regard to **jobs, professional and social connections** – but not in an obsessive way”. (Art 2)

The three-part list is described as enumerating to represent the symbolic completeness that shows how the internet interference in every part of our life. It affect it may be positively or negatively depending in our using.

> 7. “The results showed impairment of white matter fibres in the brain connecting regions involved in **emotional processing, attention, decision making and cognitive control.**” (Art 2)

The enumeration is triggered by a four-part list to draw the readers' attention to the explicit completeness of damage that gaming disorder cause to our brains' health in order to convince them to avoid obsessively playing.

> 8. "The family of a Wisconsin teenager who died by suicide in 2015 have sued the parent companies of **Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat**, claiming the companies sparked his mental crisis with their addictive products". (Art 3)

The three-part list is described as enumerating to represent symbolic completeness of platforms that intentionally use addictive designs to make their users constantly using them and influencing by their contents.

> 9. "We are calling on the parent companies of Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat to prioritize the health and wellness of its users by implementing safeguards to protect minors from the danger of **cyberbullying and sexual exploitation** that run rampant on their platforms". (Art 3)

The incomplete list of potentially dangerous contents that kids may access identifies the exemplifying, to convince parents to be aware of these contents and other similar dangerous contents.

> 10. "The lawsuit describes him as **an active churchgoer, golfer, baseball player and football quarterback who began using all three apps around 2012**". (Art 3)

By exemplifying an incomplete list of qualities of the boy, the writer encourages the readers to think about the personality negative changes that gaming disorder causes.

> 11. "Defendants' own research also points to the use of [their] social media products as a cause of increased depression, suicidal ideation, sleep deprivation, and other, serious harms".

The writer utilises exemplification to show the harmful effects that excessive using of social media platforms causes and to urge the readers to think about other harmful effects.

12. “They have teamed up to pressure technology companies to make their products “**less intrusive and less addictive”.** (Art 4)

Enumerating is triggered by a two-part list to describe the important qualifications that social media platforms must have.

13. “They’ve created the attention economy and are now engaged in a full-blown arms race to capture and retain human attention, including the attention of kids**. Technologists, engineers, and designers** have the power and responsibility to hold themselves accountable and build products that create a better world”. (Art 4)

The three-part list expresses the enumeration to represent a symbolic completeness of staffs who are responsible to design beneficial apps for people rather than addictive ones.

14. “Those very same consequences may at times hurt **the social, emotional, and cognitive development of kids”**. (Art 4)

The enumeration is indicated by a three-part list to represent the symbolic completeness of harmful influence that excessive use of social media platforms causes on children’s mental health that lead them to be antisocial.

15. “They will also discuss the potentially harmful impacts they can have, **such as** attention and cognition disorders, depression, loneliness, stress, anxiety, suicidal thoughts, loss of productivity, hindrance of children’s development; lack of critical-thinking skills, and a misconstrued sense of culture, Common Sense said”. (Art 4)

The phrase “such as” signifies an explicit exemplification to suggest the list of harmful effect of excessive use of internet is incomplete

16. “That means that the NHS must offer treatment, **for instance,** and may spur new research”. (Art 5)

The phrase “for instance” denotes an explicit exemplification to illustrate the solution of gaming disorder and encourage the readers to think about other ways that may help gaming disorder patients.

17. “People would likely have other underlying problems, **like** depression, bipolar disorder or autism”. (Art 5)

The word “like” denotes the explicit exemplification of other problems or diseases that lead them to be gaming addicts. Therefore, their families should pay more attention to them.

4.2.2.5 Prioritising

This textual-conceptual function is concerned with how the ideological effect can be produced by shifting the position of the focal information in the sentence by using three ways of prioritising in English: information structure, transformation, and subordination.

> 1. “When people tend to look at addiction, their eyes tend to be on the substance or thing – but really **it’s** a pattern of behaviour that can manifest itself in a number of different ways”. (Art 1)

The information structure shifting is realised through cleft structure to prioritise the fact that certain behaviours can be uncontrollable and addictive.

> 2. “**In a recent survey of more than 1,500 teachers,** around two-thirds said they were aware of pupils sharing sexual content, with as many as one in six of those involved of primary school age”. (Art 1)

The information structure shifting is realised through fronting to prioritise the truth that young children are being exposed to inappropriate contents that could have a negative impact on their thinking.

> 3. “**More than 2,000 children** have been reported to police for crimes linked to indecent images in the past three years”. (Art 1)

The information structure shifting is recognised through fronting to prioritise the truth of existing and spreading inappropriate contents among children.

> 4. “**With sixth formers and teenagers**, you’re going to get resistance, because to them it’s like a third hand”. (Art 1)

The information structure shifting is recognised through fronting to prioritise the difficulty of convincing teenagers to reduce their use of smartphones and the big effect that smartphones have on teenagers' brains and life.

5. "Although most of the population was spending longer online, **that** was not evidence of addiction, she said". (Art 2)

The writer uses the subordinate clause to draw the readers' attention to the negative effect of spending long time online.

6. "**It is** different". (Art 2)

The information structure shifting is recognised through cleft structure to emphasise the distinction between a smartphone addict and a non-addict, prompting readers to pay greater attention to this difference.

7. "**It was** the same the previous night, and they tried to stop but they couldn't – you know they have a problem". (Art 2)

The cleft sentence is employed to prioritise the truth that excessive gaming is an uncontrollable behaviour that needs treatment.

8. "Xbox addict **killed** by blood clot after 12-hour sessions". (Art 2)

By using transformation, the priority is given to the action over the doer of the action to attract the readers' attention to the dangerous influence of gaming disorder.

9. "The family of a Wisconsin teenager who **died** by suicide in 2015 have sued the parent companies of Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat, claiming the companies sparked his mental crisis with their addictive products". (Art 3)

The passive transformation is used to prioritise the action of death over the doer of the action to convince the readers about the harmful effects of social media addiction.

10. "Christopher Dawley was 17 years old when he killed himself in 2015, after allegedly developing a social media addiction **that** kept him awake". (Art 3)

The writer uses the subordinate clause to emphasise for the readers the detrimental changes that social media addiction has brought about as a result of the content's powerful influence on people's thoughts.

> 11. “**For the death by suicide of Christopher J Dawley,** caused by his addictive use of defendants’ unreasonably dangerous and defective social media products,” the lawsuit says”. (Art 3)

The information structure shifting is recognised through cleft structure to highlight the risky consequences of excessive use of social media platforms on people’s life.

> 12. “Defendants have invested billions of dollars to intentionally design and develop their products to encourage, enable, and push content to teens and children **that** defendants know to be problematic and highly detrimental to their minor users’ mental health”. (Art 3)

The intentionally addictive designs are given the higher level of the subordinate clause while defendants concern about the influence of these addictive design given the lower level of subordinate clause. It implies the carelessness of social media companies about the negative effects of these platforms in their mental health.

> **13. “Around round the same time,** the person who invented the Like button, Justin Rosenstein, the first president of Facebook, Sean Parker, and a former executive for the social network, Chamath Palihapitiya, also fiercely criticised the company“. (Art 4)

The information structure shifting is denoted through fronting to proritise the truth of addictive design by informing them that one of Facebook's key employees criticised their policy and reduced it.

> 14. “Facebook recently admitted that social media can be bad for you, but added **that** it all comes down to how you use it”. (Art 4)

The writer uses the subordinate clause to prioritise Facebook admission regarding the negative impact of social media on people’s thinking.

15. “**According to the research,** it really comes down to how you use the technology,” the company wrote”. (Art 4)

By using fronting, the writer prioritises the scientific evidence that the dangers of technology depend on how people use them. Thus, the writer convinces the readers to regulate their using.

16. “**Just like in person,** interacting with people you care about can be beneficial, while simply watching others from the sidelines may make you feel worse”. (Art 4)

The information structure shifting is denoted through fronting to highlight the importance of face-to-face interaction with our loved ones over the digital interaction.

17. “**Others welcomed WHO's new classification,** saying it was critical to identify people hooked on video games quickly because they are usually teenagers or young adults who don't seek help themselves”. (Art 5)

The information structure shifting is signified through fronting to prioritise the importance of classifing gaming as a disorder to help the unaware teenagersceiving treatment

18. “Bowden-Jones said gaming addictions were usually best treated with psychological therapies but **that** some medicines might also work”. (Art 5)

By using subordination, the priority is given to the importance of psychological treatment of gaming addicts since it affects all aspects of their life, in which their loved ones and specialists should care about it more than the medicines.

19. “The gaming prompts a neurological response **that** influences feelings of pleasure and reward, and the result, in the extreme, is manifested as addictive behaviour”. (Art 5)

The author gives priority to the dopamine's role in our brains' production of uncontrollable behaviour that makes us susceptible to addiction by using the subordinate clause.

20. “**WHO's Saxena,** however, estimated that 2 to 3 percent of gamers might be affected”. (Art 5)

The information structure shifting is denoted through fronting to highlight the classification of World Health Organisation of negative of gaming like other mental disorders.

4.2.2.6 Implying and Assuming

This textual-conceptual tool demonstrates the ability to use language to produce assumptions and implications that make naturalised ideologies.

1. “I always say to people, when you’re giving your kid a tablet or a phone, you’re really giving them **a bottle of wine or a gram of coke,**” she said”. (Art 1)

The implicature is triggered by the violation of the quality maxim to imply the risky effect of digital devices on children’s brain and to urge parents to be aware of this risk.

2. “Her comments follow news that children **as young as** 13 are being treated for digital technology“. (Art 1)

The comparative structure denotes the logical presupposition to assume the most influenced people by the digital technology are children and teenagers.

3. “Concern **has grown** recently over the number of young people seen to be sending or receiving **pornographic** images, or accessing age inappropriate content online through their devices”. (Art 1)

The logical presupposition is expressed by the change of the state verb to assume the negative change of ethical values among people due to the wrong using of their devices.

4. “With sixth formers and teenagers, you’re going to get resistance, because to them it’s like **a third hand**,” said Ms Saligari”. (Art 1)

The implicature is represented by the violation of quality maxim to imply the strong dependency of teenagers on digital devices.

5. "**The finding** could throw light on other behavioural problems and lead to the development of new approaches to treatment, researchers said". (Art 2)

The existential presupposition is represented by the definite article "the" to assume the finding is true. Experts assume to develop a new approach to treat internet addiction patients.

6. "I have seen people who **stopped** attending university lectures, failed their degrees or their marriages broke down because they were unable to emotionally connect with anything outside the game". (Art 2)

The logical presupposition is denoted by the change of the state verb "stopped" to assume the negative change that gaming disorder in players' life.

7. "**The results** showed impairment of white matter fibres in the brain connecting regions involved in emotional processing, attention, decision making and cognitive control". (Art 2)

The existential presupposition is triggered by the definite article "the" to assume the negative effects of digital addiction on brain functions are true.

8. "Mainey **turned to** internet bingo following the breakdown of her marriage". (Art 2)

The change in the state verb "turned to" logically implies that excessive internet use is a result of certain unpleasant circumstances in people's lives because they believe it would help them forget; instead, their circumstances are worsened. Therefore, their loved ones and friends should take care of them.

9. "**The family** of a Wisconsin teenager who died by suicide in 2015 have sued the parent companies of Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat". (Art 3)

The existential presupposition is represented by the definite article "the" to assume the existence of this family. Likewise, the writer convinces the readers of

the responsibility of the family to pay attention to their children's' use of social media platforms.

> 10. "Congressional testimony has shown that both Meta Platforms and Snapchat were **aware** of the addictive nature of their products and failed to protect minors in the name of more clicks and additional revenue". (Art 3)

The logical presupposition is denoted through the factive verb "aware" to assume that these companies intentionally design an addictive platforms to increase their financial benefits.

> 11. "Nothing is **more important than** the safety and wellbeing of our community and we are constantly exploring additional ways we can support Snapchatters". (Art 3)

The comparative structure indicates the logical presupposition to assume that these companies manipulate people to constantly using their platforms.

> 12. "**This product** liability action seeks to hold defendants' products responsible for causing and contributing to burgeoning mental health crisis perpetrated upon the children and teenagers in the United States by defendants". (Art 3)

The demonstrative "this" triggers the existential presupposition to assume the existence of harmful effects of the product.

> 13. "They will also warn people about **the dangers** of technology, and help engineers build products that have less potential to inflict harm on users". (Art 4)

The existential presupposition is represented through the definite article to assume the existence of the danger of technology and encourage the engineers to design beneficial platforms rather than addictive ones.

> 14. "**The Truth** About Tech campaign is aiming to educate people about the methods these companies use to get users hooked, and will provide practical advice to help them fight back". (Art 4)

The definite article "the" denotes the existential presupposition, which is intended to presume the truth of dangerous addictive designs and convince readers to use these platforms with greater awareness.

15. “The Truth About Tech campaign has been **launched** by the Common Sense and Center for Humane Technology organisations”. (Art 4)

The change of the state verb “launched”, logically presupposes the beginning of awareness of the harm that excessive use of technology causes.

16. “**Their business** models often encourage them to do whatever they can to grab attention and data and then to worry about the consequences later”. (Art 4)

The possessive pronoun “their” expresses the logical assumption that it is true that these firms' policy is to encourage constant use of their platforms through addictive designs.

17. “Obsessive video-game playing **recognised** as mental health problem”. (Art 5)

The factive verb “recognised” refers to the logical assumption that excessive gaming has the same negative effects on the brain as other mental health problems.

18. “That means that the NHS must offer treatment, for instance, and may spur new research”. (Art 5)

The Implicature is triggered by the violation of quantity maxim to imply that the information is not adequate and elaborate the abbreviation NHS to convince the readers to read more about NHS and gaming disorder.

19. “**It's a condition** warranting more clinical research and experience before it might be considered for inclusion” in its own diagnostic manual”. (Art 5)

The cleft sentence triggers the logical presupposition to assume the veracity that gaming disorder needs more attention from experts.

20. “**The group** noted that much of the scientific literature about compulsive gamers is based on evidence from young men in Asia”. (Art 5)

The existential presupposition is denoted through the definite article “the” to assume the existence of this group and encourage others to research more about the effect of excessive gaming.

4.2.2.7 Negating

This textual-conceptual tool is used to create a mental image of both the positive and the negative propositions. Thus, negating can promote ideological effects if the text producer is attempting to influence the readers.

> 1. “Her comments follow news that children as young as 13 are being treated for digital technology – with a third of British children aged 12-15 admitting they **do not** have a good balance between screen time and other activities”. (Art 1)

The syntactic negation is used to draw in the receptors’ minds the reality that teenagers and children's ability to regulate their time is negatively impacted by smartphones.

> 2. “But I **don’t** think it’s **impossible** to intervene”. (Art 1)

The syntactic and morphological negation is used to draw in the readers’ minds the reality that the opportunity is still there to monitor and increase their children’s awareness of negative effects of smartphones’ excessive using

> 3. “If you catch [addiction] early enough, you can teach children how to self-regulate, so we’**re not** policing them and telling them exactly what to do,” she added”. (Art 1)

The syntactic negation is used to draw in the readers’ minds the reality that the best way to deal with children’s smartphone use is to teach them how to regulate their using

> 4. “An estimated 5 to 10 percent of internet users are thought to be addicted – meaning they are **unable** to control their use”. (Art 2)

The morphological negation is represented through the addition of the prefix “un” to the adjective “unable” to draw the readers’ attention to the dangers of the compulsive use of internet.

> 5. “Although most of the population was spending longer online, that **was not** evidence of addiction, she said”. (Art 2)

The syntactic negation illustrates the reality that spending long time online is different from compulsive use of internet. Therefore, people should be conscious of how much time they spend online.

6. “It was the same the previous night, and they tried to stop but they **couldn't** – you know they have a problem”. (Art 2)

The use of the syntactic negation draws the reader's attention to the possibility that gaming could develop into an abnormal behaviour that requires treatment.

7. “The authors acknowledge that they **cannot** tell whether the brain changes are the cause or the consequence of the internet addiction”. (Art 2)

The writer utilises the syntactic negation to highlight the difficulty of delimiting the brain changes that are caused by internet addiction.

8. “A spokesperson for Snap said: “While we **can't** comment on active litigation, our hearts go out to any family who has lost a loved one to suicide”. (Art 3)

The syntactic negation is used to draw in the readers’ mind the rightness of this litigation against the addictive design of platforms.

9. “**Nothing** is more important than the safety and wellbeing of our community and we are constantly exploring additional ways we can support Snapchatters”. (Art 3)

The semantic negation is utilised by the spokesperson of snap to convince people to believe that the aim of this company is to benefit people.

10. “Tech companies are conducting a massive, real-time experiment on our kids, and, at present, **no** one is really holding them accountable”. (Art 4)

The syntactic negation is used to draw in the people’s minds the necessity to control and monitor the work of these companies.

11. “The scourge of gaming addiction **is not** only damaging those who show signs of it but tearing entire families apart, experts have warned”. (Art 5)

The syntactic negation is utilised to highlight the fact that gaming addiction could damage the entire family.

> 12. “Dr. Joan Harvey, a spokeswoman for the British Psychological Society, warned that the new designation might cause **unnecessary** concern among parents”. (Art 5)

To encourage parents to become more conscious of gaming addiction rather than worry. The prefix “un” is added to the adjective “unnecessary,” which represents the morphological negation.

> 13. “People need to understand this **doesn't** mean every child who spends hours in their room playing games is an addict”. (Art 5)

The syntactic negation emphasises the necessity to increase the awareness of what gaming disorder is among parents.

> 14. “Others welcomed WHO's new classification, saying it was critical to identify people hooked on video games quickly because they are usually teenagers or young adults who **don't** seek help themselves”. (Art 5)

Teenagers need parental support and direction because they are immature about the negative effects of excessive gaming, as shown by the syntactic negation.

4.2.2.8 Hypothesising

This textual-conceptual tool explores how modality affects the ideology of text by considering the hypothetical situation that modality produces.

> 1. “Time spent messaging friends on Snapchat and Instagram **can** be just as dangerously addictive for teenagers as drugs and alcohol, and **should** be treated as such, school leaders and teachers were told at an education conference in London”. (Art 1)

The hypothesising process is proposed through the epistemic modal auxiliary verb “can” and deontic auxiliary verb “should” to express the certainty that the harmful effect of social media platform should be treated as drug to decrease these harmful effects.

2. “If you catch [addiction] early enough, you **can** teach children how to self-regulate, so we’re not policing them and telling them exactly what to do,” she added”. (Art 1)

The modal auxiliary verb “can” denotes the epistemic modality to reveal the certainty that we can convince children to decrease their use of social media platforms.

3. “What we’re saying is, here’s the quiet carriage time, here’s the free time – now you **must** learn to self-regulate”. (Art 1)

The deontic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “must” to reveal the obligation of control and moderation of social media using.

4. “The finding **could** throw light on other behavioural problems and lead to the development of new approaches to treatment, researchers said”. (Art 2)

The epistemic modality is triggered through the modal auxiliary “can” to express the likelihood that internet addiction needs more research.

5. “It was the same the previous night, and they tried to stop but they **couldn't** – you know they have a problem”. (Art 2)

The modal auxiliary “couldn’t” signifies the epistemic modality to reveal the likelihood that gaming disorder is an abnormal behaviour that requirs treatment.

6. “It **could** be that young people with the brain changes observed are more prone to becoming addicted”. (Art 2)

The modal auxiliary verb “could” indicates the epistemic modality to convey the possibility that young people are more prone to be addicts.

7. “A spokesperson for Snap said: “While we **can't** comment on active litigation, our hearts go out to any family who has lost a loved one to suicide”. (Art 3)

The epistemic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “can” to express the certainty that the litigation is legitimate,

8. “They **will** also warn people about the dangers of technology, and help engineers build products that have less potential to inflict harm on users”. (Art 4)

The modal auxiliary verb “will” signifies the epistemic modality to illustrate the certainty that this group offers help for people and raises their awareness of the harmful effects of the excessive use of digital technology.

9. “We **need** to improve our lives as quickly as possible, instead of just sucking us in for as long as possible”. (Art 4)

The deontic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary verb “need” to highlight the necessity for useful platforms rather than addictive ones.

10. “They **can** still have an enormous amount of power over you”. (Art 4)

The epistemic modality is represented through the modal auxiliary verb “can” to reveal the certainty that social media companies manipulate people to use their platforms constantly.

11. “Mr Harris and Mr Steyer will catalogue the various tech industry techniques that **can** be used to addict and distract young minds at an event in Washington, DC, this week”. (Art 4)

The epistemic modality is denoted through the modal auxiliary “can” to convey the likelihood of the harmful consequences of digital technologies.

12. “Obsessively playing video games **could** be the sign of a serious mental health issue, officials have said”. (Art 5)

The use of epistemic modal auxiliary “could” is to describe the constantly playing as a mental disorder that harms the players.

13. “Dr. Shekhar Saxena, director of the WHO's department for mental health and substance abuse, said the agency accepted the proposal that gaming disorder **should** be listed as a new problem based on scientific evidence”. (Art 5)

The deontic modal auxiliary verb “should” is utilised to express the obligation of considering gaming as a mental disorder.

14. “The new classification **would** help legitimize the problem and strengthen treatment strategies”. (Art 5)

The boulomaic modal auxiliary verb “would” is used to express the writer’s desire to take gaming disorder seriously, treat the patients, and do further research about it.

15. “Then you **need** to be cautious and **perhaps** seek help,” he said”. (Art 5)

The deontic modal auxiliary verb “need” and the epistemic modal adverb “perhaps” is used to convey the necessity to raise our awareness of gaming disorder.

4.2.2.9 Presenting Others’ Speech and Thought

This textual-conceptual function is concerned with how the speakers/writers use the power of language to quote others’ speech and thoughts that might potentially involve manipulation to highlighting certain ideological.

1. “I always say to people, when you’re giving your kid a tablet or a phone, you’re really giving them a bottle of wine or a gram of coke,” she said”. (Art 1)

The writer adopts direct speech in presenting the expert Harley Street’s speech to express the faithfulness of what she has concerning the risk of digital devices on children.

2. “So many of my clients are 13 and 14-year-old-girls who are involved in sexting, and describe sexting as ‘completely normal’,” said Ms Saligari”. (Art 1)

Direct speech is adopted in presenting Ms Saligari’s speech to convey the truthfulness of what she states regarding the teenagers’ negative change of their ethical beliefs.

3. “If children are taught self-respect they are less likely to exploit themselves in that way,” said Ms Saligari”. (Art 1)

The writer adopts direct speech in presenting Ms Saligari’s speech to convey the truthfulness in what Ms Saligari states regarding the significance of teaching children self-respect when they are using digital technology.

4. “With sixth formers and teenagers, you’re going to get resistance, because to them it’s like a third hand,” said Ms Saligari”. (Art 1)

Direct speech is used by the writer to express the truthfulness in what Ms Saligari states regarding the strong dependency of young generation on smartphones.

5. “The finding could throw light on other behavioural problems and lead to the development of new approaches to treatment, **researchers said**”. (Art 2)

The narrator's report of speech is used to convince the readers that the problem exists.

6. Henrietta Bowden Jones, consultant psychiatrist at Imperial College, London, who runs Britain's only NHS clinic for internet addicts and problem gamblers, said: “The majority of people we see with serious internet addiction are gamers – people who spend long hours in roles in various games that cause them to disregard their obligations”. (Art 2)

To convince the readers to believe that gaming addiction affects all aspects of the gamers’ life, direct speech is used in presenting Jones’ speech.

7. “She said, “it is different. We are doing it because modern life requires us to link up over the net in regard to jobs, professional and social connections – but not in an obsessive way’. (Art 2)

The writer adopts direct speech in presenting Jones’ speech to convey the faithfulness in what she states regarding the dependence of modern life on the internet but she warns from the obsessive using.

8. “Professor Michael Farrell, director of the National Drug and Alcohol Research Centre, University of New South Wales, Australia, said: “The limitations [of this study] are that it is not controlled, and it's possible that illicit drugs, alcohol or other caffeine-based stimulants might account for the changes. The specificity of 'internet addiction disorder' is also questionable”. (Art 2)

Direct speech is adopted by the writer to express the truthfulness in what Professor Michael states about the effect of addiction on brain.

9. “Congressional testimony has shown that both Meta Platforms and Snapchat were aware of the addictive nature of their products and failed to protect minors in the name of more clicks and additional revenue,” said Matthew P Bergman, the firm's founder”. (Art 3)

To convince the readers to believe that social media companies' designs are purposefully addictive and affect minors’ brain, the writer uses direct speech in presenting what the firm’s founder states.

10. “A spokesperson for Meta, which owns Facebook and Instagram, **declined** to comment directly on the lawsuit, but outlined a range of steps the company has taken to safeguard users' mental health”. (Art 3)

To demonstrate the response that Meta companies make, the writer uses the narrator's report of speech act.

11. “A spokesperson for Snap said: “While we can't comment on active litigation, our hearts go out to any family who has lost a loved one to suicide”. (Art 3)

Direct speech is adopted by the writer in presenting spokesperson’s speech to convey the truthfulness in what the spokesperson states regarding the litigation against the snapchat

12. “For the death by suicide of Christopher J Dawley, caused by his addictive use of defendants’ unreasonably dangerous and defective social media products,” the lawsuit says”. (Art 3)

Direct speech is adopted to express the faithfulness in what the lawsuit states regarding Dawley’s death.

13. “The most powerful tech companies in the world are making deliberate decisions that do great harm,” said Tristan Harris, an ex-Google employee, who is part of the campaign”. (Art 4)

To convince the readers to believe the harmful effects of social media platforms, the writer adopts direct speech in presenting Harris’ speech.

14. “Around the same time, the person who invented the Like button, Justin Rosenstein, the first president of Facebook, Sean Parker, and a former executive for the social network, Chamath Palihapitiya, also fiercely **criticised** the company“. (Art 4)

By using narrator’s report of speech act, the writer presents the opinion of the companies’ employees to urge the readers believing the negative effects of social media platforms.

15. “Tech companies are conducting a massive, real-time experiment on our kids, and, at present, no one is really holding them accountable,” said James P Steyer, the CEO of Common Sense”. (Art 4)

Direct speech is adopted to express the faithfulness in what Steyer states regarding the lack of awareness of the harmful effects of technology on children.

16. “Obsessively playing video games could be the sign of a serious mental health issue, officials have said”. (Art 5)

The writer employs narrator’s report of speech, which is less faithfulness than direct speech to present official states regarding the dangers of obsessive gaming.

17. “People need to understand this doesn't mean every child who spends hours in their room playing games is an addict, otherwise medics are going to be flooded with requests for help,” she said”. (Art 5)

The writer quotes Dr Shekar Saxena’s speech directly to convince the readers to increase their information about gaming disorder.

18. “Video gaming is like a non-financial kind of gambling from a psychological point of view,” said Griffiths, a distinguished professor of behavioral addiction at Nottingham Trent University”.

The writer quotes professor Griffiths’ speech directly to clarify that gaming could be turn into be addiction like other behavioural addictions.

19. “We come across parents who are distraught, not only because they're seeing their child drop out of school, but because they're seeing an entire family structure fall apart,”

said Dr. Henrietta Bowden-Jones, a spokeswoman for behavioral addictions at Britain's Royal College of Psychiatrists". (Art 5)

The writer quotes Dr Henrietta Bowden-Jones' speech directly to convince the readers that gaming disorder negatively influences the entire family.

4.2.2.10 Representing Time, Space, and Society

This textual-conceptual tool explores how the linguistic realisation of space, time, and society may be ideological by mentally directing the hearers or readers to a deictic centre that represents the writer's point of view.

1. "Are **you** really going to leave them to knock the whole thing out on their own behind closed doors?" (Art 1)

The writer addresses the readers by utilising the personal deictic pronoun "you" to encourage them monitor their children's using of social media platforms.

2. "**Ms** Saligari, who **heads** the Harley Street Charter clinic in London, said around two thirds of her patients were 16-20 year-olds seeking treatment for addiction – a "dramatic increase" on ten years ago - but many of her patients were even younger". (Art 1)

Saligari is referred to as an important person and a reliable source of information using the social deictic "Ms."

3. "**Dr** Richard Graham, a Consultant Psychiatrist at the Nightingale Hospital Technology Addiction Lead, said the issue was a growing area of interest for researchers". (Art 1)

The social deictic "Dr" is utilised to convince the readers that Richard Graham is an important person and his information is so reliable concerning internet addiction.

4. "What we're saying is, **here's** the quiet carriage time, here's the free time – **now** you must learn to self-regulate". (Art 1)

The writer uses place deictic "here" and time deictic "now" to encourage the readers immediately learn self-regulate when they are using internet.

5. “**We** are doing it because modern life requires us to link up over the net in regard to jobs, professional and social connections – but not in an obsessive way”. (Art 2)

The personal deictic “we” is used to represent a sense of in-groupness, in which internet becomes one of the essential thing in our life but users should be aware of the risks associated with compulsive uses.

6. “**You** know they have a problem”. (Art 2)

The writer addresses the readers by utilising the personal deictic “you” to warn them that obsessive use of internet is harmful.

7. “**Professor** Michael Farrell, director of the National Drug and Alcohol Research Centre, University of New South Wales, Australia”. (Art 2)

Michael Farrell is referred to as a “Prof” to express to the readers that he is an expert and his information is trustworthy.

8. “The toddler weighed just 23lbs when **she** was finally rushed to hospital after her mother found her limp and unconscious”. (Art 2)

The personal deictic “he” is used to refer to the other persons who are affected by gaming's negative effects in addition to the addict.

9. “Congressional testimony has shown that both Meta Platforms and Snapchat were aware of the addictive nature of their products and failed to protect minors in the name of more clicks and additional revenue,” said **Matthew P Bergman, the firm's founder**”. (Art 3)

Mathew P. Bergman's leadership is characterised by the social deictic “the firm founder,” which convinces the audience to trust his information.

10. “**We** are calling on the parent companies of Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat to prioritize the health and wellness of its users”. (Art 3)

The personal deictic “we” is utilised to signify a sense of in-groupness, in which the writer convinces the readers and experts to force social media companies to reduce their addictive designs.

11. “**We** intentionally built Snapchat differently than traditional social media platforms to be a place for people to connect with their real friends”. (Art 3)

The personal deictic “we” is utilised to represent a sense of in-groupness to manipulate people that this companies want people benefit.

12. “**He** “never left his smartphone”, which he was allegedly still holding when his body was found”. (Art 3)

The author employs personal deictic to suggest otherness in his description of the patient's obsessive use of social media platforms and the terrible consequences of the obsessive use.

13. “The most powerful tech companies in the world are making deliberate decisions that do great harm,” said **Tristan Harris, an ex-Google employee**, who is part of the campaign”. (Art 4)

Harris is characterised by the social deictic “ex-Google employee” as a technology specialist who is familiar with the decisions made by technology companies.

14. “**They**’ve created the attention economy and are **now** engaged in a full-blown arms race to capture and retain human attention, including the attention of kids”. (Art 4)

The pronouns “they” and “now” are used to refer to the group and its current efforts to educate people about the dangers of compulsive usage of digital technology.

15. “Around the same time, the person who invented the Like button, Justin Rosenstein, the first **president** of Facebook, Sean Parker, and a **former executive** for the social network, Chamath Palihapitiya, also fiercely criticised the company“. (Art 4)

By using the social deictic, the writer presents the opinions of employees in social media companies to convince the readers about the negative influence of these platforms.

16. “They can still have an enormous amount of power over **you**”. (Art 4)

The writer utilises the personal deictic to address the readers that social media companies manipulate them.

> 17. “Playing them compulsively **now** qualifies as an official mental health condition, according to the World Health Organisation”. (Art 5)

By using time deictic, the writer states that at present time compulsive gaming could be as dangerously as other mental health conditions and needs treatment.

> 18. “**Dr**. Shekhar Saxena, director of the WHO's department for mental health and substance abuse, said the agency accepted the proposal that gaming disorder should be listed as a new problem based on scientific evidence”. (Art 5)

To persuade the readers that Shekhar Saxena is a significant figure and that his information is reliable, the social deictic “Dr” is used.

> 19. “**We** come across parents who are distraught, not only because they're seeing their child drop out of school, but because they're seeing an entire family structure fall apart,” said **Dr**. Henrietta Bowden-Jones”. (Art 5)

By using personal deictic and social deictic, the writer illustrates that an expert emphasises that gaming negatively affects an entire family not only the player.

> 20. “**Dr**. Mark Griffiths, who has been researching the concept of video gaming disorder for 30 years, said the new classification would help legitimize the problem and strengthen treatment strategies”. (Art 5)

By using social deictic, the writer describes Mark Griffiths as an expert and his information about addiction is so reliable.

4.3 The Quantitative Analysis

After qualitatively analysing the data and applying the adopting model, the frequency and percentage of occurrences for each textual-conceptual tool are calculated by using the following formula to support the findings of the qualitative analysis and to confirm or refute the hypotheses in Chapter One:

$$\text{Percentage of occurrence} = \frac{\text{Number of occurrence}}{\text{Total number of strategies or devices}} \times 100$$

4.3.1 Discussion of Results and Comparison

Tables 5 and 6 display the results of the quantitative analysis of the textual-conceptual tools in both newspapers supporting the qualitative analysis.

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages of Textual-conceptual Tools in Guardian's Articles

No.	Critical Stylistic Tools	Fr.	Pr.
1	Naming and Describing	162	21.07%
2	Representing Actions/ Events/ States	147	19.12%
3	Implying and Assuming	85	11.05%
4	Representing Time, space, and society	80	10.40%
5	Prioritizing	69	8.97%
6	Equating and Contrasting	53	6.89%
7	Presenting Others' Speech and Thoughts	53	6.89%
8	Hypothesising	49	6.38%
9	Negating	46	5.98%
10	Enumerating and Exemplifying	25	3.25%
Total		769l	100.00%

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentages of Textual-conceptual Tools in Independent's Articles

No.	Critical Stylistic Tools	Fr.	Pr.
1	Representing Actions/ Events/ States	129	23.88%
2	Naming and Describing	128	23.70%
3	Representing Time, Space, and Society	54	10 %
4	Prioritising	45	8.34%
5	Equating and Contrasting	43	7.98%
6	Implying and Assuming	41	7.59%
7	Presenting Others' Speech and Thoughts	29	5.38%
8	Hypothesising	26	4.81%
9	Enumerating and Exemplifying	23	4.25%
10	Negating	22	4.07%
Total		540	100.00%

Notably, the textual-conceptual tools are arranged from the highest range to the lowest one in the Guardian's articles and in comparison with the Independent's articles.

4.3.1.1 Naming and Describing

It is found that the tool of naming and describing is implemented extensively in Guardian's articles and occupies the highest rate as it occurs for 162 times (21.07%) in reflecting the ideologies of digital addiction. In contrast, it occupies the second highest rate of 128 times (23.70%) in Independent's articles.

In Guardian's articles, this tool reflects negative ideologies regarding the concept of digital addiction through the choice of noun, modification, and nominalisation; such as that, obsessive use of digital technologies makes people dopamine addicts, that suffer from repetitive, compulsive behaviours that are difficult to control and lead to an unhealthy pattern of thinking and behaving like drugs and other types of substance addiction. Moreover, socially, the excessive use of digital devices affects people's actual interaction and relationships with their families and friends negatively because people become more interested in the unreal digital world and ignore their loved ones. Emotionally and psychologically, digital technologies especially excessive gaming, affect people especially children and teenagers by changing their moods and thinking. Finally, the writers illustrate

through naming and describing how digital technologies can manipulate all generations negatively and convince the readers to moderate their use and loved ones' use in order to avoid negative consequences. Moreover, they convince the readers to experience digital detoxes, which means timeout from using digital devices, social media platforms, and games.

It is found that the similarities between the Guardian and Independent in using the tool of naming and describing are that both newspapers convey the idea that digital addiction like other substance addiction affects peoples' mood, thinking, and behaviour especially digital games. Therefore, this tool is used to show the harmful effects of digital addiction as well as to convince people to moderate their use in order to avoid negative effects.

Meanwhile, this tool is used in the Independent's articles to convince readers to moderate their use by stating how experts argue people to prohibit children and teenagers, especially girls from exposition to inappropriate content that normalises sexual violence, pornography, and cyberbullying since they affect their mental health. Similarly, it is utilised to convince readers that the employees in tech companies design these digital platforms intentionally with addictive properties to stimulate people to use them constantly to increase their financial profits. Digital technology companies' products, especially gaming emotionally, and psychologically manipulate people by influencing their attitudes and behaviours, especially children and teenagers; therefore, they impact the entire society.

4.3.1.2 Representing Actions/events/states

It is found that the tool of representing actions/events/states is employed extensively in Guardian's articles and occupies the second highest rate of 147

times (19.12%). Whereas, this tool occupies the highest rate reaching 129 times (23.88%) in the Independent's articles.

The ideological effect of this tool in Guardian's articles is to represent digital addiction through the choices of verbal processes. The writers represent digital devices as powerful products that can turn people into addicts like drug addicts and reduce their creativity. They reveal that the awareness of the negative influence of excessive use of social media platforms is not enough and imply that people's emotions, relationships, and work depend on digital devices. They state that experts warn of internet addiction to family members and convince readers to protect their children from the harmful consequences of excessive use. Likewise, they encourage opening internet addiction centres for treating patients, especially gaming disorder patients.

It is found that the similarities between the Guardian and Independent's articles in using the tool of representing actions/events/states is that both newspapers reveal that digital devices could turn people into addicts like drug addicts. Thus, it is used to highlight that awareness is not enough about the negative effects of digital addiction. Likewise, it is utilised to encourage parents to protect children and teenagers since they are immature.

Meanwhile, this tool is used in the Independent's articles to represent the negative change that digital devices caused to children and teenagers' ethical values and behaviours. Likewise, it is utilised to highlight the confession of Facebook that social media platforms have addictive harmful effects but these effects depend on how people use these platforms.

4.3.1.3 Implying and Assuming

The tool of implying and assuming is utilised in the Guardian's articles in the amount of 85 times (11.05%). In contrast, this tool is utilised in the Independent's articles for 41 times (7.59%).

This tool is used in Guardian's articles to reflect the ideologies implicitly assuming and implying information concerning digital addiction. It attracts the readers' attention to the fact that digital addiction is a global phenomenon and its harmful effect exists. The platforms are unsafe and affect people's lives, especially their social life. Therefore, people ought to be more aware of their effects and moderate their children's use.

This tool is employed in both newspapers to assume the existence of harmful influences of digital addiction as a global phenomenon and implies the need for more awareness. However, this tool is used in Independent's articles mainly to assume that certain unpleasant circumstances lead people to be digital addicts since they believe that would assist them and implies the responsibilities of families to take care of their members. Hence, people should be more careful since platforms manipulate them by bringing their favourite content to encourage them to use these platforms constantly.

4.3.1.4 Representing Time, Space, and Society

This tool of representing time, space, and society is implemented in Guardian's articles for 80 times (10.40%) which occupies the fourth higher rank. Whereas, this tool is implemented in the Independent's articles for 54 times (10 %) and thus occupies the third higher used rank.

This tool is used in both newspaper articles to reveal certain ideologies linked to time, place and society. It is used in both newspapers to represent digital addiction

as a global problem that could affect all people everywhere in the modern-day and require a solution.

4.3.1.5 Prioritising

It is found that this tool is used in Guardian's articles for 69 times (8.97%) whilst it is used in the Independent's articles for 45 times (8.34%).

In Guardian's articles, this tool is used ideologically to attract readers' attention to the information that gains priority through changing the structure. It prioritises spending time on digital companions. It also emphasises the fact that the digital world is different from the real world because it may contain fake news, encouraging bias, affecting the privacy of homes, and increasing bullying among people, especially students. Moreover, it prioritises the obligation of taking the harm of digital companions more seriously especially gaming since it is classified as a disorder.

This tool is implemented in both newspaper articles to prioritise the necessity of taking the harmful effects of digital addiction more seriously in order to find treatment.

Meanwhile, this tool is used in the articles of the Independent mainly to refer to the fact that children's exposition to inappropriate content influences their mental health. it prompts the actual interaction rather than online interaction. Furthermore, it prioritises psychological treatment for patients rather than medicines because it is useful to understand patients' thoughts and problems.

4.3.1.6 Equating and Contrasting

The tool of equating and contrasting is used in Guardian's articles for 53 times (6.89%). On the contrary, it is used in the Independent's articles for 43 times (7.98%).

Ideologically it helps the readers to comprehend the articles by presenting digital addiction and its types in relationship with other concepts. The writers of Guardian's articles adopt the experts' words/speech equating to convince the readers that the harmful effects of excessive use of digital technologies are like the harmful effects of drugs, alcohol and other substance addiction. Oppositional meaning evokes in the readers' minds the fact that behaviour addiction does not run out and is always available, unlike substance addiction. The writers highlight that the advantages and disadvantages of digital devices depend on how people use them.

It is found that this tool is employed in both newspaper articles to convey the idea that digital addiction is as dangerous as drugs. It is used to pay the readers' attention that the advantages and disadvantages depending on people's way of use. Meanwhile, it is used to illustrate that employees of tech companies often agree that digital media, platforms, and particularly games have negative effects. Therefore, mothers must keep an eye on their children and teenagers' use because it impairs their capacity to think clearly, control their emotions, and behave appropriately.

4.3.1.7 Presenting Others' Speech and Thoughts

It is found that this tool is employed in Guardian's articles for 53 times (6.89%) whereas, it is used in the Independent's articles 29 times (5.38%)

It is noteworthy to mention that presenting others' speech is used 52 times while presenting others' thoughts is used 1 time in Guardian's article. In Independent's articles, only others' speech is presented. Ideologically, this tool is employed in both newspaper articles to express the faithfulness of what is stated and convince

the readers to believe by adopting heavily the direct speech of doctors and experts regarding the negative influence of digital addiction.

4.3.1.8 Hypothesising

It is revealed that this tool is employed in Guardian's articles for 49 times (6.38%) whereas, it is employed in the Independent's articles for 26 times (4.81%).

Ideologically, it reveals the hypothetical reality of digital addiction. It is used in Guardian's articles to draw readers' attention to the certainty that excessive use of digital devices influences people's capacity of dealing with real life, responsibilities, and relief at their homes. It is used to convince the readers about the necessity of increasing their awareness of the risk of digital companions, especially gaming disorder.

This tool is implemented in both newspaper articles to draw readers' attention to the necessity of raising awareness of the fact that people's thoughts, moods, and behaviours are certainly impacted by digital addiction. However, it is used in Independent's articles to express the necessity for additional research on digital addiction and its detrimental impacts. Therefore, it is used to convey the desire of writers to take digital addiction more seriously and increase awareness of its effects.

4.3.1.9 Negating

This tool is implemented in Guardian's articles for 46 times (5.98%). However, it occupies the lowest rate in the Independent's articles achieving only 22 times (4.07%).

Ideologically, it reveals the negative reality of digital addiction. It is used in Guardian's articles to draw in the readers' minds the reality that life requires effort and is not enjoyable as shown in the indefatigable digital world. Besides, the

digital world contains unsuitable contents that influence people's thinking especially children and governments usually fail to control these contents. Thus, the experts are urged to take digital addiction more seriously in order to find effective guidance for addicts.

It is utilised in both newspaper articles to draw readers' attention to the reality that digital addiction, particularly, gaming not only affects the addicts but their entire families. Meanwhile, it is used in Independent's articles to highlight the reality that self-regulate is a better way of dealing with digital companions.

4.3.1.10 Enumerating and Exemplifying

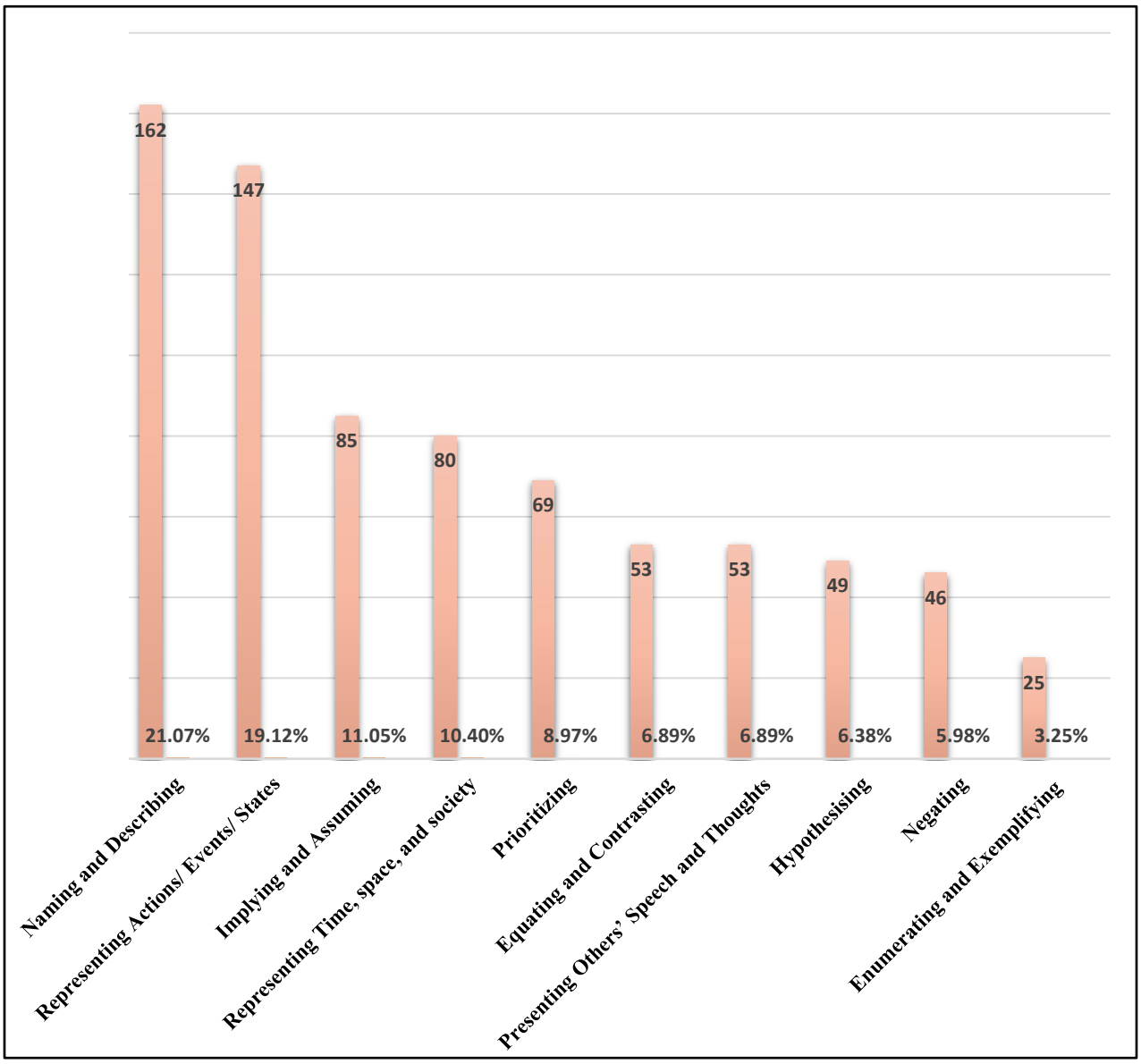
This tool occupies the lowest rate since it occurs for only 25 times (3.25%) in Guardian's articles. Whereas, it occupies before the last rank achieving 23 times (4.25%) in the Independent's articles

Ideologically, it operates on the matter of completeness and comprehensiveness. Therefore, in Guardian's articles, readers are prompted to pay more attention to the negative impact of digital technologies in all aspects of their life and be aware of the tech companies' manipulation to encourage them to use their products constantly. Likewise, the readers are prompted to think about the activities that help them and other people moderate their excessive use and dependency on digital technologies. Furthermore, encouraging patients to get treatment and emphasising the need for highly good qualifications for the healers.

This tool is employed in both newspaper articles to urge readers to think about the effects that digital addiction causes and prompt them to think about activities that can moderate their use and other people's use. However, it is used to attract the readers' attention to the circumstances that lead people to be digital addicts and highlights the responsibility of tech companies to design useful products rather than addictive ones.

The results of analysis are further clarified in the following figures:

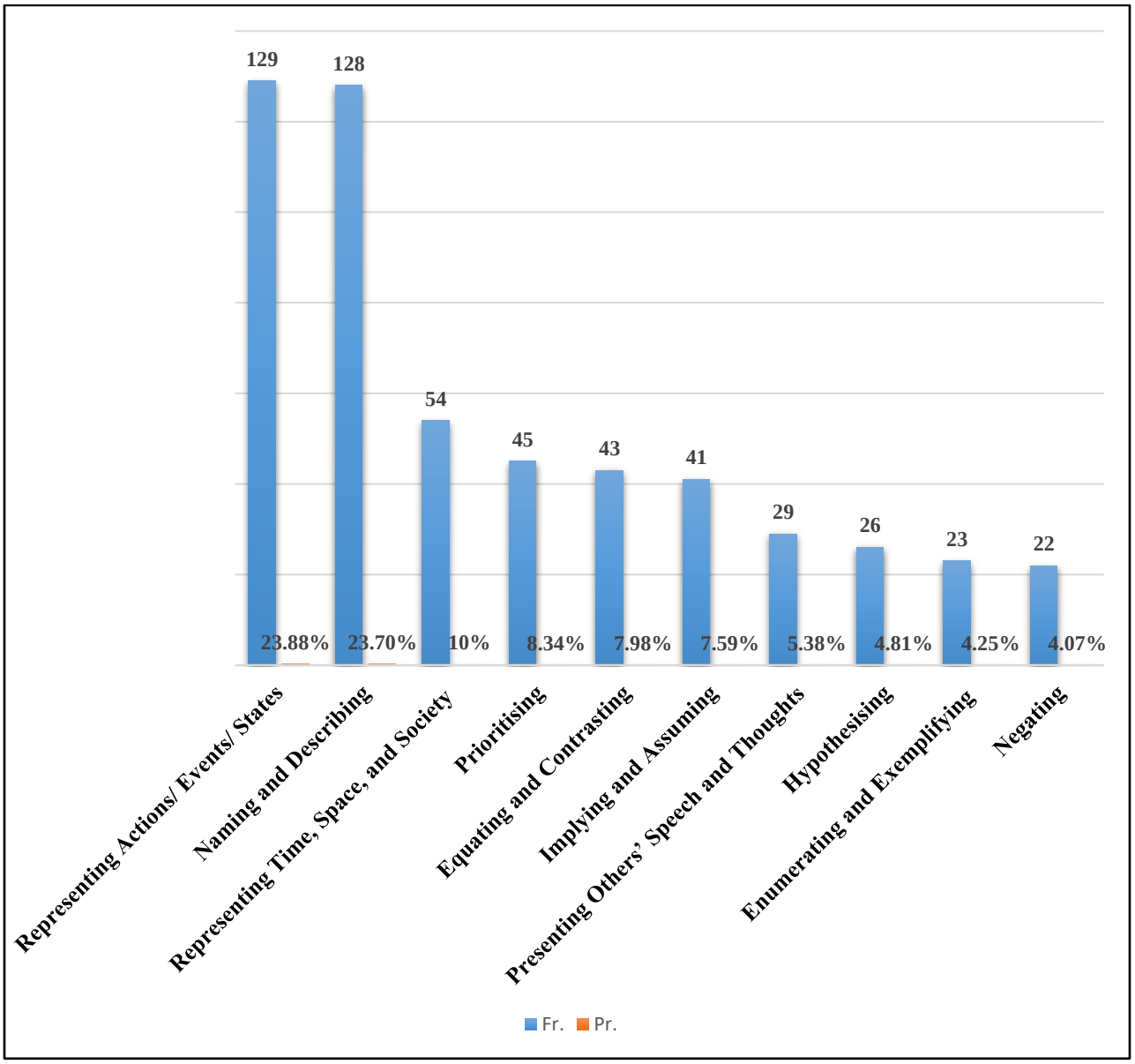
Figure (3)



Frequencies and Percentages of Textual-conceptual Tools in Guardian's Articles

Figure (4)

Frequencies and Percentages of Textual-conceptual Tools in Independent's Articles



CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

5.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter comprises three sections. The first section is dedicated to the conclusions of the findings arrived at in the analysis of the selected data. The second is devoted to present some recommendations based on the results of the analysis. The third one presents certain suggestions for further studies

5.1 Conclusions

The following conclusions are arrived at as a result of the qualitative and quantitative analyses of the study:

1. The current study shows that all ten textual-conceptual tools of analysis proposed by Jeffries' model of CS are used in the selected articles with little variation of use among tools; some tools are utilised in a higher range than others. Accordingly, the first hypothesis of the study which reads "All ten critical stylistic tools are applicable to the selected articles under scrutiny" has been confirmed.

2. The analysis shows that there are differences and similarities as follows:

   i- Similarities

   The analysis shows that there are similarities in using the ten tools in reflecting the ideologies of digital addiction between Guardian and Independent newspapers. Such as that; first, both newspapers employ excessively naming and describing, and representing actions/events/states

while the lowest tools are enumerating and exemplifying, and negating. Second, both newspapers prefer presenting others' speeches directly to reflect the faithfulness of what they present and do not rely on presenting others' thoughts. Third, both newspapers employ the tool of representing time, space, and society with the same percentage of 10% to reflect the same ideologies that digital addiction is a global problem in the modern-day.

ii- Differences

There are some differences in using the ten tools between Guardian and Independent newspapers. Such as that, Guardian's articles implemented extensively the tool of naming and describing which occupies the highest rate in reflecting the ideologies of digital addiction while the tool of enumerating and exemplifying occupies the lowest rate. Independent articles employ excessively the tool of representing actions/ events/states which occupies the highest rate of 23.80% in representing the ideologies of digital addiction while the tool of negating occupies the lowest rate of occurrence. Therefore, the second hypothesis of the study which reads "There are differences in using ten critical stylistic tools between the Guardian and the Independent's articles" has been partly confirmed.

3. The underlying ideologies regarding the concept of digital addiction are negative because the articles warn of its negative effects in all aspects of life like drugs and convince the readers to increase their awareness of it. Consequently, the third hypothesis of the study reads "The selected articles embody many negative ideologies toward the concept of digital addiction" has been confirmed. The ideologies of each tools are presented as follows:

(i) The tool of naming and describing is used extensively in both newspapers to reflect the ideologies that the effects of digital addiction are like other substance addiction, convincing the readers to increase their awareness and moderate their use. However, this tool is used in Guardian articles to pay the readers' attention to the negative effects of the excessive use of digital companions in all aspects of life, especially social life. In contrast, this tool is used in the articles of Independent to draw the readers' attention more to the dangers of exposure to inappropriate content on people's mental health, especially children and teenagers, and the admitting of tech companies employees that platforms intentionally are designed with addictive properties.

(ii) The tool of representing actions/events/ states is employed widely in both newspapers to attract the readers' attention to the powerful effects of excessive use of digital technologies that can turn people into addicts. Nevertheless, this tool is used in Guardian articles to present digital companions as powerful products that affect people's emotions, relationships, and work. However, this tool is used in Independent articles to represent the negative changes that excessive use of digital companions causes to children and teenagers' ethical values and behaviours.

(iii) The tool of equating and contrasting is employed in both newspapers to convey the idea that digital addiction is as dangerous as drugs. It attracts the readers' attention to the fact that the advantages and disadvantages of digital companions depend on people's way of use. Yet, this tool is utilised in Guardian articles to illustrate that digital addiction does not run out like substance addiction and is always available. However, this tool is utilised in Independent articles to illustrate that the

employees of tech companies agree that excessive use of digital media, platforms, and particularly gaming influences people's mental health, especially children.

(iv) The tool of enumerating and exemplifying is used in both newspapers to prompt the readers to think about the effects of digital addiction and about the activities that can help them to moderate their use. Yet, this tool is implemented in Guardian articles to draw the readers' attention to the negative influences of digital addiction and the need for good qualifications of healers. In Independent articles, this tool is implemented to attract the readers' attention to the circumstances that lead people to be addicts and highlight the responsibility of tech companies to design useful products rather than addictive ones.

(v) The tool of prioritising is implemented in both newspapers to prioritise the necessity of taking the harmful effects of digital addiction more seriously. Nevertheless, in Guardian articles, this tool is used to prioritise the fact that the digital world is different from the real world and affects the privacy of homes. Nonetheless, this tool is implemented in Independent articles to prioritise the fact that children and teenagers' excessive use impacts their mental health.

(vi) The tool of implying and assuming is used in both newspapers to assume the existence of risky effects of digital addiction as a global phenomenon and implies the need for more awareness of digital addiction. In Guardian articles, this tool is used to assume that the risk of digital addiction is mainly in people's social life. Whereas, this tool is used in Independent articles to assume that certain circumstances lead

people to be digital addicts and implies the responsibility of families to take care of them, especially children.

(vii) The tool of negating is implemented in both newspapers to draw the readers' attention to the reality that the type of digital addiction, especially a game disorder, not only influences the addicts but their entire families. Nevertheless, this tool is utilised in the articles of Guardian to draw the readers' attention to the fact that life requires effort and is not as enjoyable as represented in the indefatigable digital world. In Independent articles, this tool is utilised mainly to highlight the best way of dealing with digital companions is self-regulate.

(viii) The tool of hypothesising is employed in both newspapers to attract the readers' attention to the obligation of raising awareness that digital addiction affects people's thoughts, moods, and behaviours. However, this tool is used in the Guardian articles mainly to express the certainty that digital addiction influences people's capacity of dealing with actual life, responsibly, and relief at their homes. In Independent articles, this tool is used to express the necessity of doing more research about digital addiction.

(ix) The tool of presenting others' speech and thought is implemented in the same way in both newspapers since both newspaper rely heavily on adopting others' speech directly to express the faithfulness of what is stated by others to convince the readers to believe them rather than adopting others' thoughts.

(x) The tool of representing time, space, and society is utilised in the same way in both newspapers to represent digital addiction as a global problem in the modern-day that requires a solution.

5.2 Recommendations

It is recommended that:

1. Critical stylistic analysis may have its own implications in the sense that it can lend a hand to researchers in explicating critically the ideologies of the texts.
2. People, especially parents, and teachers must take the negative effects of digital addiction more seriously and increase their children's awareness of it.
3. It is advised that social media and mass media should be used to increase people's awareness of this new type of behavioural addiction and other types of addiction.
4. IT authorities must make a control over some harmful websites.
5. It is advised that the ministry of youth and sport to activate youth centers.
6. It is advised that the ministry of culture to make book fairs, festivals and art galleries to attract the teens attention.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Study

Depending on the theoretical and practical sides of the current study, the following topics are suggested for future research:

1. A critical stylistic analysis of digital addiction in selected English and Arabic articles.

2. Addict versus non-addict of drugs in selected films: Critical stylistic analysis.

3. A pragma- rhetorical study of digital addiction in selected videos.

4. A multimodal discourse analysis of digital addiction in English and Arabic newspapers.

5. A critical pragmatic analysis of gaming disorder in selected articles.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The Articles of Guardian Newspaper

1. Article 1: Constant craving: how digital media turned us all into dopamine addicts. https://www.theguardian.com/global/2021/aug/22/how-digital-media-turned-us-all-into-dopamine-addicts-and-what-we-can-do-to-break-the-cycle (20 December, 2021)
2. Article 2: Social media addiction is not natural or normal – but is it really a disease? https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2019/mar/19/social-media-facebook-addiction-not-natural-normal-disease (21 December, 2021)
3. Article 3: Smartphone is now 'the place where we live', anthropologists say. https://amp.theguardian.com/technology/2021/may/10/smartphone-is-now-the-place-where-we-live-anthropologists-say (21 December, 2021)
4. Article 4: Children aged five and under at risk of internet addiction – Barnardo's. https://www.theguardian.com/society/2019/jun/11/children-aged-five-and-under-at-risk-of-internet-addiction-barnardos (22 December, 2021)
5. Article 5: 'He was terrified of people': when gaming becomes an addiction. https://amp.theguardian.com/technology/2018/jun/22/he-was-terrified-of-people-when-video-games-become-addictive (22 December, 2021)

Appendix B: The Articles of Independent

1. Article 1: Giving your child a smartphone is like giving them a gram of cocaine, says top addiction expert.

https://www.independent.co.uk/news/education/education-news/child-smart-phones-cocaine-addiction-expert-mandy-saligari-harley-street-charter-clinic-technology-teenagers-a7777941.html (25 December, 2021)

2. Article 2: Addicted! Scientists show how internet dependency alters the human brain. https://www.independent.co.uk/news/science/addicted-scientists-show-how-internet-dependency-alters-the-human-brain-6288344.html (26 December, 2021)
3. Article 3: Parents sue Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat claiming they caused teenage son's suicide through 'addictive design'. . https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/americas/facebook-instagram-snapchat-addiction-lawsuit-b2061330.html (27 December, 2021)
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المستخلص

الإدمان الرقمي هو نوع جديد من الإدمان السلوكي ينشأ نتيجة الاستخدام المفرط والقهري للتقنيات الرقمية الجديدة. ركز العديد من الباحثين على دراسة إدمان المواد وأنواع من الإدمان الرقمي في مجموعة متنوعة من المجالات مثل تحليل الخطاب وتحليل الخطاب النقدي وعلم اللغة النفسي. ومع ذلك، لم يتم اجراء أي دراسة لغوية حول الإدمان الرقمي كمصطلح شامل. لذاك، فإن الهدف من الدراسة الحالية هو التحقيق في الإدمان الرقمي كمصطلح شامل للأجهزة الرقمية والمنصات الرقمية والوسائط الرقمية في صحيفتين بريطانيتين واسعتي النطاق. لتحقيق هدف الدراسة الحالية، تم اعتماد نموذج جيفريز (2010) للتحليل الأسلوبي النقدي لاكتشاف الأدوات الأسلوبية الهامة (الأدوات النصية - المفاهيمية) المستخدمة والاختلاف في استخدام هذه الأدوات في مقالات الجارديان والإندبندنت لتعكس الأيديولوجيات فيما يتعلق بالإدمان الرقمي

أظهرت نتائج التحليل أن جميع الأدوات المفاهيمية النصية المستخدمه في كلتا الصحيفتين لتعكس الأيديولوجيات السلبية فيما يتعلق بالإدمان الرقمي. لقد اتضح من خلال مقالات الصحيفتين قيد الدراسة بأن الإدمان الرقمي يمثل مشكلة عالمية في العصر الحديث، وذات تأثيرات خطيرة كالمخدرات لتسليط الضوء على اخذ هذه المشكلة على محمل الجد وكذلك اقناع القراء في زيادة وعيهم حول تأثيرها بالإضافة إلى الاعتدال في استخدام للتقنيات الرقمية. في مقالات الكاردين استخدامها. تحتل تسمية ووصف أعلى معدل مع تعداد ومثل الأدنى يشغل أدنى في للكشف عن التأثير السلبي للإدمان الرقمي في جميع جوانب الحياة، وخاصة الحياة الاجتماعية. في الوقت نفسه. أما في مقالات الإندبندنت، فتشغل الإجراءات والأحداث والحالات أعلى معدل مع النفي تحقق أدنى معدل للكشف عن التغيير السلبي الذي يسببه الإدمان الرقمي في القيم الأخلاقية وسلوك الأطفال والمراهقين، وخاصة الفتيات وكذلك تسليط الضوء على اعتراف موظفي شركات التكنولوجيا الذين يطبقون عن قصد مع خصائص الإدمان

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تحليل اسلوبي نقدي للإدمان الرقمي في الصحف البريطانية

رسالة قدمت

الى مجلس كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية / جامعة كربلاء/ قسم اللغة الإنجليزية كجزء

من متطلبات نيل شهادة الماجستير في اللغة الإنجليزية وعلم اللغة

الطالبة

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