



A contrastive analysis of Filipino and American newspaper editorial headlines

John Michael B. Magtira & Alejandro S. Bernardo

Abstract

Newspaper editorials comprise a portion of media discourse deemed to be important in the field of research in both intercultural rhetoric analysis and English as a Second Language or Foreign Language studies. Thus, this study aims to explore the different kinds of textual features and rhetorical strategies employed in the editorial headlines of the American newspaper, *The New York Times* (NYT), and the Philippine newspaper, *Philippine Daily Inquirer* (PDI). The study analyzed 50 headlines culled from the electronic versions of both the NYT and the PDI. Based on Alireza and Samuel's (2012) framework, the study applied a systematic contrastive textual analysis in investigating the said headlines. The results point to the fact that differences between the two sets of headlines exist, specifically in terms of the use of presuppositions and rhetorical devices.

Keywords: Editorial, headlines, intercultural rhetoric, presupposition, rhetorical devices

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1. Introduction

Mass media mirrors how language functions as an effective way of promoting ideologies. In fact, mass media has been considered a potent tool for shaping public opinion. It disseminates information amongst audiences from various walks of life and, at the same time, persuades, influences, and educates them through its sheer convincing power (Abhijit, 2012).

Mass media could be regarded as a body of communication that stretches to the public through print, broadcast, and, more recently, through the World Wide Web. Among the prevailing print media, though, newspapers have the most number of readers because of its accessibility and wide range of contents such as news, opinions, editorials, commentaries, entertainment features, and sport news (Reah, 2002). Newspapers, in addition, have varied depictions of the same events (Ghannam, 2011), and these diverse interpretations, presentations, and representations of the same news and historical episodes have been subjects of empirical investigations and found to have been caused by different ideological interests and positioning of the writers (Weng, 1998).

van Dijk (1995) defined ideologies as:

basic frameworks of social cognition, shared by members of social groups, constituted by relevant selections of sociocultural values, and organized by an ideological schema that represents the self-definition of a group. Besides their social function of sustaining the interests of groups, ideologies have the cognitive function of organizing the social representations (attitudes, knowledge) of the group, and thus indirectly monitor the group-related social practices, and hence also the text and talk of members. (p. 248)

Thus, the writers' personal ideologies may be the cause of different depictions of an issue. These varied depictions are evident in the articles in the editorial section. Here, the writers voice their opinions about pressing issues and concerns whether of local or global scope. Sinclair (1995) describes an editorial as "an article in a newspaper that gives the opinion or ideology of the editor or publisher on a topic or item of news" (as cited in Ansary & Babaii, 2004, p. 7). Shams (2007) echoed that it "is the expression of the opinion or the position of the owners and editors of a newspaper on current issues in the news" (p. 164). The aforementioned definitions certainly point to one thing—editorials are the mouthpiece of any newspaper.

In relation to organizational structure, editorials, foremost, are introduced by headlines. Serving as an opening title to news articles, headlines and leads have been referred to as categories forming the summary of news articles (van Dijk, 1988). Headlines are usually positioned at the top of news articles; thus, they are frequently read first. This positioning is likewise used strategically by writers to express the basic information an article endeavors to provide (Praskova, 2009), for headlines mirror what a news article is about in a few words (Ungerer, 2000). Headlines encapsulate the contents of the news through short and succinct words, phrases, or sentences. An effective headline persuades the readers that the article presented is worth the read in such a short statement (Praskova, 2009), and it tells the readers quickly what the news is and proves them its worth (Ludwig & Gilmore, 2005).

Newspaper headlines assume an important role in the communicative act achieved by newspapers. Taiwo (2007) argues that headlines are used to "initiate, sustain and shape discourse on the views of readers" (p. 224). It is for this reason that studies consider the language of headlines as autonomous, which is an interesting subject of linguistic analysis (Straumann, 1935). Dor (2002), through an investigation of the function of newspaper headlines, concluded that newspaper headlines serve as relevance optimizers, i.e., headlines are intended "to optimize the relevance of the stories it contains to its readers" (p. 696). Nir (1993) observed that some headlines are in the form of complex riddles that neither present nor recapitulate the contents of its respective article.

Newspaper headlines frequently make use of rhetorical devices as an effective way to attract and impress the readers (Shumin, 2006). Rhetorical devices, sometimes referred to as figures of speech, is a word or a phrase that departs from straightforward, literal language and are often used and crafted for "emphasis," "freshness of expression," or "clarity"

(Butardo, 2006, p. iv). Butardo (2006) posits that rhetorical devices are useful in speech writing in three ways: they serve as an enhancement to meaning of the message or statement; they add color to the statement; and they manifest the mental experience of the speaker. Thus, these rhetorical strategies contribute to the uniqueness of form of newspaper headlines.

Shunnin (2006) affirms Guo's (1995) claim that the use of rhetorical devices in Chinese headlines are more flexible and frequent than in English headlines by comparing two newspapers: *People's Daily* and *USA TODAY*. Guo's claim, however, was contradicted by the findings in which figures of speech appeared more frequently in English headlines than in Chinese headlines. Taiwo (2007), through a critical study of Nigerian newspaper headlines, revealed hidden ideological meanings. Taiwo's study suggests that headlines are "emotion-inducing strategies" used by writers (p. 218).

Alireza and Samuel (2012) conducted a contrastive study of headlines culled from the editorials of an English newspaper, *The New York Times*, and a Persian newspaper, *Tehran Times*. The study analyzed 40 headlines retrieved from the electronic versions of the aforementioned broadsheets. The results of the study showed that newspaper headlines presented the subjective attitude of the writers toward the topic, aiming at influencing the readers' understanding of the editorial text.

Another persuasive strategy embedded in headlines is the use of presuppositions. Presuppositions may be described as "the result of complex interactions between semantics and pragmatics" (Levinson, 1983, p. 225). Presuppositions may be further defined as a proposition that contains truths accepted by the speaker but is not asserted by the utterance (Huckin, 2002). It allows the speaker or the writer to make claims without any accompanying assertions and can provide these speakers or writers a kind of linguistic device that can be used to manipulate readers (Huckin, 2002).

Bonyadi and Samuel (2011) explored the linguistic nature of presuppositions in American and Persian newspaper editorials. The results of the study found that the two broadsheets "differ in the frequency of employing other linguistic structures for presupposition purposes" (p. 1). Khaleel (2010), through an investigation of six English journalistic texts, uncovered that these texts heavily rely on existential presuppositions.

Headlines appear in different newspaper texts such as service information, opinion, and news. Most studies regarding headlines focused more on either service-information texts such as advertisements, or news texts such as daily news reports. Thus, headlines in opinion texts such as newspaper editorials have rarely been explored and investigated (Alireza & Samuel, 2012). Furthermore, studies conducted on editorials usually focus on the content of the articles as seen in the studies of Pulido (2011), Ashipu (2013), and Fartousi and Dumanig (2012).

The primary objective of this paper, therefore, is to compare and contrast *The New York Times* (NYT) and *Philippine Daily Inquirer* (PDI) editorial headlines. It examines the similarity(ies) and difference(s) between American and Filipino editorial headlines with respect to the employment of modality, presuppositions, and rhetorical devices. This paper adopted Alireza and Samuel's (2012) method of a systematic contrastive textual analysis of the presuppositions, modality, and rhetorical devices used in NYT and PDI editorial headlines.

1.1 Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The analysis of headlines was patterned after Alireza and Samuel's (2012) systematic contrastive textual analysis by examining the headlines in three aspects: modality, presuppositions, and rhetorical devices. The study incorporated three other frameworks to serve as a guidepost in the analysis of the said aspects. In terms of modality, Quirk et al. (1985) was used as a reference in the structural classification of headlines, namely, verbal and nonverbal headlines, which are further classified into finite and non-finite headlines; and pre-modified, post-modified, pre- and post-modified, and non-modified headlines. Karttunen's (1983) types of presupposition triggers, i.e., existential, lexical, and structural, served as the basis for the derivation of presupposed proposition from the editorial headlines. Lastly, the study referred to Butardo's (2006) definition of rhetorical devices in the classification of the editorial headlines according to the rhetorical devices employed.

1.1.1 Verbal Headlines

Verbal headlines are headlines containing a verbal clause. Verbal headlines can further be classified into three categories following Quirk et al.'s (1985) structural types of clauses: finite clause, non-finite clause, and verbless clause. The verb embedded in the finite clause carries tense; thus, it is finite. The verb in a non-finite clause, on the contrary, does not carry tense; it takes the form of a *to-infinitive*, a bare infinitive, an *-ed* form, or an *-ing* clause (Alireza & Samuel, 2012). Verbless clauses, as the name suggests, are clause-like constructions in which the element of a verb is implied only but does not appear (Quirk et al., 1985). The verb in a verbless clause is non-existent; however, it "is capable of being analyzed into clause elements" (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 992). In the present study, following Alireza and Samuel's (2012) framework, verbless clauses are under the classification of nonverbal headlines.

1.1.2 Nonverbal Headlines

Nonverbal headlines possess a noun or a nominal phrase. Nonverbal headlines can further be classified into non-modified, pre-modified, post-modified, and pre- and post-modified (Quirk et al., 1985).

Pre-modified noun phrases represent a structure in which the noun is preceded by a modifying element. Post-modified noun phrases denote a structure in which the noun is followed by elements that modify it. Pre- and post-modified noun phrases represent a structure in which the noun is both preceded and succeeded by modifying elements. Non-modified nouns indicate a structure in which the noun is not modified by any modifiers. Basically, non-modified nouns are nouns or noun phrases without any form of modifications.

1.1.3 Presupposition Triggers

The presupposition triggers used in this study were based on Karttunen's (1983) categorization of presupposition triggers. These triggers are classified into three major types: existential (definite descriptions), lexical (implicative and factive verbs, change of state verbs and verbs of judging, counterfactual verbs, conventional items, and iteratives), and structural (cleft constructions, Wh-questions, adverbial and comparative constructions, and counterfactual conditionals). However, because of the non-sentential structure of the editorial headlines observed in the study, the types of presuppositions used were limited only to existential, lexical, and structural.

1.1.3.1 Existential

Existential presupposition displays a possessive construction that gives rise to a presupposition of existence. Additionally, existential presuppositions are not only present in possessive constructions but can also take the form of any definite noun phrase or definite descriptions.

- (1) a. Kyle's mom is a widow. (p)
- b. There exists someone called Kyle. (q)
- c. Kyle has a mother. (q)

Proposition (1a) presupposes propositions (1b) and (1c); that is, there exists someone called Kyle and that he still has a mother. This implies that all definite names presuppose the existence of their referents (Khaleel, 2010).

1.1.3.2 Lexical

Lexical presuppositions are defined through the use of certain lexical items or "loaded words" (Alireza & Samuel, 2012, p. 4), which impose another meaning beyond the literal definition. Consider the following example:

- (2) a. Alice is a bachelorette. (p)
- b. Alice is not married. (q)

The meaning of the lexical item *bachelorette* in the presupposing proposition (2a) presupposes the proposition (2b) that Alice is not married.

1.1.3.3 Structural

Structural presuppositions are more concerned with the forms or types of certain sentence structures. These structures conventionally and regularly presuppose already what is assumed to be true (Khaleel, 2010). The following statements exemplify this point:

- (3) a. Where did you buy those shoes? (p)
- b. You bought shoes. (q)

1.1.4 Rhetorical Devices

The definition and the classification of rhetorical devices used in the present study were based on Butardo's (2006). The rhetorical devices were not decided in advance since the qualitative categories were derived inductively from the data analyzed. Thus, the qualitative analysis of the headlines revealed the following rhetorical devices:

- (1) Idioms (or Idioma) are words and phrases used in a peculiar way as illustrated in the language unique to one group, usually a nation, which possess a different meaning aside from their conventional meaning.
- (2) Parallelism is identified by a figure of balance usually in a similarity of the syntactic structure of a set of words in successive phrases, clauses, and sentences with the same or very similar grammatical structure.
- (3) Hyperbole (or Exaggeration, *Superlatio*) is an exaggeration by which something is represented in greater intensity beyond possibility. Usually, hyperboles take the form of extravagant statements that are not taken literally.
- (4) Simile (or Resemblance) is a comparison between unlikely objects that bare some resemblance in certain aspects. Similes are often determined by words such as *like, as, as if, than, similar to, resemble*, and any other words used to compare objects.
- (5) Irony (or Eironeia) is the expression of thought in a form that emphasizes or conveys the opposite meaning to the word used. It states the opposite of the intended or usual meaning to induce mockery to a person or situation.
- (6) Sarcasm takes form of a criticism where disapproval is often expressed as ironic praise. It is inclined to mockery, which often makes use of satirical or ironic remarks to amuse or hurt.
- (7) Onomatopoeia is the formation of words derived from the sound associated with the thing or action in question.
- (8) Consonance is the repetition of consonants in words stressed in a phrase or sentence. It is somewhat of an inverted alliteration, whereas the final consonants repeat in nearby words.
- (9) A rhetorical question is a question asked for a purpose other than to obtain the information the question asks. It is asked to which the speaker expects no answer but hopes for the mental one that he forcefully suggests.

- (10) Epithet (or Epitheton) adds attributes, such as a quality or a description, to a person or a thing. The simple addition of a descriptive adjective can also be considered as an epithet.
- (11) Alliteration occurs through emphasizing initial consonant letters or sounds through repetition. The repeated initial letters can be applied to two or more different words across the successive sentences, clauses, or phrases.
- (12) Metonymy (or Change of Noun) substitutes nouns to another that possesses an attribute similar or closely associated with the noun in question.
- (13) A pun is a word play that suggests the different meanings in words having the same sound. Both homonymy (two words having the same form but different meanings) and polysemy (words possessing different meanings) can be used to form puns.
- (14) Oxymoron is the contradictory construction, meaning, sound, or application of a word or phrase. It places two opposing terms adjacent to one another for epigrammatic effect of contradictory.

The interplay of the abovementioned theoretical precepts is illustrated in Figure 1.

The systematic contrastive textual analysis adopted from Alireza and Samuel's (2012) study comprised of three aspects in analyzing editorial headlines: modality, presuppositions, and rhetorical devices. The modality of the headlines was analyzed based on the structural classification of headlines, namely, verbal and nonverbal headlines. The verbal headlines were further analyzed and categorized under finite and non-finite, while the nonverbal headlines were further categorized into pre-modified, post-modified, pre- and post-modified, and non-modified. The study observed the frequencies of what structural classes of headlines were the most prevalent in the two newspapers. The presuppositions used in the editorial headlines were subjected to analysis by stating the presupposed meanings of headlines containing presupposition triggers in the corpus and by determining the type of presupposition used. The presupposition types were classified according to Karttunen's (1983) presupposition triggers. However, because of the brevity and succinct nature of headlines, the presuppositions used to classify the headlines were limited to the three main types of triggers, namely, existential, lexical, and structural. The headlines, lastly, were examined according to the rhetorical devices used.

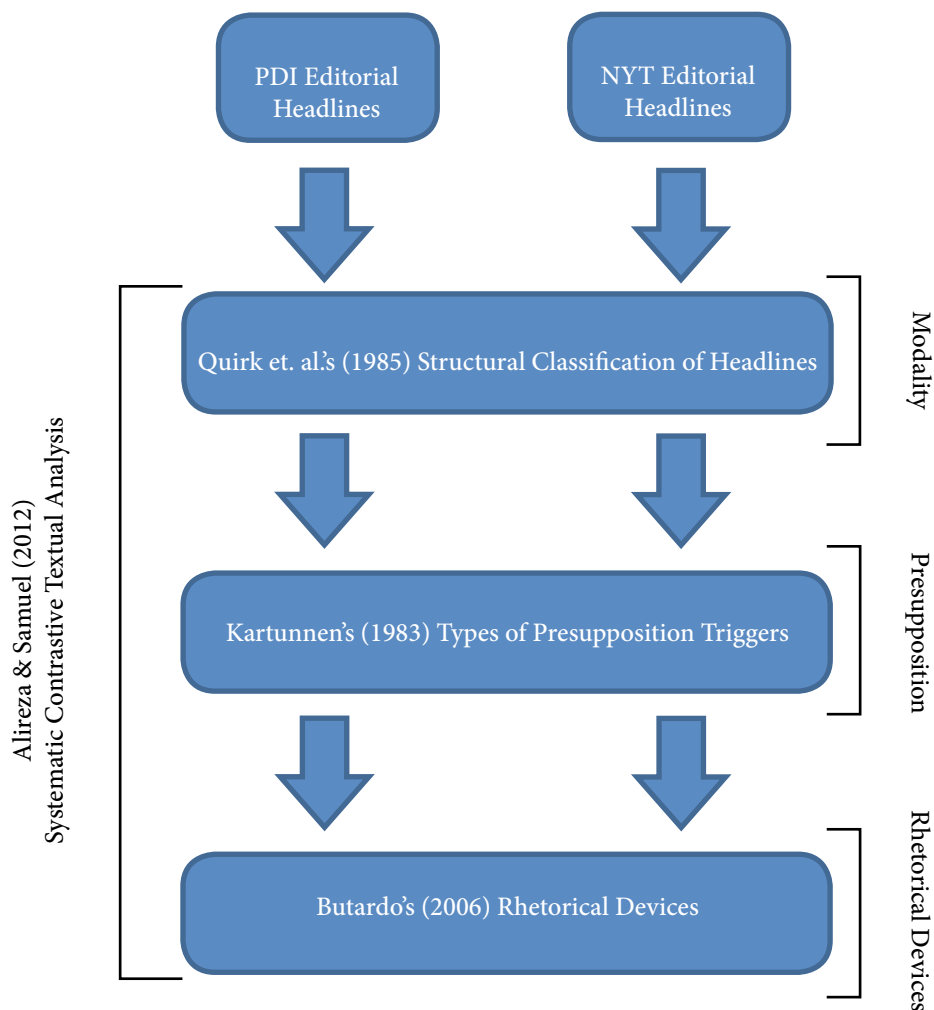


Figure 1. Alireza and Samuel's (2012) Systematic Contrastive Textual Analysis complemented by Quirk et al.'s (1985) Structural Classification of Headlines, Karttunen's (1983) Types of Presupposition Triggers, and Butardo's (2006) Rhetorical Devices

2. Method

The editorial headlines were culled from two newspapers—*The New York Times* (NYT) and *Philippine Daily Inquirer* (PDI)—both are among the top broadsheets in terms of readership in the United States of America and the Philippines, respectively, as stated in their official

websites. Moreover, a statistical study conducted by The Nielsen Co. revealed that PDI is the most read newspaper among major urban areas in the Philippines, while the Associated Press hailed NYT as the newspaper most circulated in any metropolitan area in America.

The 50 editorial headlines from NYT and the 50 editorial headlines from PDI were selected using a nonrandom purposeful sampling (see Appendix A). Editorials aimed at criticizing policies and even personalities, and those deemed controversial by editorial writers are considered as editorials of criticism. Editorials of attack, on the other hand, are very similar to editorials of criticism. These editorials also contain criticisms; however, they are much “forceful” in nature, for the call for change it demands has to be effected immediately (H. Hall, 2001). Editorials of criticism were chosen as the ideal data for analysis, for these editorials often use rhetorical devices (Alireza & Samuel, 2012). These headlines were culled from a specific span of time of four months.

Furthermore, because of similarity in nature, this study employed both the editorials of criticism and attack as candidates for analysis since these classes of editorials usually contain or use hidden social and philosophical commitment to the ideology of the writers and publishers (Rafael, 1995). This commitment makes the editorial more argumentative and persuasive than the other types; thus, it applies persuasive strategies quite often as opposed to the other types of editorials (Alireza & Samuel, 2012).

Three intercoders validated the findings of the analysis, one for each aspect of the analysis. They all hold a master’s degree in linguistics.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Structural Classification of Headlines

The structural classifications of the headlines analyzed in the present study are shown in Table 1. Alireza and Samuel (2012) argue that the length of the headline determines its persuasiveness. Table 1 shows that PDI editorial headlines are shorter and more succinct than NYT editorial headlines. The average number of words was at 3.1 and 4.9 for PDI and NYT, respectively.

PDI editorial headlines are mostly nonverbal. The longest finite verbal headline observed in the PDI corpus, i.e., *Binay plays poor card, AFP protests too much*, consists only of four words. The verbs in these clauses are finite; that is, they carry tense. Examples of nonverbal headlines are: *Cynical politics*, *Rot in the system* and *Regime of lies*.

PDI employs non-modified nonverbal headlines, which make use of no modifiers at all to express a thought, thus, shorter. On the contrary, NYT frequently used pre- and post-modified nonverbal headlines. As illustrated in Table 1, pre- and post-modified nonverbal headlines occurred seven times or 30% of the NYT editorial headlines.

Table 1
Types of editorial headlines in *The New York Times* and *Philippine Daily Inquirer*

			<i>f</i>	%
<i>The New York Times</i>	Verbal Headline	Finite	4	16%
		Non-finite	4	16%
			Total: 8	32%
	Nonverbal Headline	Pre-modified	6	24%
		Post-modified	4	16%
Pre- and post-modified		7	30%	
Non-modified		0	0%	
		Total: 17	68%	
		Grand Total for NYT: 25	100%	
<i>Philippine Daily Inquirer</i>	Verbal Headline	Finite	4	16%
		Non-finite	2	8%
			Total: 6	24%
	Nonverbal Headline	Pre-modified	10	40%
		Post-modified	7	28%
Pre- and post-modified		1	4%	
Non-modified		1	4%	
		Total: 19	76%	
		Grand Total for PDI: 25	100%	

Note: *f* – frequency; % - percentage

3.2 Presuppositions in Editorial Headlines

As regards presuppositions, generally, the two newspapers presupposed particular propositions through the use of certain types of presuppositions: existential, lexical, and structural. Such a similarity is illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2
Presuppositions in *The New York Times* (NYT) and *Philippine Daily Inquirer* (PDI)

Presupposition Trigger	Headlines in NYT		Headlines in PDI	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Lexical	9	36%	12	48%
Existential	9	36%	2	8%
Structural	2	8%	1	4%
N/A	5	20%	10	40%
Total:	25	100%	25	100%

Note: N/A - No presupposition employed; *f* - frequency; % - percentage

Both newspapers scarcely employed structural presuppositions in writing the headlines. This type of presupposition only occurred once in PDI and twice in NYT. This may be attributed to the principle of brevity observed in the headlines; structural presuppositions are often utilized in complete sentences (Karttunen, 1983). The NYT editorial headlines employed more existential presuppositions in discussing the writer’s propositions such as “*Mr. De Blasio’s Call for Harmony*” and “*Ukraine’s Slow Collapse*,” which are triggered by possessive constructions and presuppose that “*Mr. De Blasio calls for harmony*” and “*Ukraine is collapsing slowly*,” respectively. Presupposed propositions in headlines such as “*Gambling on the Games*” and “*Attorneys General For Sale*” are triggered by lexical items or loaded words *gambling* and *sale*, which presuppose “*the games are subject to a risk*” and “*attorneys are being sold*,” respectively.

As opposed to the use of existential presuppositions in NYT, existential presuppositions are barely used in the PDI editorial headlines occurring only twice. Lexical presuppositions, however, are more frequently used in the PDI editorial headlines. Presupposed propositions in headlines such as “*‘Wang-wang’ lives*” and “*AFP protests too much*” are triggered by the lexical items *lives* and *protests*, which elicit presuppositions “*Wang-wang is still rampant*” and “*AFP is not satisfied*,” respectively.

3.3 Rhetorical Devices in Editorial Headlines

The analysis shows that the headlines made use of rhetorical devices to enhance meaning and to add color to statements, a conclusion similar to Butardo’s (2006). Table 3 elaborates the differences between the rhetorical devices employed in NYT and PDI.

Overall, the two newspapers employed 14 different kinds of rhetorical devices. NYT employed seven rhetorical devices, namely, parallelism, rhetorical question, alliteration, metonymy, pun, idiom, and oxymoron. However, PDI employed ten rhetorical devices, namely, idiom, parallelism, hyperbole, simile, irony, sarcasm, onomatopoeia, consonance, epithet, and alliteration.

Table 3
Rhetorical devices in The New York Times and Philippine Daily Inquirer

Rhetorical Device	Headlines in NYT		Headlines in PDI	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Idiom	1	4%	4	16%
Parallelism	5	20%	2	8%
Hyperbole	-	-	1	4%
Simile	-	-	1	4%
Irony	-	-	1	4%
Sarcasm	-	-	3	12%
Onomatopoeia	-	-	1	4%
Consonance	-	-	1	4%
Rhetorical Question	1	4%	-	-
Epithet	-	-	4	16%
Alliteration	3	12%	1	4%
Metonymy	6	24%	-	-
Pun	1	4%	-	-
Oxymoron	1	4%	-	-
N/A	7	28%	6	24%
Total:	25	100%	25	100%

Note: N/A - No rhetorical device employed; *f* - frequency; % - percentage

As illustrated in Table 3, the PDI editorial headlines employed more kinds of rhetorical devices than the NYT's editorial headlines. However, the rhetorical device with the highest frequency can be seen in the NYT editorial headlines. Metonymy is the highest occurring rhetorical device, i.e., six comprising 24% of all the rhetorical devices.

Alireza and Samuel's (2012) recent study confirms that NYT editorial writers frequently use metonymy. The findings suggest that the NYT editorial headlines used metonymy, e.g., *Ireland still addicted to tax breaks* (Ireland is metonymically used to represent a government institution), more frequently than the other types of rhetorical devices and that parallelism, e.g., *New data, old story*, was the second most frequently used. It seems that NYT writers prefer to write the editorial headlines in a metonymic and (with) parallelism style. Possibly, metonymy was used to euphemize the criticisms done by the editorial writers for the reason that it is through this device that the specific figures targeted by the writers are substituted with other words. This may be done to prevent offense against those being referred to. The findings may imply that Filipino writers tend to write more dynamically with the use of more and varied rhetorical devices as opposed to American editorial headline writers who opt for fewer rhetorical devices.

It may be deduced from the foregoing findings that both the PDI and the NYT editorial headlines employ rhetorical devices to present the writers' subjective attitudes. The PDI editorial writers prefer to use idioms, e.g., *Bad weather* and *While the iron is hot*; epithet, e.g., *Hellhole in Manila* (hellhole referring to youth rehabilitation centers); and parallelism, e.g., *Too little, too late*. The NYT editorial writers, on the other hand, favor metonymy, e.g., *Ukraine's slow collapse* (Ukraine representing economy and its status) and parallelism, e.g., *Global weakness, America's problem*.

The analysis also shows that some rhetorical devices are used aesthetically for persuasiveness. McGuigan (2011) posits that the major function of rhetorical devices is to enhance composition, persuade, inform, and express. Parallelism, alliteration, and consonance are rhetorical devices found in the present study used to wholly inform rather than contain any subjective opinions from the editorial writers. This could be seen from the headline: "*Wrestling With an Aging Arsenal* (Ref. NYT 18)." The said example alliterated the initial letters of two or more different words across the headline. The alliterated words are typed in bold to clearly present the employment of this rhetorical device.

Moreover, the editorial headlines culled from PDI often talk about policies and personalities in Philippine politics. The study observed that most of the rhetorical strategies used by Filipino writers induce some form of attack through mockery (i.e., hyperbole, simile, irony, sarcasm, onomatopoeia, and epithet) in the presentation of the writers' subjective attitudes. Consider the following headline: "*Let them debate* (Ref. PDI 10)." This headline was used for the article about Vice President Jejomar Binay and Sen. Antonio Trillanes IV's debate regarding the corruption charges faced by the latter. Several political analysts interpreted the said debate as pointless because the latter was suspected to be a liar. The writer must have employed sarcasm to emphasize mockery on the debate, which was assumed to be pointless. Such an aggressive approach of Filipino editorialists may be attributed to the cultural aspect of Philippine politics as being too highly personal (Montiel, 2012).

The editorial headlines from NYT, on the other hand, discuss topics ranging from the local American to international issues. Additionally, as opposed to the writers of PDI, NYT editorial writers mainly employ rhetorical devices to add color and enhance the headlines' persuasive appeal. The NYT editorial writers rarely exhibit any form of attack to policies and personalities through the headlines. The following headline serves as an example: "*Hidden Interests, Closer to Home* (Ref. NYT 3)." Evidently, the writer employed parallelism. Although some of the words are not of the same type, words with almost the same or very similar grammatical structure are likewise classified as parallelism (Butardo, 2006). In the first headline, the use of *hidden interests* and *closer to home* shows parallelism. Here, an identical linguistic structure is observed where both nouns *interests* and *home* are preceded by modifiers *hidden* and *closer to*.

4. Conclusion

With the ever-growing use of print media, newspapers have been a significant ground for linguistic research. In this paper, it may be deduced that the discourse conventions employed

in newspaper articles may contribute to shaping public opinion. This is most evident in the editorial section. With this in mind, the study specifically aimed at analyzing the headlines of editorials, since they encapsulate the essence of the article.

Generally, the present study revealed certain quantitative and qualitative differences between Filipino (PDI) and American (NYT) editorial headlines. In terms of structure, the study revealed that editorial writers in both the PDI and the NYT broadsheets prefer to use nonverbal headlines described as short and punchy phrases. Although both prefer to use short phrases as headlines, the PDI editorial headlines are shorter than those in NYT.

Moreover, the textual analysis of the editorial headlines uncovered that the headlines not only serve as an opening to the subject of the editorials, but they also present the subjective attitudes of the editorial writers toward an issue. Such subjective attitudes are realized through the use of presuppositions and certain rhetorical devices.

The editorial headlines in both PDI and NYT contain certain presupposing propositions that reveal the subjective attitudes of the editorial writers toward the subjects of the headlines. The PDI editorial writers prefer the use of lexical presupposition triggers in presupposing their propositions, while the NYT editorial writers prefer both the existential and the lexical types. The rhetorical devices observed in the editorial headlines, on the other hand, require the context of the topic discussed in the article for the reader to fully grasp the underlying ideologies of the writer. On a more introspective note, the analysis could attest to how ideology functions in the construction of newspaper headlines and to the fact that newspaper headlines not only exhibit shared rhetorical characteristics but also specific veiled ideologies behind the text.

The present study concentrated on analyzing headlines of editorials of criticism and attack. Further studies may concentrate on the other types of editorial proposed by H. Hall (2001) such as editorials of defense, endorsement, appeal, and entertainment. Moreover, aside from opinion texts, further studies may investigate the employment of presuppositions and rhetorical devices on service-information texts and news texts. Such studies may further reveal the discourse conventions used in the print media. Future research may also investigate the relation of the length of the headline to the corresponding content of the article. Perhaps, such an investigation may provide an explanation as to why some headlines are written in such a concise manner. Furthermore, newspapers are the “most up-to-date inexpensive textbook” most accessible to the students and language teachers (Alireza & Samuel, 2012, p. 8). Newspaper articles possess unique characteristics in displaying authenticity and reality. Newspapers can be used as an instructional material for language teaching (Alireza & Samuel, 2012).

Headlines hold importance in monitoring attention, perception, and the reading process (van Dijk, 1988). The present study aimed at uncovering some of the genre-specific characteristics of editorial headlines that could aid EFL or ESL teachers. Through the use of these genre-specific characteristics, EFL or ESL teachers can educate their students to critically analyze media discourse through editorial headlines (Alireza & Samuel, 2012). The results of this study may also be used for pedagogical purposes following D.R. Hall’s (2001) genre-based approach in teaching language. This method applies the reading and writing

of technical texts then attempts to analyze these texts' "typical discourse features" and "language functions" (D.R. Hall, 2001, p. 236). This language-teaching approach provides analytical tools to learners, which, in turn, grant these learners a critical approach to their own writing (D.R. Hall, 2001). On a more practical note, the results of the present study can be used by teachers to further equip their students with the requisite linguistic skills in conducting textual analysis of editorial headlines. It is through this knowledge that language educators would be able to employ media discourse as a teaching device.

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Appendix A

Philippine Daily Inquirer and The New York Times editorial headlines

Philippine Daily Inquirer Editorial Headlines

- PDI 1: Cynical politics
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/78166/cynical-politics>
- PDI 2: Rot in the system
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/78552/rot-in-the-system>
- PDI 3: Bad weather for Binay
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/78527/bad-weather-for-binay>
- PDI 4: Regime of lies
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/78674/regime-of-lies>
- PDI 5: Pure luck?
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/78823/pure-luck>
- PDI 6: All hands on deck
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/78897/all-hands-on-deck>
- PDI 7: No more coy, P-Noy
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/79070/no-more-coy-p-noy>
- PDI 8: What lies beneath
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/79500/what-lies-beneath>
- PDI 9: Binay plays poor card
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/79631/binay-plays-poor-card>
- PDI 10: Let them debate
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/79684/let-them-debate>
- PDI 11: ‘Wang-wang’ lives
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/79735/wang-wang-lives>
- PDI 12: Sure, investigate Drilon
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/79824/sure-investi0.6944gate-drilon>
- PDI 13: Justice as tragedy
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80396/justice-as-tragedy>
- PDI 14: Tax break setback
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80429/tax-break-setback>
- PDI 15: Too little, too late
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80458/too-little-too-late>
- PDI 16: Boundless gall
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80520/boundless-gall>
- PDI 17: Revolutionary collorum
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80512/revolutionary-colorum>
- PDI 18: Being prepared
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80832/being-prepared>
- PDI 19: On the right track
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80713/on-the-right-track>

- PDI 20: A fall, a surge
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80870/a-fall-a-surge>
- PDI 21: While the iron's hot
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/81342/while-the-irons-hot>
- PDI 22: Economic stuttering
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80799/economic-stuttering>
- PDI 23: Lethal firecrackers
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/81362/lethal-firecrackers>
- PDI 24: Hellhole in Manila
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80265/hellhole-in-manila>
- PDI 25: AFP protests too much
<http://opinion.inquirer.net/80122/afp-protests-too-much>

The New York Times Editorial Headlines

- NYT 1: The Great Firewall Gets Bigger
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/28/opinion/sunday/beijings-internet-crackdown-hurts-the-chinese-economy.html>
- NYT 2: Children's Health Insurance at a Crossroads
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/22/opinion/childrens-health-insurance-at-a-crossroads.html>
- NYT 3: Hidden Interests, Closer to Home
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/21/public-editor/new-york-times-public-editor-on-conflicts-of-interest.html>
- NYT 4: New Data, Old Story
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/17/opinion/new-data-old-story.html>
- NYT 5: Gambling on the Games
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/15/opinion/gambling-on-the-games.html>
- NYT 6: Nursing Homes Behind Bars
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/29/opinion/nursing-homes-behind-bars.html>
- NYT 7: China's Crackdown in Hong Kong
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/30/opinion/chinas-crackdown-in-hong-kong.html>
- NYT 8: Wrong Rx for XXLs
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/10/20/opinion/to-battle-sugar-mayor-bill-de-blasio-doesnt-need-a-big-soda-ban.html>
- NYT 9: Ireland Still Addicted to Tax Breaks
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/10/20/opinion/ireland-still-addicted-to-tax-breaks.html>
- NYT 10: President Obama and the Convention Against Torture
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/10/21/opinion/president-obama-and-the-convention-against-torture.html>
- NYT 11: The S.E.C. and Political Spending
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/10/30/opinion/the-sec-and-political-spending.html>
- NYT 12: Governor Cuomo's Power Play
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/10/31/opinion/governor-cuomos-power-play.html>
- NYT 13: Ukraine's Slow Collapse
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/20/opinion/ukraines-slow-collapse.html>

- NYT 14: Attorneys General for Sale
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/21/opinion/attorneys-general-for-sale.html>
- NYT 15: India's Lethal Birth Control
http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/21/opinion/indias-lethal-birth-control.html?_r=0
- NYT 16: Too Important to Slip Away
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/28/opinion/too-important-to-slip-away.html>
- NYT 17: Improvements for Riker's Island
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/29/opinion/improvements-for-rikers-island.html>
- NYT 18: Wrestling With an Aging Arsenal
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/29/opinion/wrestling-with-an-aging-arsenal.html>
- NYT 19: Global Weakness, America's Problem
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/11/29/opinion/global-weakness-americas-problem.html>
- NYT 20: Pakistan's Baffling Response to Extremism
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/12/23/opinion/pakistans-baffling-response-to-extremism.html>
- NYT 21: Is Peaceful Korean Unification Possible?
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/12/12/opinion/is-peaceful-korean-unification-possible.html>
- NYT 22: Mr. De Blasio's Call for Harmony
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/12/23/opinion/mr-de-blasios-call-for-harmony.html>
- NYT 23: Mr. Grimm Should Go Now
<http://www.nytimes.com/2014/12/24/opinion/mr-grimm-should-go-now.html>
- NYT 24: When New York Police Walk Off the Job
http://www.nytimes.com/2014/12/31/opinion/when-new-york-city-police-walk-off-the-job.html?_r=0
- NYT 25: The Problems with the Death Penalty
http://www.nytimes.com/2014/09/15/opinion/the-problems-with-the-death-penalty.html?_r=0