

Early Modern English News Discourse

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Volume 187

Early Modern English News Discourse. Newspapers, pamphlets
and scientific news discourse
Edited by Andreas H. Jucker

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Newspapers, pamphlets
and scientific news discourse

Edited by

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Preface

The papers in this volume go back to the Conference on Historical News Discourse (CHINED) that took place at the Kartause Ittingen (Switzerland) on August 31 and September 1, 2007. It was the second conference on this topic after one held in Florence (Italy) on September 2 and 3, 2004. The papers of the first conference were edited by Nicholas Brownlees and published under the title *News Discourse in Early Modern Britain. Selected Papers of CHINED 2004* (Bern: Peter Lang).

My thanks go to the contributors of this volume for their help and co-operation, to Danielle Hickey for her careful copy-editing and layouting work, and to two anonymous reviewers for the series for their pertinent and helpful comments and suggestions.

The date of the Ittingen conference was chosen to coincide with Udo Fries' retirement from his position as professor of English linguistics at the University of Zurich. Udo Fries has made a very significant contribution to the study of early English newspapers. He was the driving force behind the team who compiled the *Zurich English Newspaper Corpus* (ZEN), a corpus that was instrumental in many publications on early English newspapers, and indeed several papers in this volume are based on data from the ZEN. This volume, therefore, is dedicated to him.

Newspapers, pamphlets and scientific news discourse in Early Modern Britain

Andreas H. Jucker

The papers in this volume deal with news discourse in newspapers, pamphlets and in scientific writings in Early Modern Britain. This volume takes a broad and largely pragmatic view of what news is. The definition given by the *Oxford English Dictionary* may serve as a starting point:

The report or account of recent (esp. important or interesting) events or occurrences, brought or coming to one as new information; new occurrences as a subject of report or talk; tidings. (OED “news” n. 2)

This definition is broad enough to encompass the contents of newspapers, of pamphlets and of scientific news discourse, but some qualifications are necessary. Generally speaking, newspapers report on recent events, and they make a claim that this news is interesting enough for the reader to warrant the purchase of a copy of the newspaper. The definition also applies to scientific news discourse, in which scientists share the results of their research with their colleagues. In this case, too, the news contains a “report or account of recent events or occurrences”, where “events and occurrences” are understood in the sense of scientific findings. Newspapers and pamphlets are addressed to a wide audience; scientific news discourse, on the other hand, is addressed to a small and exclusive audience, but in both cases, the audience expects to receive reports and accounts of a largely factual nature on “recent events and occurrences”. In fact, critical readers may often wonder about the factual status of the contents of newspapers, pamphlets or even scientific writing, but, by and large, authors of all three formats clearly expect their readers to accept their texts as factual.

For pamphlets, the situation is perhaps less clear-cut since many of the early pamphlets did not report events or occurrences but were largely argumentative. Newspapers, too, publish material that cannot be described as news in the narrow sense, for instance in the form of editorial comments or advertisements. For the purpose of this book, however, such content will be included, too. The papers

of this volume are, therefore, concerned with early newspapers, pamphlets and scientific writings in general.

In a handbook article on mass media (Jucker 2005), I distinguished between a narrow definition and a broad definition of mass media. For today's world, the narrow definition comprises print media, such as newspapers and magazines, electronic media, such as radio and television, and online media on the Internet, while the wide definition of mass media also includes other printed materials including books, leaflets, billboards and manuals, and even non-verbal information channels, such as street signs or icons at airports or railway stations, and artistic forms of communication to mention just a few. In Early Modern Britain the range of mass media channels was obviously much smaller, but the three forms chosen for this volume can be seen as representative for early modern mass media news publications. Like their modern counterparts, what they have in common is that they constitute a form of one-way communication. An author communicates to a large and anonymous audience. For modern forms of mass media communication, several qualifications are needed for this. Mass media content is almost always produced not by a single author but by a large production team, which shares different responsibilities for the content, form and transmission of the news content. There are also many ways for the audience to talk back especially in the new online media, e.g. in letters to the editor, in comments sections or discussion forums. In weblog publishing, the traditional distinction between institutionalized senders of mass media messages and an audience of private individuals disappears altogether. In this form of mass media communication, the senders, too, are private individuals. The distinction between personal and mass media communication and, more generally, the distinction between private and public become increasingly blurred (cf. Dürscheid 2007).

In the early modern forms of mass media communication, the communication was more clearly asymmetric. The author communicated to a large audience which was not in a position to talk back. However, the typical authors or senders of the messages also differed somewhat from their modern counterparts. Present-day newspapers are clearly produced by large teams. It is generally difficult, if not impossible, to ascribe the exact wording in a newspaper article to a single individual because of the complex production process. The source of an individual article may be a text written by a news agency journalist. This text is then re-written by a newspaper journalist before it undergoes several rounds of revisions by news editors and subeditors (see Bell 1991: 36–44). Even scientific news publications are the result of editorial processes involving not only an author but also reviewers, desk editors and general editors.

In contrast, some of the early modern news publication formats were still dominated by single individuals. The first newspapers consisted of a sequence

of letters from correspondents which were published without any further editorial intervention, except that they often had to be translated (cf. Brownlees 1999; Griffiths 2006). The translator and “editor” was also the publisher and printer of the newspaper. Pamphlets, too, were in an obvious way the result of individual authors rather than institutionalized publishing houses.

But even scientific news discourse was more personalized than it is today. In her contribution to this volume, for instance, Moessner shows how the early volumes of the *Philosophical Transactions*, published by the Royal Society, were initially dominated by their editor, Henry Oldenburg, who published his own version of the news that he received through his large network of correspondents. It was only in later years that the editorial voice became more and more back-grounded.

Early English news discourse has recently enjoyed a fair amount of scholarly attention. Raymond (1996), Sommerville (1996), Brownlees (1999), auf dem Keller (2004), Griffiths (2006) and Studer (2008) are all book-length studies of early English newspapers, while Raymond (2006) provides a collection of papers on early English newspapers. Grabes (1990) and Raymond (2003) are useful histories of pamphlets and pamphleteering in Early Modern Britain, and Hüllen (1989), Gotti (1996), Valle (1999), Taavitsainen and Pahta (2004) and Taavitsainen (2006) provide detailed information on the history of scientific news discourse in Early Modern Britain. A particularly noteworthy collection of articles is, of course, Brownlees (2006) because this volume, like the present one, includes papers on all three types of news discourse.

The papers in this volume, therefore, fall into one of these three large groups devoted to newspapers, pamphlets and scientific news discourse. The first group, with papers on early English newspapers from their beginnings in the seventeenth century up to the nineteenth century, covers a broad range of different text types that occurred in these papers, from advertisements and announcements to news reports and religious texts. Most papers in this section focus on a particular text type and provide detailed descriptions of typical structures and typical phrases. Text categories were fuzzy and they developed over time; the papers demonstrate how the recurring patterns came to be established and how these helped to identify the text categories.

The first two papers of this section deal with particular text types in early newspapers: the reporting of crime and punishment, and want ads. Udo Fries deals with early forms of soft news, i.e. reports on crime and punishment in the *Zurich English Newspaper Corpus*. He discusses the text classes in which information on crime and punishment appeared. The identification is not always straightforward because the newspapers were inconsistent in their designations and the classes were developing over the period under investigation. In fact, in the early

newspapers of the period, reports on crimes may even have occurred in advertisements or announcements. Advertisers promised a reward for information or the retrieval of lost or stolen horses or runaway servants. Such advertisements were stereotypically introduced by *whereas* or by a past participle, such as *stolen* or *deserted*. The crime reports proper showed fairly conventionalized structures and stereotypical phrases, and Fries shows how these changed in the course of the eighteenth century. They tended to be matter-of-fact reports that might be classified as hard news, but, in the course of time, the reports became longer and included evaluative elements and superlative expressions (“a most bloody and cruel murder”), and journalists started to speculate on the social reasons of crime, as in this report on the execution of a culprit who had been transported but who returned to England before being allowed to: “His unhappy Exit seem’d to be owing to the Neglect of his Parents, who, giving him no sort of Education, nor bringing him up to any Employment, he begun, when very young, to pilfer and steal for his Livelihood” (Fries, example (39)).

Laura Wright’s paper deals with want ads that appeared in the London newspaper *The Morning Herald* in the 1780s. Employers used such ads to seek servants, and servants used them to seek employment. Wright discusses how the writers of these ads used the restricted space to give a clear picture of what they were looking for. Words were expensive and therefore the information had to be conveyed in as few words as possible while still making clear what kind of servant or what kind of employment was being sought. The paper discusses a range of conventionalized words and phrases that are not immediately transparent to the modern reader of these ads and explicates them on the basis of her data and of additional information from the *Oxford English Dictionary*, the *Zurich English Newspaper Corpus*, contemporary literature on the employment of servants, and contemporary fictional accounts of servants seeking adequate employment. Not all of the phrases can be assigned clear meanings, but together they create a fascinating picture of late eighteenth-century society with the precarious situations of servants and, in particular, women servants.

The third paper in the section on newspapers deals with one particular early newspaper, *The Welch Mercury*. It was not a particularly successful paper, but in some respects it already anticipated later developments. It appeared in only nine issues under two different names at the time of the English Civil War in the years 1643 and 1644. Nicholas Brownlees argues that the lack of success of this newspaper makes it particularly interesting for an analysis of early newspapers. Not only was it the first newspaper to employ early forms of infotainment but, in later issues, it tried to avert its fate by experimenting with new journalistic formats. The paper was written in mock Welsh English by a fictional Welsh author, who purportedly supported the King against the Parliamentarians. Thus, the paper sati-

rizes itself both in form (mock Welsh English) and in content (anti-Parliamentarian). It was its editorial intention to both inform and to entertain, and it used stereotypes of a Welsh accent and what was supposed to be Welsh foolishness. In the later issues it was particularly news on Royal issues that was heavily marked by a Welsh accent, while Parliamentary news was presented largely in Standard English. Brownlees' analysis also draws attention to such features as early forms of headlines whose purpose it probably was to highlight the news values of the articles. They were not to be perceived as anti-Welsh satirical pamphlets.

The remaining three papers in the section on newspapers focus on stylistic peculiarities of early newspapers. **Thomas Kohnen** compares the style of the early newspapers of the *Zurich English Newspaper Corpus* (1661–1791) with a corpus of prayers in order to find out more about the religious features contained in early newspapers. He focuses on the lexical aspects and provides a keyword analysis, that is to say, he picks out those words that show an unusually high frequency in one corpus in contrast to the other corpus. Words like “Oh”, “Lord” and “God”, for instance, occur very frequently in the prayer corpus but with limited or rare frequencies in the newspaper corpus. In his analysis, Kohnen looks in detail at how such words are used in late seventeenth- and in eighteenth-century newspapers. It turns out that they are either used in fixed formulae or routines, or in the few instances of religious texts that are explicitly framed as such in these newspapers. In an analysis of typical collocational patterns, Kohnen demonstrates that the identified keywords occur in the two corpora with very different patterns. Thus, the analysis provides interesting insights into the use of religious language in early newspapers but it also suggests that religious language was felt to be archaic in the eighteenth century. In the newspapers, it had the status of a clearly distinct special register.

Claudia Claridge analyses the use of comparisons in seventeenth- and eighteenth-century news discourse. She focuses on the two constructions using *like* and *as ... as* with one, two or three intervening items. Her analysis is also based on the *Zurich English Newspaper Corpus* and – for comparative purposes – the press genres of the *F-LOB Corpus*. She argues that comparisons are not, strictly speaking, necessary to convey new information. They are useful because of their elaborating functions. In particular, she distinguishes between four main functions, i.e. intensification/emphasis, evaluation, providing information and explanation/clarification. Her data reveals that many comparisons have a persuasive function in that they highlight or provide common ground between the writer and the reader. They are conscious stylistic choices on the part of the journalist. However, they turn out to be less frequent in early English news discourse than in Present-day English newspapers. Claridge surmises that the oral flavor of

comparisons made them less obvious choices for seventeenth- and eighteenth-century journalists than for their modern counterparts.

Birte Bös, finally, deals with the pragmatic functions of imperatives in news reports. She uses the *Rostock Newspaper Corpus* as data, which comprises samples of news reports from English newspapers from 1700 to 2000, amounting to a total of about 600,000 words. Bös starts from the hypothesis that imperatives should be more frequent in more recent newspapers because of the personalization of mass media communication and the function of imperatives as a device to address the audience directly. However, she finds that the situation is more complex. Imperatives are not attested in the first half of the eighteenth century, but, from 1760 on, they occur regularly in her data with a steady increase until the mid-nineteenth century, and a surprisingly stable frequency in the twentieth century except for a peak in 1960. Imperatives can be directed from the journalist to the newspaper audience but in many cases the imperatives have different originators and different targets. They may, for instance, be directed from the author to the referents of news reports or they may occur in quotations with a direction from one referent to another. It is also necessary to look at the very frequent *let us* or *let's* construction separately and the different communicative situations need to be taken into consideration. The illocutionary force of this construction can vary from orders and commands to requests, recommendations and invitations depending on the force that is exerted on the addressee of the imperative to comply.

The second part of this volume contains two papers on pamphlets and other forerunners of newspapers. **Elisabetta Cecconi** deals with broadsides and pamphlets in the seventeenth century. News broadsides or broadside ballads were short verse narratives printed on one side of a single sheet of paper. They were popular from the mid sixteenth to the mid seventeenth century. Occasional news pamphlets, on the other hand, were short “books” which also were very popular from the middle of the sixteenth century. Broadside ballads were intended for oral performance, while pamphlets were intended to be read either privately or collectively. Thus, both formats mark a transition from oral to written news transmission.

In her analysis, Cecconi compares stories that were published both in the format of broadside ballads and of news pamphlets. She points out the dramatic quality of the broadsides which suited their oral performance and the more argumentative nature of pamphlets which were intended to be read either privately or collectively. In addition, there are interesting differences between broadsides and pamphlets, on the one hand, and early newspapers, on the other. The former display a mixture between factual reporting and religious preaching. Many elements, including typographical choices, pictures and lexical choices, are designed to catch the readers' interest. In contrast, early newspapers stick to more sober reporting of facts. At the same time, broadsides and pamphlets already anticipated

developments that newspapers adopted only later on, such as interest-inducing headlines and a text structure that highlights the result of the reported events.

Alessandra Levorato focuses on a much later period in the development of pamphlets by analyzing those written at the end of the eighteenth century during the so-called “pamphlet war” that ensued around the prospective union between Ireland and Britain. She looks at a corpus of pamphlets that were published in Dublin during the years immediately preceding the union in 1801. The corpus separates those pamphlets that were in favor of a union and those that were against; both types used a range of persuasive strategies to argue their point. She looks, in particular, at the impoliteness strategies employed by the two different sides and distinguishes between on-record strategies and off-record strategies. On-record strategies can be further subdivided into negative and positive impoliteness strategies. The former include strategies such as challenging questions, condescension, scorn, ridicule or threats, while the latter include snubs, derogatory denominations, epithets and disagreements. Off-record strategies are less frequent. One example would be sarcasm. The analysis reveals that both proponents and opponents of a union between Ireland and Britain made use of impoliteness strategies, but these strategies were clearly more frequent and more eye-catching among the anti-unionist writers, who were calling their fellow countrymen to unite against the intrusion from outside.

The third and final part of this volume contains two papers on scientific news discourse. **Irma Taavitsainen** presents evidence for early forms of scientific news discourse in the sixteenth century. As a first step, she uses the corpus of *Early Modern English Medical Texts* to retrieve occurrences of the word *news* in these texts in order to find out how sixteenth-century authors of scientific texts used this term. As a second step, she studies several news reports in detail by contrasting them with the well-known features of modern news reports. The sixteenth century was particularly interesting in this respect because of the many reports from voyages to the new world of the American continents, with accounts of new plants and animals. Taavitsainen shows how the accounts from the new world changed over the course of the sixteenth century. The earliest ones, dating from around 1520, took the form of medieval travel literature depicting the new world as both marvelous and monstrous. New modes of reporting emerged only in the second half of the sixteenth century with additional emphasis on factual descriptions. The enthusiasm about the promising medicinal potential of the newly discovered plants replaced the earlier sense of marvel and excitement about the monstrosities and “savages” in the new territories.

Lilo Moessner’s paper deals with important changes in the scientific news discourse of the seventeenth century. Early scientific news discourse relied to a large extent on letters exchanged within European networks of scholars (see e.g.

Valle 1999, 2003; Gotti 2006). Letters that described scientific experiments, new discoveries and other results of scholarly work were circulated in these networks. They were translated into other languages to reach a wider audience. In the seventeenth century, the Royal Society was founded, and in 1665 the *Philosophical Transactions* was set up as a new channel for the dissemination of scientific news. Henry Oldenburg was the first editor and he had a very considerable influence on the published material. At the beginning, he published his own version of the news that he had received through his own extend network of correspondents, but – as Moessner shows – in the first decade of publication, the editorial voice was backgrounded more and more, and the authorial voices gained in importance. A new medium of news publications established itself.

Thus, all the papers in this volume strive to situate their linguistic analyses not only in the larger context of the changing news discourse of the early modern period but also in the context of more specific text types. Language change is situated in a linguistic and cultural context. In order to understand the developments, it is necessary to look carefully at the details of how language is used in specific situations. News discourse is particularly interesting. In all the case studies assembled in this volume, an author communicates to a large and diverse audience, and generally can only make guesses about that audience. The audience itself is the justification for the production of these texts but it cannot talk back to the author in any direct way. The papers in this volume remain focused on the linguistic details under analysis and, at the same time, they try to provide a larger picture of the developments in the language of news discourse in Early Modern Britain.

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Newspapers

Crime and punishment

Udo Fries

1. Introduction

This paper deals with the reporting of crimes perpetrated in the late seventeenth and in the eighteenth century as we find them recorded in the newspapers of the day. The texts discussed here are taken from the newspapers collected in ZEN, *The Zurich English Newspaper Corpus*, which covers the period from 1671 to 1791, in ten-year intervals.

In modern newspapers, a variety of text classes or genres have been identified. In the analysis of modern English newspapers the distinction between hard news and soft news has become generally accepted. This distinction refers to “a concept mostly applied to the content of the news” (Xekalakis 1999: 91). Hard news is, according to Bell (1991), concerned either with so-called “spot news” – accidents, disasters, crimes – or with important events in politics, economics, and diplomacy. Soft news, on the other hand, presents human interest stories – often in an “involved, personal and colloquial style”. Hard news is said to be presented in a neutral, formal and distant style (Xekalakis 1999: 92).

Looking at earlier English newspapers, Schneider (2002) also distinguishes between hard and soft news, a distinction seen by her to parallel that between quality and popular papers. Hard news, according to Schneider, consists of foreign politics (e.g. reports on wars), home politics (e.g. parliamentary reports or local elections), appointments, commercial information and ship news, but also of short factual reports on marriages, deaths, festivities, and leisure activities. Soft news, on the other hand, consists of reports on ordinary people, e.g. births, marriages, diseases, deaths, crimes (e.g. stealing, robbery, murder), but also of fights, suicides, court trials, natural disasters, and tragic accidents.

Quality papers are said to consist mainly of hard news, whereas popular papers consist of soft news. Information correlates with the quality press and entertainment with the popular press. Reports of crimes, therefore, would belong to entertainment, or soft news, and therefore predominately to the popular press.

What I want to point out here is that reports on crime can belong to both sections: hard news, i.e. short factual reports designed to inform, and soft news, i.e. longer reports that may also entertain – or rather frighten or excite their readership.

Within the section of hard news the distinction between foreign news and home news is also relevant. The inclusion of home news in early English newspapers depended largely on the fluctuating political situation. Between 1620 and 1640, home news was not always allowed to be printed (for details cf. Brownlees 1999). In 1665, the main contents of the *Oxford Gazette* were foreign reports, shipping movements, the weekly bills of mortality, King and court, lists of circuit judges and sheriffs – and crime and punishment. Their occurrence in the *Oxford Gazette*, later *The London Gazette*, would be an indicator that these reports were regarded as hard news, printed for the sake of information.

2. Identifying text classes

Foreign news in early newspapers is easy to spot: it usually comes at the front of the paper and has a dateline, which specifies place and date of the report. The only other news on the first page of *The London Gazette* would be ship news. Everything that was not foreign news would be home news: reports from within the shores of England – and Wales, Ireland or Scotland.

For the compilation of the corpus, home news in this wider sense would have yielded a very mixed bag of texts, which would make comparison through the centuries difficult. Therefore we established separate text classes for SHIP NEWS, BIRTHS, DEATHS, ACCIDENTS, CRIME and even a text class LOST-AND-FOUND (cf. Fries 2001). Theoretically at least, all these categories could also be part of foreign news. However, Continental run-away wives, servants or horses would not have been of interest in England and therefore not reported. It would have to be an especially wicked crime that took place somewhere on the continent to be reported in an English newspaper.

(1) Ghent, Octob. 15

One *Louis Pickar*, formerly a Captain of Dragoons in *Holland*, who is accused of having committed several Murthers, and other heynous crimes in the Province of *Utrecht*; having at the desire of the States-General been seized in this City, (whither he was fled) by order of the Prince of *Parma*, and committed prisoner to the *Castle*; and his Highness having Commanded, that he should be put into the hands of the *Fiscael* of *Utrecht*, pursuant to the Directions he had received from *Spain*, the same was executed yesterday;

but the said *Pickar* had not been long in the custody of the *Fiscael*, who was carrying him away in a Coach, when he was rescued by a number of Armed Men, and made his escape. (1681lgz01659)

For the following investigation, crimes committed abroad were not included.

Assigning a newspaper report to a text class is easiest when there are headlines such as *BIRTHS*, *BORN*, *DEATHS*, or *DIED*. For the text class *SHIP NEWS*, the headlines *SHIP NEWS* or *PORT NEWS* were commonly used from the middle of the eighteenth century onwards, with *HOME PORTS* used as an alternative in some papers for two decades in the eighteenth century. The problem encountered is that, during the whole period, there were similar texts without any headline at all – but with exactly the same contents: these texts we classified as *SHIP NEWS* as well. The criterion for inclusion was, therefore, only the contents of the article.

With the text class *CRIME* there are no headlines that could be of any help. We have, therefore, to define what we want to include in this text class solely on the basis of the contents of the texts, and, unfortunately, there will never be a solution that can encompass all cases. In the textclass *CRIME* we have not only included reports of crimes, but also reports of imprisonment and court hearings following a crime, as these closely belong to the crimes perpetrated. The assignment of text classes in the *ZEN Corpus* is, unfortunately, not absolutely consistent. Many of the crime reports discussed here are, in fact, classified in *ZEN* as belonging to the text class *CRIME*, but there are also items that may be hidden as *HOME NEWS*.

3. Borderline cases

There are a number of borderline cases, which one might want to exclude from the study of crime reports proper.

3.1 Introductory *whereas*

There are instances of crime reporting that look like official, legal announcements or advertisements.

- (2) WHereas on *Wednesday* last the 19th instant, between 5 and 7 in the Evening, there was taken away from a certain Gentleman in *Duke Street* in St. James's, One Olive-colour'd Cloth Coat, lined with a Shalloon of the same colour, Trim'd with Silver, and large Buttons, and Button-holes, very little wore, together with several other Goods of value. If any such Goods are offered either to be Pawnd or Sold, you are desired to give Notice forthwith to Mr.

Robert Cleasby at his House in Coal-Yard at the upper end Drury-Lane, and for Reward the Discoverer shall receive Four Guinea's, provided the Goods be recovered by the Discovery. (1701ept00057)

Texts of this type are characterised by an introductory *whereas* in the first sentence, followed by some advice of how to act (*If any such Goods are offered [...] you are desired to give Notice*), and concluded by a reference to the reward that will be given if the goods are recovered. All is expressed by a very formal use of language.

These texts are always bipartite in structure, basically consisting of a description of the crime and of the reward promised. The text type is also typical and commonly used for bankruptcy notices, which appeared almost exclusively in *The London Gazette*.

- (3) Whereas a Commission of Bankrupt hath been Awarded against George Fothergill, late of the City of York, Grocer, all Persons that owe him any Money, or that have any Goods or other Effects of his in their hands, are not to pay or deliver the same to any person, but to such only as shall be appointed by the Commissioners; but they are forthwith to give Notice of the said Bankrupts Goods and Effects to Mr. Daniel Oley, at his House in Bread-Street, London, or they will be sued. (1701fpt00884)

In the ZEN Corpus, there are 134 instances of these bankruptcy texts beginning with the phrase *Whereas a Commission of Bankrupt*, during the period from 1701 to 1791. They are certainly not texts written by the newspaper staff, but must have been sent to the paper by the Commissioners responsible for the matter. In the corpus, they were put into a text class ANNOUNCEMENTS. By the newspapers of the day they were also seen as advertisements.

During the first half of the eighteenth century such constructions are also used for reports of thefts or run-away servants, such as this one, in the advertisement section:

- (4) WHereas Henry Hibbert, a tall thin Man, with short black curled hair, aged about 34, Servant to Mr. Benj. Niccoll, Merchant in Watlin Street, London, has been absent from his service ever since Thursday last, and has carried with him a considerable summ of Money of the said Mr. Niccolls and other things. If he will return to his service, he shall be kindly received, or whosoever shall secure him, and give notice thereof to Mr. Mossey, Apothecary at the Rose and Crown in Watlin Street near Bread Street, shall have 5 Guineas reward. Benj. Niccoll. (1701pmn00946)