

Genre–Linguistic Analysis of Errata Texts in Arabic

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Abstract—News accuracy has been a significant issue for media organizations. However, Arabic errata texts have been neglected in academic research. The purpose of the present study is to identify the generic structural components of errata published in three different types of Arabic texts. We attempt to analyse the generic structure of these texts and determine the linguistic signals used to indicate these components. The paper also sheds light on the different kinds of errors found in Arabic texts and the functions they communicate to readers. For this, we collected and analysed 120 errata from Arabic daily newspapers, academic journals, and popular magazines. For our data analysis, we drew on the genre analysis framework pioneered by Swales (1990) and further adapted by other researchers such as Al-Ali (2005). We additionally referred to Bugeja and Peterson (2007) for classifying the types of errors. The study results show that the analysed Arabic errata texts followed a generic structure comprising eight component moves. Further, objective errors were found to be more frequent than subjective errors in Arabic newspapers and academic journals. We hope that similar future studies further the current understanding of genre identification and construction, especially in Arabic errata texts.

Index Terms—component move, errata, error, genre, genre analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Genre analysis is commonplace for researchers. It also has a special value in spoken and written discourse. The rising interest in genres and genre analysis can be attributed to pedagogical purposes for native and non-native speakers of English (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993). Hyland (2004) demonstrates that genre is a theory of language that can provide authoritative pedagogy research of texts and contexts. It is important because it provides opportunities for teachers to examine the structure underlying a text. Genres reveal inseparable connections between text types and language.

The term *genre* originated from French and simply means *kind* or *sort* (McQuail, 2010). It can also be defined as order (Silverblatt, 2007). The notion of genres has been used in different fields such as linguistics, folk studies, and literary studies. Todorov (1975) states that “genres exist as an institution that they function as horizons of expectation for readers, and as models of writing for authors” (p. 163). Ben-Amos (1976) further demonstrates that genres work as classificatory categories for any piece of research. In addition, Fowler (1982) discusses the importance of genre analysis as a system of communication that supports writers; this system functions as a facilitator for critics and readers when they read and interpret literary texts.

Genres provide highly organized rules and conventions on structures and features of texts for writers and readers. They further place constraints on the processes of production and perception of meaning. As Frow (2005) puts it, “Genre shapes strategies for occasions, it gets a certain kind of work done” (p. 14). Halliday (1961) further states that language consists of patterns that follow a particular meaningful structure. Hymes (1974) adds that genres play a critical role in communicative events, as they represent important language features in linguistic theory. Additionally, Martin (1985) illustrates the relationship between language and genres: Genres are ways to get things done in different situations, and language is used to make different genres.

The notion of a genre refers to a linguistic realization of language in social and cultural events. Swales (1990) defines genre as “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre” (p. 58).

Genre analysis helps one understand how to use language within an important discourse community. People refer to the genre in different aspects of life. As Devitt (2004) argues, “Genre pervades human lives” (p. 1). Researchers have been interested in examining genres in various academic and professional settings such as reports, abstracts, and introductions. In this study, focusing on the genre of errata texts, we undertake a genre analysis of various kinds of texts in Arabic.

People consider mass media an essential source of knowledge and information. By mass media, we mean print publications (newspapers and magazines), electronic or broadcast media (radio and television) and the internet and

various computer-based technologies (email, instant messaging, and online chat). News organizations make errors while reporting the news. When errors are identified, all necessary steps should be taken to inform readers of them and amend these errors.

Accuracy research is not a recent development. The question of accuracy has been investigated since the 1930s (Barkin & Levy, 1983). In June 1972, *The Times* began to follow regular correction policies. In 1975, *The Post* instituted a corrections box for the first time, but corrections did not appear regularly. Patel (2003) states that humans show a lot of creativity to avoid apologizing for wrongdoings. Errata texts play an important role in mass media. However, as a genre, they have largely been neglected in research.

To acknowledge errors, most news organizations publish correction notices or errata. The purpose of errata is to provide accurate events (Appelman & Hettinga, 2021). Errata are described as “typically published briefs explaining an error that has occurred and providing accurate information” (Joseph, 2011, p. 706). They are published changes or amendments to an article published earlier with significant errors such as misquotations and wrong numbers or images. Many reasons can lead to errors and errata, such as deadline pressures and the extreme pace of activity in newsrooms (Berry & Fred, 1966). Barkin and Levy (1983) indicate that there are variations in editorial processes in terms of definition and acknowledgement of errors and procedures of corrections.

Micciche (1982) considered corrections as a positive development, because they seek to improve the credibility of news organizations (Barkin & Levy, 1983; Kampf & Daskal, 2014). Promoting accuracy is an important way to build trust (Silverman, 2007), but corrections also have some negative effects. For example, they could decrease the level of credibility (Cremedas, 1992) or lead to the threat of lawsuits (Silverman, 2007; Barkin & Levy, 1983). The errata genre is purposeful for writers and readers.

The purpose of this research is to identify the generic structural moves of three different types of errata texts written in Arabic. We attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What are the common generic moves across various errata texts written in Arabic?
2. What kinds of errors do media organizations correct?

Although previous studies have investigated the concept of accuracy and correction policies, none has presented a systematic description of the linguistic and component features of errata texts in Arabic. Moreover, researchers have only examined one type of text such as newspapers. No study has examined the similarities and differences between various kinds of Arabic texts regarding the origins, identification of errors, and construction of errata texts. This study matters, since no research has examined the Arabic errata genre in terms of its strategic component patterns.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Studies on Genre Analysis

Many researchers have investigated genre analysis. For instance, Ventola (1983) examined the schematic structure of service encounter texts; a text here is described as a unique semantic unit with a recognizable unified whole. Then, Motta-Roth (1998) conducted generic-structure research on book reviews in English. The book review genre articulated two communicative purposes, description and evaluation, with varying degrees across disciplinary boundaries. The study covered 60 texts from the most cited journals in three different fields: chemistry, economics, and linguistics. Analysis of the sample revealed that book reviews used regular discourse patterns; particularly, four basic rhetorical moves with accompanying steps were identified in the corpus.

Salager-Meyer (1990) explored the generic structure of abstracts in different medical text types. The researcher tested the discourse structure of 77 abstracts from 37 medical English journals and found that about 50% of the abstracts were well structured. Most abstracts only included one paragraph, and good abstracts followed a regular pattern of four basic moves: (a) purpose and methods, (b) results, (c) conclusions, and (d) recommendations. Poorly structured abstracts, whereas, lacked basic units or moves.

Seven years later, Nwogu (1997) described the generic structure of medical research papers using a genre analysis. The sample of this study included 15 articles from five medical journals. Every text in the sample followed the traditional format for content presentation, including the introduction, research method, results, and discussion sections. All sections consisted of functional segments of information or moves. Seven moves were determined to be obligatory. By contrast, four schematic units were found to be required less by researchers and thus were deemed optional structures. The medical discourse community might have implicit knowledge of the written discourse structure.

Further, Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans (2002) conducted a genre analysis of editorial letters addressed to reviewers. Their sample included 53 editorial letters written by Dudley-Evans, the co-editor of *English for Specific Purposes Journal*. The letters were found to comprise four basic moves. Al-Ali (2005), additionally, examined the rhetorical features of obituary announcements in two national Jordanian newspapers. The corpus included 200 death announcements that were randomly selected from *Al Ra'y and Ads-Dustour* newspapers. The obituary notices were divided into two types of subgenres: (a) announcements of normal deaths and (b) announcements of ‘martyr's weddings’ for unusual deaths. Both kinds had remarkable similarities in their schematic structure, but they communicated content according to their communicative functions. Normal death notices were used to publicize deaths and also revealed information about the cultural practices and constraints in Arab society. Analysis of the data showed that there were nine functional component moves. Moreover, religion and social factors were found to be influential in

shaping the death announcements genre.

Finally, Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) examined the schematic component moves of Jordanian wedding invitations. The study sample included 55 invitations collected from different sources. The analysis of the sample showed that the wedding invitations followed an organizational pattern and consisted of eight strategic moves—six necessary and two optional.

B. Studies on Errata

Accuracy and correction policies have attracted the attention of news organizations, scholars, and critics. Particularly, the accuracy of media has been studied from several angles. However, to the best of our knowledge, no study has investigated the errata genre in Arabic. Nevertheless, it would be beneficial to consider what has been investigated in other languages such as English after nearly 70 years of research on accuracy.

One of the pioneers of accuracy research was Charnley (1936), who attempted to develop a feasible technique to ascertain the number of errors in factual news. Another purpose of his study was to discover the most common errors in newspapers, the frequency of these errors, and their sources. To this end, Charnley selected 1,000 objective stories randomly from Minneapolis daily newspapers. The stories discussed simple, “straight news” stories. All the stories were attached to a questionnaire and mailed to people cited as sources in the stories. Errors were classified into three categories: typographical errors, meaning errors, and errors of writers. The respondents were requested to furnish their opinions on the accuracy of certain stories. From the total of 1,000 stories, only 591 were returned by the recipients. The results of Charnley's analysis revealed that about half of the corpus included errors. Moreover, there were various kinds of errors in the stories, with the most frequent ones involving meaning, names, and titles.

Later, Brown (1965) followed Charnley's (1936) technique to check the accuracy of 200 stories chosen at random from 42 Oklahoma non-metropolitan daily newspapers. Of these, 143 stories were checked by news sources and returned with responses. Brown's analysis revealed that 40% of the news sources could find errors in the data. Further, 58 stories were inaccurate, with a total of 23 errors. The most frequent errors were miscellaneous factual errors and misquotations.

Two years later, Berry and Fred (1967) undertook a comparative analysis of Charnley (1936) and Brown (1965) and found that 46.3% of the analysed stories were completely accurate. The inaccuracies resulted from the short time available to news staff for gathering and processing much information. The accuracy of the stories decreased according to the time available for handling them. The errors identified in the stories were grouped into two categories: objective and subjective errors. The most frequent objective errors were found to be misquotations (13.1%) and misspellings (12.9%), while the study participants also reported instances of subjective errors such as omissions (16%) and inaccurate headlines (12.9%).

Further, Blankenburg (1970), also using mail survey, reviewed the accuracy of 332 local stories published during 1967–1968 in two West Coast newspapers. Approximately half of all news stories were found to contain errors. However, subjective errors were not realized as more serious than objective errors.

Singletary and Lipsky (1977) then conducted a study on television newscasts. The researchers recorded air reports from three stations, which they later transcribed and sent to respondents along with a questionnaire. They found that more than half (64.5%) of the respondents evaluated the stories as entirely correct, and about 80% could locate one error in the data. The sources reported instances of objective or factual errors, about 60%. Factual errors included wrong time statements and flaws in descriptions and identification. They could further find examples of subjective errors, such as complications in stories. Moreover, some statements were described as ambiguous or misleading, accounting for 37% of the errors. The survey also included questions on the causes of errors, which were found to be lack of sufficient time on television and the failure of reporters and editors to perform tasks adequately.

Further, Micciche (1982) examined accuracy in 156 corrections in *The Boston Globe*. There were 17 clarifications, five omissions, and two editor's notes over a period of 272 days. The newspaper ran corrections under a standard heading, “*For the Record*”. To report inaccuracies, an average of two corrections were made every three days. However, 57 out of the 156 corrections avoided suggesting any sources of errors. Some errata sections reported factors of errors, such as reporting errors, editing errors, and wire services.

In addition, Tillinghast (1982) examined news sources' and reporters' perceptions of errors in two newspapers. A total of 270 articles were selected and sent to sources along with a survey to seek their perceptions of errors. Subsequently, 47 reporters judged these stories and completed a survey, reporting that 47% of the stories included errors. The reasons for these errors were disputed. The news sources considered reporters' haste to be the most common reason for errors (89%) and felt that the major cause of inaccuracies was carelessness.

Barkin and Levy (1983) later examined microfilms of 450 corrections in two dailies, *The New York Times* and *The Washington Post*. The researchers concluded that the newspapers included an average of one correction per day. Approximately half of the correction notices pertained to local news, and all notices involved either objective or subjective errors. Across both newspapers, objective errors accounted for 87.7% of the errata text, with subjective errors contributing the remaining 12.3%. Inaccuracies were found to be caused by reporting, typographical, and printing errors. In most cases, neither newspaper included explanations for the errors in the corpus.

Two years later, Burriss (1985) studied the perceptions of accuracy in two magazines. The results revealed that the interviewees considered more than 90% of news stories accurate. Nevertheless, about 8% identified misquotes –

excerpts taken out of context. Further, in an analysis of correction policies, Fowler and Mumert (1988) investigated participants' beliefs and practices concerning newspapers and the process of publishing corrections. Corrections were used to fix certain kinds of errors such as misspelt names, omission of facts, and wrong figures. About 70% of the respondents stated that they had a corrections policy, whereas 24.2% claimed that they followed a written policy for correction notices. An important aspect of these notices was the suggestion of justifications for errors.

Subsequently, Cremedas (1992) investigated accuracy and correction policies in broadcasts and found that all local television news departments made on-air corrections. Among these, subjective errors were found to be less frequent than objective errors. A decade later, Maier (2002) assessed the perceptions of news sources' accuracy and credibility through surveys. The participants pointed out factual errors such as wrong numbers and misquotations, which accounted for 57% of all errors.

In another study, Bugeja and Peterson (2007) described the features of corrections in U.S. newspapers. A high percentage of newspapers were found to identify and amend errors. Further, there were more objective errors – mainly wrong information – than subjective errors. The most common subjective error was misquoting (6.3%). Great efforts were made to confront any imperfection in scientific publications. Additionally, Erfanmanesh and Morovati (2019) explored the structure of corrections of several studies published in Library and Information Science (LIS) journals. They observed that journals published corrections with an average of 7.38%. The largest number of errors involved references, author information, figures, and tables. The USA registered the highest number of errata in LIS journals, followed by China and England, respectively. The corrections might have resulted from editing or reporting errors and other reasons. Lastly, Appelman and Hettinga (2021) examined perceptions of errata in online news media and found that most of the participants identified corrections.

Altogether, several studies have employed genre analysis, although they vary in focus and research methodologies. Accuracy is a very important issue to news organizations. Correction notices include details about policies implemented in news organizations, types of errors, and sections of errors. Yet, none of the above-discussed studies included a systematic description of linguistic features of the errata genre in Arabic.

III. CORPUS CONSTRUCTION AND METHODOLOGY

In this section, we examine the rhetorical, organizational, and linguistic structure of corrections. Before collecting texts, we conducted a preliminary analysis of several errata texts published in Arabic newspapers and magazines. The purpose was to examine the similarities and differences across these Arabic texts. During the initial analysis, we noticed that media organizations published corrections and that there were similarities among these texts. It is worth studying the errata genre across different types of Arabic texts. Thus, for this study, we collected 120 texts from online archives of three kinds of Arabic texts. All the texts were electronically scanned and converted into text files. The errata texts were also transcribed and translated into English. A list of phonetic symbols needed in the transcription of the Arabic texts is provided in the appendix.

The corpus included 120 errata texts that were published in national newspapers, popular magazines, and academic journals. Of these, 40 were collected from two national Jordanian daily newspapers, *Al Ra'y* and *Ads-Dustour*, and another 40 were drawn from seven popular Arabic magazines: *Al-Arabi*, *Sbahelkheer*, *Arabic Magazine*, *Layalina*, *Sayidaty*, *Laha*, and *Aljaras*. The last 40 correction notices were collected from nine Arabic academic journals: *AlBuhouth AlIslamia*, *AlTurath AlArabi*, *AlArab*, *AlLisan AlArabi*, *Arabic Jordanian Majma*, *Arabic Scientific Majma*, *AlMurid*, *Arabic Majma*, and *AlThaqafa AlShabia*. All 120 texts were written in Arabic by native speakers of the language, who have been anonymized.

Genre analysts have largely investigated texts. According to Martin and Rothery (1986), the notion of genres can refer to “the staged purposeful social processes through which a culture is realized in language” (as cited in Silverman, 2007, p. 41). It is worth noting that a genre moves through different stages before reaching the final goal of the writer. It is social because generic texts are organized according to contexts and cultures. Samovar and Porter (1994) admit that culture is a complex topic: It is the deposit of religion, beliefs, values, and attitudes. Moreover, language and culture cannot be separated; culture influences the way people utilize language in different communicative events. Thus, culture could define the organization of texts and linguistic strategies used by Arab writers.

Many studies involving genre analysis have employed the generic schematic structure. While corrections are common in media, they contain differences in structure and linguistic features. Thus, readers, expert editors, and journalists can identify errata texts using schemata, which are associated with knowledge of texts (Motta-Roth, 1998). Schemata can be classified into two kinds: formal schemata and content schemata. While the latter are related to the existing knowledge of the world and cultures, formal schemata concern knowledge about the structure of written texts (Toledo, 2005). Both kinds of schemata provide support for the perception of errata texts.

In this research, we study errata texts in terms of the component moves that constitute texts, using propositional content, linguistic means, and boundary indicators. According to Swales (1990), the constituent components of a genre are shaped by the communicative purposes constrained by social values and conventions. Halliday and Hasan (1989) further show that identifying the boundaries of structural elements in texts is essential. Texts consist of obligatory and optional elements that help to define their genres. Further, even texts belonging to the same genre have different structures and linguistic features. To answer our first research question, we follow Swales' approach of genre move

analysis (1990) with some modifications.

Nwogu (1997) defines generic moves as knowledge structures organized in hierarchical order. These knowledge structures are defined by special linguistic elements. Our analysis of the generic structure of our sample errata revealed eight move components. After discussing the division of errata genre moves, we coded all the texts for component moves. Further, to check the realization of internal segments, we informed a linguist about the purposes of the study and the characterization of moves. Then, the trained linguist was requested to code 40 texts. Upon checking inter-rater reliability, we found an agreement rate of 90% in identifying 40% of the generic moves in 48 errata texts.

To answer the second question in this research, we classified the errors in the investigated Arabic texts into two groups: objective errors and subjective errors. Objective errors here are defined as mechanical errors or factual mistakes, such as spelling or typographical errors, whereas subjective errors are associated with interpretation and meaning – errors of judgment. In dividing the errata texts according to the types of errors, we followed the model of Bugeja and Peterson (2007), with some modifications in the categories. Further, in the case of errata texts including several errors, we examined only the first instance of an error type; the generic structures of other errors of the same type were not analysed.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we present the findings from our data analysis. We performed both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the component moves of the chosen errata texts. Moreover, the section sheds light on the types of errors identified in the data and whether there are significant differences across newspapers, magazines, and academic journals in terms of the composition of errata texts and reporting of errors to readers.

A. Generic Structure of Errata

In this study, we investigated 120 errata texts that appeared in Arabic national newspapers, popular magazines, and academic journals. All the texts were written in Arabic by native speakers of Arabic. This section addresses the first research question: What are the common generic moves across various errata texts written in Arabic? Analysis of the data revealed that eight component moves organized the errata genre. These segments of information were often used with varying degrees of regularity (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
AVERAGE NUMBER OF COMPONENT MOVES IN ARABIC ERRATA

Component Moves of Errata	Newspapers		Popular Magazines		Academic Journals	
	No. of Moves	Percentage	No. of Moves	Percentage	No. of Moves	Percentage
Heading	40	100	40	100	40	100
Opening	33	82.5	38	95	38	95
Error identification	40	100	40	100	40	100
Provision of Explanation for errors	9	22.5	20	50	8	20
Provision of corrections	38	95	38	95	39	97.5
Future procedures to avoid errors	2	5	5	12.5	2	5
Closing	37	92.5	27	67.5	21	52.5
Signing off	1	2.5	10	25	24	60

From our data analysis, we found that the Arabic errata texts contained organizational schematic structures and eight component moves that varied in length. In the following subsections, we analyse in detail the individual generic moves of the texts in the sample, providing illustrative examples for each component move.

Heading

The errata texts opened with a heading, which was the first move. Appearing in bold and in a different font size from the running text, the heading presented the readers with an idea about the topic of discourse. It varied across different types of texts. The heading could be considered an obligatory move, since it was found in every text in the sample, although realized in different ways. Among the Jordanian newspapers, journalists and editors included errata with the heading *tanwiih* (Notice) in 72.5% of instances. Another 15% of newspaper errata texts opened with the title *tanwiih wa ʔisʔti ʔaar* (Notice and Apology), reflecting the importance of setting the record straight for writers and readers. Very few authors utilized regular titles to refer to corrections (3%).

Further, among the examined magazines, 60% used typical titles for errata texts. The next most frequent heading was *taʔwiib/taʔhiih* (Correction), accounting for 12.5% of the magazine texts. Another 10% of the errata texts were titled *ʔisʔti ʔaar* (Apology), reflecting the communicative purpose of the texts. Meanwhile, in academic journals, the most common heading was the noun phrase *taʔliiq/taʔqiiib ʔla X* (Comment on X), appearing in 25% of the sample. Lastly, about 18% of the errata texts in newspapers were entitled *taʔliiq/taʔqiiib* (Comment). It became clear that writers used different forms of headings while producing errata texts.

Opening

Before acknowledging errors to the audience, news staff introduced the topic of the errata texts to readers. They set the scene for readers, mentioning the topic of the original article, the error, title, time, and section. The second component of errata texts that we investigated was this opening, considered an optional move. We noticed that 95% of the errata texts in the Arabic magazines and academic journals employed the opening move, compared to about 83% in the newspapers. Below are three examples of this move.

Example 1:

saqata sahwān fī al-maqal al-manfūr yawm al-ʔahad al-muwaafiq 31 ayaar 2015 lil-kaatebah al-muhandisah X tahta ʔunwaan al-wasfa as-sehryah: kayfa taltāqi al-masāaleh fī qitaaf at-taqah al-mutajadidah fī al-ʔurdun.

‘An error occurred in the article, which was published on Sunday 31 June 2015, entitled “The Magical Recipe: How do interests meet in the renewable energy sector in Jordan”, for the writer X.’

(The above excerpt was taken from one of the examined newspapers. It includes one sentence that presents the topic to readers. The opening move presents information about the title of the article and the author, as well as the date of publication.)

Example 2:

taʔsaf X li-maa warada fī xabariha almanfūr ʔams bi-faʔn ʔintixabaat ʔitihaad ʔal-kuttaab al-ʔurduniyin fī ʔadad ʔams ʔafhah 30, aθ-θaqaafah.

‘X regrets what appeared in the news, which was published on page 30, in the Culture section yesterday, regarding the elections of the Jordanian Writers Union.’

Example 3:

lii mujarad taʔwiib wa taʔliiq baʔiit ʔala maa nufira fī bab (ʔuʔaf min at-tariix) al-ʔadad (547) yuunyū 2004.

‘I just have a small correction and comment about what has been published in the section Ray from History, in issue 547 on June 2004.’

These extracts show that the opening move was used to introduce the errata text to readers. Further, move 2 (opening) provided additional information to help readers process the errors.

Error Identification

The third move in the errata texts was to identify errors in name, age, or spelling, omission, and so on. Error identification was found to be an obligatory move occurring in all errata texts in the sample. Following are examples of this move.

Example 1:

warada ʔism af-ʔahiid al-baʔal X xaʔaʔ.

‘The name of the martyr X was wrong’.

Example 2:

ʔi ʔ tamma qalb harf al-haaʔ ʔila taaʔ marbuuʔah fī muxtalaf al-mawduʔaat al-manfūrah ʔalaa ʔsaʔhatayn ʔl-ma ʔkuuratayn

‘The letter *h* was changed to the letter *t* in different topics that were published in the before-mentioned pages.’

It is important for news outlets to check the level of accuracy of events. When flaws are found, news outlets must publish errata texts as soon as possible. Our investigation showed that errors could be identified by authors of newspapers, magazines, or academic journals.

Provision of Explanation for Errors

The fourth move in the errata texts was to shed light to the readership on possible reasons behind errors. This was not a necessary move, and we found significant differences among Arabic texts in the use of this move. First, while Arabic public magazines offered reasons for errors in 50% of the correction texts, whereas, only about 20% of newspapers and academic journals provided such justifications. Moreover, writers identified different reasons for the errors, such as printing or technical errors. Some organizations even blamed journalists or sources, as shown in the following examples.

Example 1:

X tuʔiid nafra haa ʔa al-xabar bi-sabab xaʔaʔ fannii.

‘X publishes this news with the photo again due to a technical error.’

Example 2:

xaʔaʔ ʔayri al-maʔsuud min al-maʔdar

‘There was an unintentional error from the source of information.’

From previous examples, it is noticed that some news outlets published errata along with providing excuses for the problems. They decided to inform readers about the internal processes as part of the readership.

Provision of Corrections

The most essential component of the errata texts was the fifth move: providing corrections for errors such as wrong photographs or incorrect dates. This move was aimed at articulating the communicative purpose of the errata, that is, setting the record straight. Most of the investigated Arabic errata texts included corrections, which were often just one sentence or simply a phrase, as shown in the following examples.

Example 1:

fī hiin al-mawʔid aʔ-ʔahiih huwa fī al-ʔifriin min af-ʔahr al-muqbel wa al- ʔ yusaadif yawm al-xamiis.

‘While the correct date was the 20th of the following month, which is Thursday.’

Example 2:

suurit al-ṣayn X badalan min suurit al-liwaaʔ al-rukun X.

‘Photograph of X instead of the photograph of X.’

Future Procedures to Avoid Errors

The sixth move involved suggesting future steps to avoid errors. This component move was found to be optional. We identified it in only 5% of the Arabic errata texts in newspapers and academic journals and about 13% of those in magazines.

News organizations are considered an important source of truth. Thus, when inaccuracies are found, news outlets must take some measures to avoid further such errors, such as following a strict reviewing process, and show greater commitment to reporting the truth. In this regard, the following extracts are worth looking at.

Example 1:

wa qad daʔabat al-majalah ṣinda taḥriir kul maadah taṣel ʔilayha, muraajaʔatahaa wa at-taʔakud min ṣadam nafriha fi maṭbuuʕah ʔuxraa, wa lil-ʔasaf raṣadnaa qaaʔimah kabiirah mi-man yursel li-ʔakṯar min majalah, ʔidaʔah ʔila an-nafr fi al-mawaaʔiṣ al-ʔiliktruuniah, wa qad ʔitaxaḍat X ʔijraaʔ bi-ṣadam nafr telk al-mawaaʔ wa-waḍʕ mursalahaa fi qaaʔimah sawdaaʔ.

‘Thus, the magazine began to review every submission it received and ensure that it had not appeared in another publication. Unfortunately, we identified a long list of those who submit papers to different journals or websites. The magazine made a decision not to publish these papers and to add the authors to the blacklist.’

Example 2:

wa tuṣaahid al-qurraʔ al-ʔaṣiʔaaʔ ṣala al-ṣamal li-manṣ ḥudiiṯih mustaqbalan wa as-ṣaṣii daaʔiman littahḍiiṯ wa at-ṭwiir.

‘We promise the readers to work to avoid the error in the future, and we look forward to modernization and development.’

Closing

The next component move in the studied Arabic errata texts was the closing. Authors did not close errata texts abruptly; rather, they offered concluding remarks. This move was also found to be optional and often contained one or two sentences. About 93% of the texts in Jordanian newspapers offered a closing, compared to 67.5% in magazine texts and 52.5% in academic journals. Here are some examples of this move.

Example 1:

ʔanna ʔaṣlamu ʔanna X daʔiiqah fi maṣluumaatihaa bi-hukm ʔintizaamii fi qiraaʔatiha munḍ ʔuguud min al-zaman wa ʔazunu ʔanna haaḍaa al-xaṭaʔ huwa kabwat faris.

maṣ taḥiyaatii wa umniyaati la-kum.

‘I know that X reports accurate information, as I am a regular reader for decades, and I think that as any horse may stumble, so any sage may err.

With greetings and best wishes.’

Example 2:

li-ḍa ʔiqṭada at-tanwiih wa al-ʔiṣṭiḍaar ṣan ha ḍa al-xaṭaʔ ʔayri al-maṣsuud.

‘Therefore, it was necessary to publish a notice and apologize for the error.’

The closing included appraisals and thanks to news outlets from readers. Journalists and editors expressed apologies and regret for errors.

Signing Off

The last move was signing off, where writers stated their ownership of the errata texts by including their name and country of origin. While signing off was not considered necessary, 60% of the sample texts in Arabic academic journals employed this move, as well as 25% in Arabic popular magazines. By contrast, there was a sole instance of this component move among the national Jordanian newspapers.

Overall, the errata texts we investigated contained patterned structures of language, specifically, eight component moves – three obligatory and five optional. Each component move was about a sentence or two long. The texts communicated their purpose and regret for the errors.

B. Error Types Analysis

As seen above, the investigated Arabic newspapers, public magazines, and academic journals acknowledged errors and corrected them. These errors were categorized into two types: objective and subjective. Table 2 presents the distribution of objective errors across the Arabic publications.

TABLE 2
TYPES OF OBJECTIVE ERRORS ACROSS ARABIC PUBLICATIONS

Objective Errors	Newspapers		Magazines		Academic Journals	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Misidentification (name, occupation, label)	17	42.5	5	12.5	4	10
Wrong number (size and figures)	7	17.5	0	0	1	2.5
Wrong location	2	5	0	0	1	2.5
Wrong time or date	1	2.5	1	2.5	2	5
Spelling errors, grammar errors, typos	1	2.5	2	5	11	27.5
Wrong attribution	1	2.5	1	2.5	3	7.5
Wrong description (age, race, gender, nationality)	0	0	4	10	3	7.5
Wrong image or graphic	4	10	3	7.5	0	0
Total	33	82.5%	16	40%	25	62.5%

Analysis of the data revealed that more than 80% of the corrections in Arabic Jordanian newspapers pertained to objective errors. The most frequent objective errors included misidentification (N = 40, 42.5%), followed by wrong numbers (N = 40, 17.5%) and wrong images (N = 40, 10%). In public magazines, meanwhile, the most common objective error was misidentification (12.5%), followed by wrong descriptions (10%) and wrong images (8%). For academic journals, the most frequent error included spelling or grammar errors (27.5%), followed by misidentification (10%). Below are two examples of identification of objective errors.

Example 1:

ʔi ʔ taḍammāna al-xabar taraajuʕ mustawradat al-mamlakah min al-petrol al-xaam min 152.152 milyaar diinar fi kaanuun aθ-θaani ʕaam 2014 ʔila 840.63 li-naʕs al-fatrah min ʕaam 2015, wa aʕ-sawaab 152.152 milyuun diinar.

‘Thus, the news included a decline in Jordan's imports of petrol from JD152.152 billion on January 2014 to JD 842.63 billion for the same period in 2015. The correction was JD 152.152 million.’

Example 2:

warada xataʔ fi ʕunwaan al-xabar al-manfuur ʔala aʕ-safha al-ʔuula min al-juʕ aθ-θaani fi ʔadad yawm ʔams.

‘An error occurred in the title of the news which was published on the first page in the second section of the newspaper.’

Next, we examine the other category of errors addressed in Arabic errata texts, subjective errors. Table 3 presents the distribution of subjective errors across the sample.

TABLE 3
TYPES OF SUBJECTIVE ERRORS ACROSS ARABIC PUBLICATIONS

Subjective Errors	Newspapers		Magazines		Academic Journals	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Misquotation	3	7.5	3	7.5	4	10
Omission (name, source, word)	2	5	1	2.5	0	0
Wrong interpretation	0	0	2	5	7	17.5
Inappropriate topic, word	1	2.5	2	5	0	0
Plagiarism	0	0	1	2.5	1	2.5
Fabricated material	1	2.5	15	37.5	3	7.5
Total	7	17.5%	24	60%	15	37.5%

There were different examples of subjective errors across the studied popular Arabic magazines, with the most common type being fabricated material (37.5%). Other kinds of subjective errors included misquotations (7.5%), inappropriate choice of words or topics (5%), and misinterpretations (5%). One serious error of judgment was plagiarism; nevertheless, only one erratum included this error.

Among the academic journals, wrong interpretations were identified as the most common error type, contributed by 18% of the texts. Other subjective errors included misquotations (10%) and fabricated material (7.5%). Misquotes were the most common errors in newspapers (7.5%). The below example is of the sole subjective error of plagiarism addressed.

wa haqiiqah natawaaʕ min kul baahith wa ʔakaadiimi ʔan yuqadim nitaaj bahith wa juhdih, wa lais juhdi al-ʔaaxariin, li-ʔanna maa qadamahu ad-duktuur X yuʕtabar sariqah ʔadabiyah, wa fi al-waqt ʕiatuh xidaaʕan li-majalah tahtarim maa tuqadimuh li-quraaʔihaa.

‘In fact, we expect every researcher and scholar to provide the results of his research and hard work, not others' work, as what D.X submitted was considered plagiarism. At the same time, it is deceiving for a magazine which selects appropriate content for readers.’

The above excerpt illustrates that the article published in the magazine included an error. The author violated the ethics of writing and was accused of plagiarism. Overall, the investigated errata texts addressed different kinds of objective errors and subjective errors. Objective errors were found to be more common than errors of judgment. Editors seek to maintain good relationships with readers and restore the latter's trust through identifying errors and providing

apologies for any inaccuracies.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents the conclusions of the study. First, we restate the primary purpose of the study and present some of the main findings. Then, we provide some recommendations for future researchers.

Conclusions

Accuracy is an important issue in the news industry. Thus, in this study, we conducted a schematic genre analysis to examine the generic components of errata texts in Arabic media. The texts revealed regularities and schematic organization, and most corrections offered were clear and concise. Errata were found not only in newspapers, but also in magazines, supporting Burriss (1985). Different varieties of Arabic texts published errata. Most of these texts stated errors and also offered corrections, in line with the findings of Bugeja and Peterson (2007). Further, across the different publication types, the maximum corrections were found to be offered for objective errors (N = 120, 61.6%), confirming the findings of Singletary and Lipsky (1977), Cremedas (1992), Barkin and Levy (1983), and Maier (2002). Misidentifications and misquotes were the most frequent types of errors addressed in the errata texts. Further, authors stated reasons for the inaccuracies, such as reporting and editing errors. This finding is in accord with Singletary and Lipsky (1977), Micciche (1982), and Barkin and Levy (1983).

Culture plays an important role in shaping the errata genre. We realized this through identifying the use of different forms of honorifics in the analysed errata texts; writers used words such as *ʔustaa ʔ* ('Professor'), *ad-duktuur* ('Doctor'), and *as-sayed* ('Mr.'), perhaps to show respect to readers and organizations. Use of these forms of address might have also been meant to show awareness of social and cultural conventions of Arab communities. This finding is consistent with Al-Ali (2010) and Momani and Al-Refaei (2010).

Recommendations

In this study, we explored the manifestation of a neglected area of research: the errata genre. Further research in this area could have the following objectives:

1. Examining corrections in print and online magazines and newspapers;
2. Shedding light on Arab and Jordanian editors' perceptions of errata;
3. Exploring whether news organizations use 'accuracy checks' to ensure accuracy and fairness; and examining corrections using different methods, such as interviews with reporters, news outlets, editors, and readers.

APPENDIX

TABLE 1
LIST OF PHONETIC SYMBOLS

Symbol	Place and Manner of Articulation
ʔ	glottal stop
ʕ	voiced pharyngeal fricative
q	voiceless uvular stop
g	voiced velar stop
ḏ	emphatic voiced alveolar stop
ḏ	voiced interdental fricative,
ḏ	emphatic voiced alveolar fricative
θ	voiceless interdental fricative
h	voiceless glottal fricative
ħ	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
x	voiceless uvular fricative
y	voiced uvular fricative
a	short central low vowel
i	short front high vowel
u	short back high vowel
aa	long central low vowel
ii	long front high vowel
uu	long back high vowel

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