

Poles Apart? The Extent of Similarity between Online Extremist and Non-Extremist Message Content

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The authors declare a potential conflict of interest and state it below

Professor Paul J Taylor holds a position as Chief Scientific Advisor on Policing at the NPCC. Dr Sheryl Prentice is a Director of W&P Academic Consultancy Limited. Both authors have previously received funding from HMG.

Author contribution statement

SP is responsible for the first written draft of the paper, collection of the mainstream and extremist datasets, partial collection of the counter-extremist dataset, and analyses. PJT has provided subsequent additions and amendments and co-created (with SP) the idea for this study. PJT also supplied some of the analysis material.

Keywords

extremism, Counter-extremism, Mainstream, (dis)similarity, positioning, Resistance

Abstract

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Within studies of extremism, extremist and non-extremist messages are generally treated as two sets of competing constructed narratives. However, some research has argued that these message forms are not dichotomous and that non-extremist narratives demonstrate overlap with extremist master narratives. The aim of this paper is to test this hypothesis empirically by comparing 250 extremist, 250 mainstream and 250 counter-extremist messages. The paper finds considerable overlap between extremist and non-extremist material. However, an analysis of underlying content suggests that this overlap may not be so much due to the extensive adoption of an extremist master narrative by non-extremist authors, but rather a question of resistance and positioning, specifically, who are authors resisting and why? The findings have implications for counter-extremism policy.

Contribution to the field

Within the field of counter-extremism, extreme and non-extreme online messaging are generally thought to exist at opposing ends of a spectrum, with researchers seeking to understand the appeal of extremist messaging by distinguishing it from mainstream or counter-extremist material. However, some researchers have observed points of similarity between extreme and non-extreme message forms, with some going as far as to suggest that religious non-extremist authors borrow from the narratives of religious extremist authors. The paper empirically tests this observational hypothesis by comparing datasets of extreme, mainstream, and counter-extreme online messages. Using a combination of automated linguistic approaches and positioning analyses, the paper reveals the extensive conceptual overlap between the message forms, thus challenging the view of extremist material as being in some way unique from non-extreme material. Counter-narrative theory is used as a novel means to explain the nature of the conceptual overlap observed, with all message forms being described as forms of resistance narrative. We explain how conceiving extreme narratives as a form of counter-narrative in and of themselves can assist our understanding of why individuals turn to extremism, and how changing dominant narratives of national identity in counter-extremism policy might lower barriers to engagement.

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Generated Statement: No animal studies are presented in this manuscript.

Studies involving human subjects

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Data availability statement

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In review

Poles Apart? The Extent of Similarity between Online Extremist and Non-Extremist Message Content

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6 **Keywords:** extremism₁, counter-extremism₂, mainstream₃, (dis)similarity₄, positioning₅,
7 resistance₆

8 Abstract

9 Within studies of extremism, extremist and non-extremist messages are generally treated as two sets
10 of competing constructed narratives. However, some research has argued that these message forms
11 are not dichotomous and that non-extremist narratives demonstrate overlap with extremist master
12 narratives. The aim of this paper is to test this hypothesis empirically by comparing 250 extremist,
13 250 mainstream and 250 counter-extremist messages. The paper finds considerable overlap between
14 extremist and non-extremist material. However, an analysis of underlying content suggests that this
15 overlap may not be so much due to the extensive adoption of an extremist master narrative by non-
16 extremist authors, but rather a question of resistance and positioning, specifically, who are authors
17 resisting and why? The findings have implications for counter-extremism policy.

18 1 Introduction

19 Master narratives are “dominant cultural storylines which form the context of [people’s] lives” and
20 are the means by which we understand our own stories and those of others, “identifying what is
21 assumed to be a normative experience” (Andrews 2004, p. 1). With reference to the work of
22 Halverson, Goodall Jr and Corman (2011), Al Raffie (2012) describes how a type of extremist master
23 narrative (namely, Salafi Jihadist master narratives) have gradually attempted to reshape the
24 normative experience of Muslims by basing themselves on well entrenched Muslim cultural master
25 narratives, which are built on religious texts and Muslim history. Salafi Jihadist master narratives are
26 said to be characterized by the creation of “both real and perceived hostilities between Muslims and
27 non-Muslims; cementing a perception of a ‘War on Islam’”, which ultimately seeks to divide
28 Muslims and non-Muslims via a religious filter (Raffie 2012, p. 19).

29 Drawing on the work of Huband (2010), Al Raffie (2012, p.15) explains that this goal is achieved via
30 reference to a politically and sociologically dominating situation, linking religious sources to the
31 sociological situation, and constructing identity as the result of these two factors. According to Al
32 Raffie (2012, p. 25), this attempt to reshape Muslims’ normative experience has been adopted by the
33 mainstream and receives support from a range of organizations, states and actors, going on to argue
34 that “the only difference between them and Salafi Jihadist narratives is that they are more strategic in
35 communicating their desired end effects and seemingly reject violent tactics”. This paper seeks to
36 empirically test the hypothesis that Salafi Jihadist narratives, and those of other groups and

37 individuals advocating a similar message, are present in mainstream narratives, and to what extent,
38 by comparing sets of extremist and non-extremist messages.

39 The paper begins by reviewing literature on the similarities and differences between extremist and
40 non-extremist messages, before moving to a description of the collection and comparison of four
41 inter-related message forms: Salafi Jihadist (and related) messages, mainstream news articles from
42 Arab based media outlets, religious authored counter-extremist messages and British Official
43 authored counter-extremist messages (as a control). The extent and nature of conceptual overlaps
44 between the forms of material is discussed before examining how authors position themselves
45 relative to shared concepts. The concluding discussion of the paper explores how work on narratives
46 of resistance can best explain the similarities observed between extremist and non-extremist message
47 forms.

48 **2 Background**

49 Typically, research on extremist material, or research comparing extremist and non-extremist
50 material, seeks to understand what is unique about extremist forms of communication. Research
51 treating extremist and non-extremist language as opposing entities is grounded in the theoretical
52 assumption that extremists possess unusual ways of thinking (Merari, 1999; Merari, Diamant, Bibi,
53 Broshi & Zakin, 2009; Pearlstein, 1991; Johnson & Feldmann, 1992), or a differing psycho-logic (see
54 Post, 1990). If one holds to the assertion that language is one of the key ways in which the thoughts
55 and beliefs of individuals are reflected (Billig, 1997; Pennebaker, 2002; van Dijk, 2006), it follows
56 that extremist language would be markedly different from non-extremist language, since it
57 presumably reflects an alternative way of thinking about the world.

58 Applying this to the language used by proscribed terrorist groups in the UK (specifically, those
59 advocating a violent interpretation of Jihad), studies have found differences between the
60 communications of such groups and those of control groups. Prentice, Rayson and Taylor (2012), for
61 example, identified content differences between a corpus of religious extremist statements and a
62 corpus of general English usage. They found that extremist authors center their rhetoric on the
63 themes of morality, social proof, inspiration and appeals to religion, and that they tend to refer to the
64 world via contrasting concepts, suggesting a polarized way of thinking when compared to a general
65 population usage.

66 Similarly, Payne (2009) has identified differences between the narratives of Al-Qaeda authors and
67 opposing Western government authors. He found that Al-Qaeda's narrative is characterized by the
68 concepts of Islamic utopia, an 'us-versus-them' dichotomy, jihad as a just response, legitimizing
69 terrorism and glorifying martyrdom. By contrast, government narratives were characterized by the
70 concepts of undermining Al-Qaeda and building resilience and community cohesion through a sense
71 of 'Britishness.' Payne's (2009) findings demonstrate a second, more overt reason why the content of
72 extremist and non-extremist messages should differ: the authors of these messages may deliberately
73 seek to distance their rhetoric from one another for strategic purposes.

74 Some researchers have argued that in order to counter the risk posed by extremist rhetoric, non-
75 extremist message content should directly oppose the arguments made in extremist messages by
76 delegitimizing political violence and the actors who pursue it, thereby creating their own form of
77 counter-persuasion (Chowdhury & Krebs, 2010; Gregg, 2010; Halafoff and Wright-Neville, 2009).
78 Likewise, Awan (2007) has found that extremist sources present a differing perspective to
79 mainstream non-extremist sources in an effort to challenge the latter's hegemony. Therefore, whether

80 unintentionally reflecting differing thought processes, or intentionally distancing themselves from
81 one another's arguments, extremist and non-extremist message content is, under this popular
82 conceptualization, expected to differ.

83 There are, however, reasons to believe that the narratives of extremist and non-extremist messages
84 are not as directly opposed as the aforementioned literature implies. Mainstream media can be
85 observed to take on Gutmann's (2007) qualities of extremist literature, in that press articles have been
86 found to demean perceived out-groups and narrow understanding of particular individuals (such as
87 asylum-seekers or Muslims) or social issues (including immigration and practicing Islam) (see Baker,
88 2010; Richardson, 2004 for examples). Press reports have further been found to legitimize and
89 remediate extremist actors and their arguments (Al-Marashi, 2007; Azam, 2008; Hoskins &
90 O'Loughlin, 2009).

91 Mainstream political language has also been observed to adopt a number of similar rhetorical
92 strategies to extremist authors. Jones and Smith (2010), Leudar, Marsland and Nekvapil (2004) and
93 Schafer (2002), for example, have all identified unifying terms of reference (i.e. 'we', 'us', etc.) to
94 create an in-group in the language of both Western secular and extremist authors as they vie to
95 achieve success in winning over public opinion. These in-group and out-group discourse features
96 have been further noted in the language of Western politicians (Becker, 2007; Lazar & Lazar, 2004;
97 Richardson & Wodak, 2009; Verkuyten, 2013). Non-extremist political language holds additional
98 aspects in common with extremist language in its moral and social justificatory arguments for
99 warfare, which have been observed in both political (Lazar & Lazar, 2007) and extremist statements
100 (Duffy, 2003).

101 There are a few reasons why extremist and non-extremist rhetoric may overlap. Numerous studies
102 have demonstrated that sharing various identity-related factors, such as race, ethnicity and religion
103 can result in individuals converging their language features (Cheshire, 1997; Joseph, 2004; Labov,
104 1972; Milroy & Milroy, 1997). Such sociolinguistic research links with social identity theory's
105 assertion that people identify themselves as belonging to particular groups, using group norms to
106 enforce membership of groups, and boundaries with other groups (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner,
107 1979; Tajfel, 1982). Language is one of the ways in which these social identities are achieved and
108 maintained (Billig, 1997).

109 Indeed, Prentice, Taylor, Rayson and Giebels (2012) have found ideological content links between
110 religious extremist and religious counter-extremist messages, such as descriptions of the legitimacy
111 of violence in circumstances defined by their mutual faith (see also Khān, 2002; Mascini, 2006).
112 Bilali (2014) has also observed an association between national identification and conflict construal
113 across the narratives of Turkish and Kurdish ethnic groups. A linked explanation for the rhetorical
114 overlaps observed between extremist and non-extremist messages emerges from Zaal, Van Laar,
115 Stahl, Ellemers and Derks (2011), who have found that individuals "with a strong moral conviction
116 about the fair treatment of their group are willing to support both hostile and benevolent forms of
117 collective action".

118 Such theories may explain the adoption of Salafi Jihadist (and related) master narratives by
119 mainstream voices observed by Al Raffie (2012). The ultimate aim of this paper will be to quantify
120 the extent of any relationship between extremist and non-extremist narratives and to qualify whether
121 any observed relationship is due to the adoption of extremist master narratives by mainstream authors
122 on the grounds of religious in-group identification.

123 3 Materials and methods

124 This section details the collection of four corpora of religious extremist, mainstream, counter-
125 extremist and control messages, and the procedure used in their analysis.

126 3.1 Corpus collection

127 Analyses were conducted on four corpora: a 425,516 word extremist message corpus, containing 250
128 texts written by members of religious extremist groups or unaffiliated extremist individuals ($M =$
129 1814.0 words, $SD = 2327.1$); a 107,018 word mainstream message corpus containing 250 news
130 articles drawn from four popular middle-eastern news outlets ($M = 446.0$; $SD = 254.1$), a 119,678
131 word religious counter message corpus, containing 200 anti-violent messages from Muslim clerics
132 and discussion boards ($M = 598.4$, $SD = 731.6$), and a 89,254 word British Official authored counter
133 message corpus, containing 50 statements authored by British politicians ($M = 1785.1$, $SD = 1763.7$).

134 The religious and British Official counter messages were originally collected as one corpus of 250
135 messages. However, as this study aims to determine whether there is narrative overlap between
136 extremist and non-extremist authors who identify with the same religion, the messages are considered
137 separately here. British Official messages are included as a control group.

138 All data sets feature English language messages because of their use by extremist groups to appeal to
139 the widest possible audience (Memri Organization, 2007). All messages are drawn from online
140 sources, due to an increasing tendency for this community to utilize online sources for information
141 gathering and distribution (Brouwer, 2004; Hirji, 2006). Collection of messages for the extremist data
142 set began with targeting the websites of known extremist organizations and individuals in, for
143 example, the HM Government (2012) list of proscribed terrorist groups and organizations.

144 This was followed by an investigation of links from such websites to other sites containing extremist
145 material. Specifically, of the 250 messages, 160 were drawn from the websites of 15 different
146 extremist groups and organizations (such as Al-Qaida), and the remaining 90 from the websites of 67
147 unaffiliated individuals (such as Al-Fallujah forums). To be included, messages had to explicitly
148 advocate the use of violence (this is due to our interpretation of extremist messaging, i.e. the
149 incitement of violence against civilians), thus avoiding the inclusion of messages in which authors
150 only sought to advocate a strict version of their beliefs, where the boundaries between extreme and
151 non-extreme material become increasingly blurred. The messages are dated between 1996 and 2009.

152 The 200 religious counter messages and 50 British Official authored counter messages originate from
153 MacInnes (2014) and are largely from counter-extremist websites affiliated with counter-extremist
154 individuals within Muslim communities. The messages combine anti-violent responses from
155 religious scholars to guest questions on the use of violence (94 texts) and anti-violent open discussion
156 forum posts on topics of violence (106 texts). The 50 British Official counter messages consist of
157 British officials' statements, collected from news sites or government websites.

158 Authors had to be recognizable public figures whose statements would be regarded as espousing the
159 position of the UK government. Their inclusion provides an alternative perspective on the issue of
160 counter-extremism, a perspective that is also important to British Muslim identity (Pew Research
161 Centre, 2006). Further, Al Raffie (2012) states that the position in such messages lends legitimacy to
162 an extremist master narrative by way of apology and confirmation of wrong-doing. Therefore, their
163 inclusion offers a means of exploring whether this is the case. Further, British Official Counter
164 messages are included because the paper discusses the hypothesis that extremist and non-extremist,

165 moderate authors who identify with the same religion in this case, will demonstrate similar language
 166 use. That being the case, one should not then observe extensive overlap with individuals who do not
 167 identify with the same religion (i.e. the British Official authors included). The longer length of the
 168 British official messages means that increasing their number would over-represent this secondary
 169 perspective in the data.

170 Finally, a mainstream corpus was created to contribute a perspective that is neither directly pro- or
 171 anti- violence. News articles, specifically, current affairs articles, were selected for this purpose, as
 172 they have been identified as a common and credible source of information in studies of Muslims’
 173 media consumption more generally (Next Page Foundation, 2007). Data was selected from Al
 174 Jazeera (94 texts), Press TV (63 texts), Al Arabiya (63 texts), and Al Alam (30 texts). These sources
 175 were selected as they have been observed to be credible to one or more Muslim communities within
 176 the UK (RICU, 2010). These data were downloaded from the news and current affairs sections of the
 177 respective sites. Selection of texts from the four sites was weighted according to site reputation, i.e.
 178 the number of other sites linking into the site, making it more likely to be viewed by a wider audience
 179 (reputation rankings were drawn from www.alexa.com/siteinfo). Texts were selected at random for
 180 inclusion in the corpus in order not to bias text selection. More specifically, the filenames associated
 181 with lists of downloaded articles from the news/current affairs section of each website were extracted
 182 and an automated randomization algorithm used to select the weighted number of articles from each
 183 source. Texts had to be at least 100 words in length. Where a randomly selected article failed to meet
 184 this criterion, the same algorithm was used to select an alternative.

185 Given the subject matter, one might question why counter-messages have been included in an
 186 analysis of extremist and mainstream narrative overlap. The reasons for including counter-extreme
 187 messages in the analyses are two-fold. First, counter-extreme messages are interpreted here as
 188 another form of ‘non-extremist’ message, or moderate/mainstream voice. Their inclusion therefore
 189 allows for the comparison of extremist narratives with different types of ‘non-extremist’ narrative,
 190 both those that are directly non-extreme in nature (counter-extremist) and those that are indirectly
 191 non-extreme (mainstream news reporting). Second, if one were to only consider how mainstream
 192 media overlap with extremist material, one would ignore its potential to overlap with the antithesis to
 193 this content (i.e. counter-extreme material).

194 3.2 Content coding

195 The texts were examined using the semantic analysis software Wmatrix. Wmatrix works by labelling
 196 every word or multi-word-unit (MWU) in a text file for its part-of-speech and semantic category. The
 197 part-of-speech tagger (named CLAWS) assigns major word class categories (e.g., noun, verb,
 198 adjective, and adverb) to each linguistic unit (defined as single words and multi-word-expressions) in
 199 a text. The semantic tagger USAS uses a manually created dictionary (Piao, Rayson, Archer &
 200 McEnergy, 2005) and several word sense disambiguation techniques (Rayson, Archer, Piao &
 201 McEnergy, 2004) to assign the same linguistic units to one or more of its 232 semantic categories.
 202 These categories (a full list of which can be found at ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/usas/) are classified into 21
 203 broad domains, or groups of semantically related terms (see ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/usas/ for all domains).

204 To give an example, in the sentence ‘The Prime Minister visited Afghanistan’, ‘The’ would be
 205 assigned to Grammatical words, ‘Prime Minister’ to Government and People, ‘visited’ to Social
 206 actions, states and processes and Moving, coming and going, and ‘Afghanistan’ to Geographical
 207 names. The category and domain-based classifications allow the user to conduct both macro
 208 (domain) level and micro (category) level analyses of the data using a variety of statistical methods.

209 Wmatrix's automated approach was adopted over a manual approach to ensure continuity in the
 210 application of codes across the three corpora. Although other automated approaches have proved
 211 useful in previous studies involving extremist material (Birmingham, Conway, McInerney, O'Hare &
 212 Smeaton, 2009; Pennebaker & Chung, 2008), the distinct advantage offered by the Wmatrix package
 213 is the granularity of its coding systems, allowing both macro and micro level analyses of the data
 214 (see, for example, Rayson, 2008).

215 3.3 Keyness comparison procedure

216 Once processed by Wmatrix, it was possible to retrieve semantic category lists for each of the four
 217 corpora. The lists contained the semantic categories present in each corpus together with their
 218 frequency of occurrence. These lists were then submitted to a form of analysis known as keyness
 219 comparison, which involves two steps. The first step of keyness comparisons is to identify categories
 220 that are over or underused beyond what might be expected by chance. To determine this, the log-
 221 likelihood value of each semantic category's frequency of occurrence across the corpora was
 222 calculated.

223 By calculating the log-likelihood value for each category across the four corpora, it was possible to
 224 establish the number of categories being significantly overused or underused in a particular corpus or
 225 corpora, relative to the others. These significant categories, therefore, highlight the aspects of content
 226 on which the corpora significantly differ from one another. Any log-likelihood value of 15.14 ($p <$
 227 0.0001) is deemed to be statistically significant in the present study. As log-likelihood measures can
 228 generally skew one's data in the direction of differences, alongside this measure, approximate Bayes
 229 Factors (BIC) are used to calculate effect size, with BIC values > 10 indicating very strong evidence
 230 against the null hypothesis of no difference between the corpora on a given category and BIC values
 231 > -10 indicating very strong evidence in favor of the null hypothesis (see Wilson 2014).

232 Therefore, in the present study, any category with a log-likelihood value of ≥ 15.14 and a BIC value
 233 of ≥ 10 was counted as indicating a difference between corpus sets, while any category with a BIC
 234 value of ≥ -10 was counted as indicating no difference between the comparison corpora. As low
 235 corpus frequencies (i.e. ≤ 5) have been found to affect the usefulness of the log-likelihood statistic
 236 (Rayson, Berridge & Francis 2004), any categories where a corpus (or corpora) returned a frequency
 237 ≤ 5 were removed from the analysis.

238 While this analysis reveals the areas of difference and similarity between all the corpora, it does not
 239 determine the corpus responsible for the differences, which would in turn highlight aspects of content
 240 held in common by the remaining corpora. To achieve this, the second step is to calculate the under
 241 and over use of each category in each corpus. In this case, if the observed frequency of a category in
 242 a particular corpus was less than its expected frequency, this was classed as underuse of the category.
 243 By contrast, observed frequencies greater than expected frequencies were recorded as being
 244 overused.

245
 246 Overused categories for each corpus, corpus pair, or corpus trio were taken to be characteristic of the
 247 corpus/corpora in question and summed to give a profile for each corpus comparison. The percentage
 248 of categories above the designated threshold assigned to each individual corpus or corpus grouping
 249 were then compared to establish which corpus/corpora accounted for the greatest number of shared
 250 conceptual categories. Shared categories for these corpora were then listed and examined to gain an
 251 overall understanding of nature of conceptual overlap between particular message types.

252 3.4 Semantic concordance analysis

253 While the adaption of the keyness comparison method outlined above identifies the extent and nature
 254 of shared concepts between the corpora, which can offer initial indications as to whether message
 255 types share narratives with one another, one can only confirm this by exploring the context in which
 256 concepts occur. Specifically, our analysis looks at how authors of messages position themselves in
 257 relation to shared concepts. Who do the authors identify with, who is their audience, and who is the
 258 out-group?

259 After running the corpora through part-of-speech and semantic tagging, various frequency lists are
 260 made available to the user via Wmatrix's interface. This includes a list of words, along with their
 261 semantic category and frequency of occurrence in a corpus. These lists were used to source the most
 262 frequently occurring word assigned to each shared category. Once located, Wmatrix's concordance
 263 function was used to search for the word and provide a list of examples of the word in its immediate
 264 linguistic context. Examples were selected at random and can be found in Tables 3 - 6.

265 Examples were then subjected to a positioning analysis. We used Bamberg's (1997, p. 341)
 266 perspective on positioning, which views this as "the speaker's active engagement in the construction
 267 process of narratives". This construction process consists of three levels (Bamberg 1997, p. 337):

268 **Level 1:** This level entails looking at linguistic devices which indicate how characters are
 269 being positioned relative to one another within a series of reported events. Specifically, this
 270 includes an examination of agency, i.e. who is marked as being in control of the action?
 271 Who is acted on by external forces or rewarded by their personal qualities?

272 **Level 2:** This level looks at how the narrator positions themselves relative to their audience
 273 by way of a linguistic analysis of attempts to instruct the audience "in the face of adversary
 274 conditions", or otherwise make excuses or attribute blame for their actions to others.

275 **Level 3:** This level looks at the narrator's construction of their own identity (identity claims),
 276 specifically, how they answer (indirectly) the question of who they are. This element of the
 277 analysis moves beyond the language used to what the narrator holds to be true beyond the
 278 local situation.

279 Each of these levels were employed on the examples listed in Tables 3 - 6. Within tables, similarities
 280 in positioning were taken to indicate shared narratives between the two message types, while
 281 differences in positioning were taken to indicate individual narratives, or narratives shared with
 282 another message type. The latter was ascertained by looking at similarities in positioning observed
 283 across Tables 3 - 6.

284 **4 Results**

285 This section provides a summary of the results of the keyness comparison and semantic concordance
 286 analyses. Table 1 presents a numerical breakdown of the conceptual categories held or shared
 287 between different message types.

288 [INSERT TABLE 1 HERE]

289 Table 2 presents a breakdown of the categories shared by the most frequently occurring message
 290 groupings: all four message types, British Official counter messages and Arab mainstream media
 291 messages, extremist messages and religious authored counter messages, and British official counter
 292 messages and religious authored counter messages.

293
294 [INSERT TABLE 2 HERE]

295
296 Tables 3 - 6 present examples of shared categories from the corpus groupings featured in Table 2.
297 Table 3 provides concordance examples of the categories shared between all four message types.

298
299 [INSERT TABLE 3 HERE]

300
301 Table 4 provides concordance examples of the categories shared between the Salafi Jihadist and
302 related messages and the religious authored counter messages.

303
304 [INSERT TABLE 4 HERE]

305
306 Table 5 provides concordance examples of the categories shared between the religious authored
307 counter messages and British Official authored counter messages.

308
309 [INSERT TABLE 5 HERE]

310
311 Table 6 provides concordance examples of the categories shared between the British Official
312 authored counter messages and the Arab mainstream media messages.

313
314 [INSERT TABLE 6 HERE]

315 316 **5 Discussion**

317 This section discusses the results of the keyness comparison and semantic concordance procedures
318 presented in Tables 1 – 6.

319 **5.1 Extent and nature of overlap of conceptual categories**

320 Of the 104 categories included in the analysis, 40 categories (38.46% of 104 categories) received
321 negative BIC values, with 27 categories (25.96%) returning a $BIC \geq -10$ and all corpus frequencies $>$
322 5, indicating no discernible difference between the usage of these categories across the message
323 types. The remaining 64 categories returned positive BIC values, of which 60 returned BIC values
324 above 10 and 4 returned values between 1.69 and 8.84. Table 1 presents a breakdown of the
325 categories above the specified threshold, i.e. LL value ≥ 15.13 and a BIC value ≥ 10 , or BIC value $\geq -$
326 10 and all corpus frequencies > 5 .

327 The results presented in Table 1 suggest that around a quarter of the conceptual categories are shared
328 by all message forms. This is followed by British Official counter messages and Arab mainstream
329 media messages, which interestingly demonstrate a greater degree of overlap than Religious authored
330 counter messages and Arab mainstream media messages (10.58%, compared with 2.88%). The next
331 highest number of shared categories are found between the extremist and Religious authored counter
332 messages, and British Official and Religious authored counter messages, both of which share the
333 same number of categories at 7.69% each. Therefore, Religious authored counter extremist messages
334 and extremist messages are as close in conceptual terms as both forms of counter message are to one
335 another. Importantly, extremist material does not stand out in these comparisons.

336 While the results provide an element of empirical support for Al Raffie's (2012) argument that
 337 Muslim mainstream narratives adopt the same master narrative as extremist messages, in that both
 338 Religious authored and Arab based mainstream media messages demonstrate some overlap with
 339 extremist material, this overlap is not as extensive as the overlap between all four message forms and
 340 no more extensive than the overlap between Religious authored counter messages and British
 341 Official counter messages, or British Official counter messages and Arab mainstream media
 342 messages (indeed, less so than the latter).

343 Given these observations, Religious authored counter messages could also be argued to be
 344 simultaneously borrowing from a Western master narrative, or vice versa, as indeed, could Arab
 345 mainstream media. The observation that different groups of messages overlap to differing degrees
 346 suggests a complex blend of narratives. Looking at the results presented in Table 2, one can begin to
 347 unpick the complexities between the groups of messages.

348 The categories shared by all four message forms are varied in nature and include concepts related to
 349 emotion (Worry, Concern, Confidence; Emotional Actions and States), thought processes (Attention;
 350 Trying; Wanting, Planning, Choosing), residence (Residence; Areas Around/Near Buildings;
 351 Remaining/Stationary; Furniture and Household), and a series of categories that one might not
 352 expect, such as Plants, Weather, Light, Cleaning and Personal Care, Sports, Music and Drama. Such
 353 categories may be indicative of shared metaphorical language use. There are also categories which
 354 point to narrative structure (Linear Order) and interpretation or evaluation (Seem; Open/Closed,
 355 Hidden/Hiding, Finding/Showing; Physical Attributes).

356 The categories shared by the British Official counter messages and Arab mainstream media messages
 357 appear to be in large part driven by business, industry and the economy. These categories would tend
 358 to suggest a capitalist master narrative, which may suggest that Arab mainstream media is borrowing
 359 from this narrative. Similarities between Religious authored counter messages and extremist
 360 messages are drawn on social grounds, with most of the categories falling under the domain of
 361 'Social Actions, States and Processes', according to the automated semantic categorization system
 362 used. Categories overused by both the Religious authored counter messages and British Official
 363 counter messages are more what one might describe as surface deep, referring mainly to categories
 364 that define the scale or bounds of something, or otherwise belong to the domain of 'General and
 365 Abstract Terms' within the USAS classification scheme. These categories refer to actions.

366 To understand whether or not these initial observations mean that one message form is borrowing
 367 from the master narrative of another, one needs to look deeper into the data and explore how authors
 368 position themselves and others in relation to the conceptual categories and beyond. In other words,
 369 one needs to apply the three levels of narrative analysis outlined in section 3.4 to the results presented
 370 in Tables 3 – 6.

371 **5.2 Positioning analysis of overlapping categories**

372 In Table 3, the examples of categories B4.Cleaning and Personal Care and L3.Plants provide
 373 evidence of shared metaphor use between the message types. The extremist and Religious authored
 374 counter messages share metaphors of cleansing, with Religious authored counter messages speaking
 375 of the need to clean the soul, while extremist messages liken hypocrisy to dirt that one struggles to
 376 "wipe off". Meanwhile, Arab based mainstream media and British Official counter messages make
 377 frequent use of brushing or sweeping metaphors to reference issues that cannot be ignored and, by
 378 implication, must be dealt with. Interestingly, all message forms make use of the metaphor of the
 379 tree. However, this is utilized for different purposes.

380 In extremist messages, the tree metaphor is often used to describe Muslims and is embedded in tree
 381 symbolism present in Islam, which Reat (1975, p. 2) describes as “a universal symbol of order in the
 382 midst of chaos”. In this case, as with British Official counter messages referenced below, the
 383 extremist message author here positions their audience as a disparate one, using the tree metaphor as
 384 a means of expressing a desire to restore order. In Religious authored counter messages, Arab
 385 mainstream media messages and British Official counter messages, the tree (or plant) is used as a
 386 means of representing terrorism or the aggressor, who has roots and branches, grows and must be
 387 uprooted or “pulled out”. The mainstream example mixes this metaphor with one of disease (see use
 388 of the word “microbe”). In mainstream messages (and, indeed, in other message forms), this category
 389 can also be used to literally refer to trees. In mainstream messages, this particularly applies to olive
 390 trees, which are a source of contention and conflict between Israelis and Palestinians.

391 Whilst Religious authored counter messages and British Official counter messages may share similar
 392 metaphor use, the positioning in example Muslim_Counter L3 reveals that, while terrorism is
 393 perceived as a mutual issue, for religious counter message authors, governments can also be seen as
 394 part of the problem. By placing “civilized world leaders” in quotation marks, the author
 395 simultaneously distances themselves from such individuals and questions their integrity, underlining
 396 this with use of the pronoun “they” (a further distancing strategy) before referring to leaders not
 397 wanting to hear about the “true” causes of terrorism, thus implying that world leaders are dismissive
 398 and refuse to acknowledge their role in the problem.

399 With regard to narrative structure, which is indicated by use of the category N4.Linear Order, one can
 400 observe that both the Religious authored counter messages and extremist messages most commonly
 401 use the word “then”. However, for extremist message authors, this tends to be used for the purpose of
 402 listing events in chronological order, which emphasizes the out-group’s continued interference (in
 403 this case, collaboration between the US and Iran). In Religious authored counter messages, authors
 404 tend to use “then” as a means of reasoning with their audience, i.e. if X then Y. Arab mainstream
 405 media and British Official counter messages most frequently use the words “last” and “first”,
 406 respectively. In British Official counter messages, “first” is generally used to mark an order of
 407 prioritization, while in mainstream media, “last” is used either as a marker of finality (as illustrated in
 408 Table 3), or to refer to past events that have relevance to the present (e.g. “last month”).

409 There are similarities demonstrated between the Religious authored counter messages, Arab
 410 mainstream messages and extremist messages with respect to categories X7.Wanting, Planning and
 411 Choosing and H4.Residence. In category X7, all three of these message types refer to the desire for
 412 Muslims to lead a quality life, while in category H4, Muslims are positioned as the recipients of
 413 external aggression. In category E1.Emotional Actions and States, however, Religious authored
 414 counter messages refer to a cultural master narrative of tolerance and compassion that can be traced
 415 back through history, while extremist message authors tend to use this category to highlight the
 416 positive morale felt by their own in-group of fighters, linking this morale to the morale felt by those
 417 fighting against oppression, as described in the Quran. In British Official examples for categories H4,
 418 E1 and X7, there is a sense in which the authors are speaking to a disparate audience. The “our”
 419 referred to in British Official counter message example X7 consists of a range of different
 420 communities rather than a single unified one, which requires effort to maintain (as indicated by, “we
 421 have to work at”).

422 In Table 4, extremist and counter-extremist authors position themselves in a similar way with regard
 423 to the state of Israel (this is one of the “enemies” referred to in example Muslim_Counter S1 and is
 424 the “They” referred to in example Extremist E2) and political interference in Iraq (see

425 Muslim_Counter S7), with both referring to underhand dealings or corruption on the part of those in
 426 power, see “plotting against it” and “the truth” in Extremist S1 and Muslim_Counter S1. Both sets of
 427 authors position themselves as members of the Muslim community. However, the authors are not
 428 addressing themselves to the same audience.

429 The Extremist S7 example positions certain members of the Muslim community (scholars, leaders of
 430 particular Arab nations) within what it refers to as “the New World Order” and sets “Muslim
 431 scholars” firmly in the out-group with “They...say we have to” (Extremist P1). Here, the “we” refers
 432 to the general Muslim public, of which particular Muslim scholars are not seen to be a part.
 433 Meanwhile, counter-extremist authors identify themselves as Muslim scholars *and* as being a
 434 member of their Muslim community and place terrorists (those who attack non-combatants) on a par
 435 with autocratic leaders (see example Muslim_Counter S7).

436 The examples presented in Table 5 largely corroborate the initial interpretation of similarities
 437 between the British Official (BrOfficial_Counter) and Religious authored counter messages
 438 (Muslim_Counter), in that both define the boundaries of physical action, boundaries that are not too
 439 dissimilar from one another, in that both argue for having no choice but to act in the face of a
 440 perceived aggressor. See, for example, BrOfficial_Counter X4 in Table 5 and Muslim_Counter S2 in
 441 Table 4. A number of the BrOfficial_Counter examples speak to a master narrative of securitization
 442 (for example, BrOfficial_Counter A14), i.e. framing terrorism as an issue of security and counter-
 443 terrorism as a means of protecting the ‘safety’ or ‘security’ of one’s in-group and the borders of that
 444 in-group, which has been said to define European political responses to terrorism (Tsoukala 2006).

445 Nevertheless, the Religious authored counter-extremist messages also speak to the concepts of
 446 security and safety in defining the boundaries of action, see, for example, Muslim_Counter S1 in
 447 Table 4 and Muslim_Counter A4 in Table 5. However, for Muslim counter message authors, these
 448 boundaries are defined for them by the word of Allah and Islam’s religious scripture. From this
 449 perspective, only these sources should dictate action and not external forces or individual opinions
 450 (see, for example, Muslim_Counter A14, A1 and A7), and therefore one cannot take matters into
 451 one’s own hands (see Muslim_Counter A4).

452 One can again observe, via the positioning present in examples, that British Official counter-
 453 extremist messages and Religious authored counter-extremist messages do not identify themselves as
 454 members of the same in-group or address the same audience. Example BrOfficial_Counter A4 is a
 455 good example of this positioning. When the author states “their case is that”, they refer to extremists,
 456 setting these individuals firmly in the out-group category. However, the author is addressing the
 457 Muslim community at large and goes on to state “we know” (i.e. Western nations), “you know” (i.e.
 458 Muslim communities”). While this statement suggests solidarity, it still separates Muslims from the
 459 author’s in-group. In other examples (such as BrOfficial_Counter A14), British Official counter
 460 authors address their messages to the entire British public, referring to “our concepts” and “our
 461 notions”. However, this assumes that all members of the British public share these concepts and
 462 notions, which are based on a system of Western values.

463 In a similar way, Religious authored counter messages also set extremists as the outgroup, such as in
 464 example Muslim_Counter S6 (“they should have fought”) and Muslim_Counter A7 (in which Bin
 465 Laden is labelled a “disgusting fool”). However, the West, and nations within this sphere, are also
 466 described in a manner that is outside the authors’ in-group and something that requires resistance, see
 467 for example, Muslim_Counter S6 and Muslim_Counter X4. Note that within the statement “has

468 convinced Muslims [in-group] that the *only* way to fight the West [out-group]”, the use of the
469 adjective “only” infers that there are other ways to fight or resist the West.

470 The examples presented in Table 6 show that there is a degree of mainstream English language Arab
471 media borrowing from a capitalist master narrative, with references to the economy (Mainstream
472 X6), defense and infrastructure (Mainstream M5), tax revenue (Mainstream S5), and forms of
473 business and trade (Mainstream I2 and Mainstream M7). Further, the mainstream messages report on
474 stories of concern to the West, such as the Iranian nuclear enrichment programme (see example
475 Mainstream Y1).

476 However, there is another key point of cross over between the message forms, in that British Official
477 counter-extremist messages contain narratives of resistance, while Mainstream Arab English
478 language media reports narratives of resistance, whether in a direct or indirect manner. Examples
479 Mainstream X6 and Mainstream M7 give voice to those challenging government control. Voices are
480 also given to those resisting trade embargoes (Mainstream I2) or capital punishment (Mainstream I3).
481 The mainstream messages further report narratives of opposition between groups, including in
482 examples Mainstream G1 and Y1.

483 Mainstream message positioning also reveals its similarities to both extremist and Religious authored
484 counter messages with regard to resistance to Israel and the West as an out-group. In Mainstream S5,
485 the article’s author points out that the election of Hamas was “democratic” and describes Western
486 actions in response as “punishing”. Israel is referred as a “Zionist regime” in Mainstream Y2. In
487 example Mainstream A11, the author states, “the main alternative, *according to officials*” (in relation
488 to peace negotiations between Israel and Palestine), thereby distancing the author from this view. The
489 way in which authors refer to out-group actors and frame the actions of out-group members is
490 demonstrative of a more indirect form of resistance.

491 **5.3 Practical and theoretical implications**

492 This paper set out to empirically test the hypothesis that non-extremist narratives overlap with a
493 Salafi Jihadist master narrative (and those of similar groups and individuals), specifically, the
494 argument that “Mainstream Islamic narratives indirectly support the master narratives of Salafi
495 Jihadists because in some instances there exists considerable overlap between the two” (Al Raffie
496 2012, p. 22). The results of the quantitative comparative analysis provided some support for this
497 hypothesis, revealing that Salafi Jihadist and related material only significantly differed from non-
498 extremist material on around 6% of conceptual categories that were examined. However, this analysis
499 included British Official counter messages and showed that 25% of categories were shared by all
500 message forms.

501 Nevertheless, in support of the hypothesis, the analysis demonstrated conceptual overlap between
502 extremist messages and both Religious authored counter messages and Arab mainstream media
503 messages on selected sets of categories. Though the extent of overlap between these particular
504 message forms was not demonstrably different from the extent of overlap between Arab mainstream
505 media messages and British Official counter messages, or Religious authored counter messages and
506 British Official counter messages.

507 While the subsequent qualitative positioning analysis did further corroborate elements of similarity
508 between the narratives used in extremist and non-extremist material, it further revealed a series of
509 nuanced differences that were obscured by the quantitative comparison. These nuanced differences
510 pointed to multiple layers of positioning, which are said to characterize counter narratives (Bamberg

511 & Andrews 2004, p. x). If one considers all message types included in the present analysis as forms
 512 of counter, or resistance narrative, then one begins to better understand the similarities between these
 513 forms of material. Message forms may practice their resistance in a direct and overt manner, or more
 514 indirectly (as is the case with mainstream media reporting, which does so via giving voice to
 515 resistance, reporting on resistance, or via editorial labelling and story framing).

516 Sometimes the master narratives that groups are opposing are the same. Religious authored counter
 517 messages and extremist messages, for example, both oppose a narrative of Western dominance, while
 518 Religious authored counter messages and British Official counter messages both oppose an extremist
 519 narrative that actively calls for violence against civilians/non-combatants. However, the message
 520 forms also demonstrate their own narratives of resistance, identifying with their own in-groups,
 521 addressing their own audiences and defining their own out-groups. The final section of this paper will
 522 expand on why each of the message forms can be seen as a form of resistance narrative, and what
 523 implications this finding has for counter-extremism policy.

524 Andrews (2004) defines counter-narratives as “the stories which people tell and live which offer
 525 resistance, either implicitly or explicitly, to dominant cultural narratives”. In this respect, extremist
 526 messages are themselves a form of counter-narrative, offering resistance to a dominant Western
 527 cultural narrative and anyone identifying as a Muslim who adopts any aspect of this master narrative.
 528 Indeed, HM Government’s (2013, p. 1) Prevent strategy defines extremism as a form of opposition,
 529 i.e. as “vocal or active opposition to fundamental British values, including democracy, the rule of
 530 law, individual liberty and mutual respect and tolerance of different faiths and beliefs”.

531 As the analysis in this paper has demonstrated, both Religious authored counter messages and Arab
 532 mainstream media messages can also be observed to resist elements of a dominant Western master
 533 narrative, just as extremist message authors can be found to align with elements of this narrative,
 534 albeit with an alternative framing. For example, extremist message authors also refer to a desire for
 535 freedom and liberty, but their perspective on what this entails and the manner through which it is
 536 achieved differs from British Official authors. As Andrews (2004) argues, “counter-narratives exist in
 537 relation to master narratives, but they are not necessarily dichotomous entities”. A group may borrow
 538 elements of a particular master narrative, while resisting others. Mainstream messages may borrow
 539 elements from a capitalist master narrative, but reject other elements of capitalist societies, while
 540 Religious authored counter messages may, like extremist messages, borrow from a cultural master
 541 narrative of fighting oppression, but reject elements that argue for the fighting of non-combatants.

542 Further ways in which the message forms can be seen as forms of resistance narrative emerge from
 543 specific elements of their linguistic performance. Sandberg and Anderson (2019, p. 445) interviewed
 544 a set of participants to investigate counter-narratives to those of jihadist extremist organisations,
 545 referring to the narratives they observed as “narrative resistance to master narratives that describe
 546 Islam as a religion of war and terrorism”. Among the resistance narratives the authors observed were
 547 “criticising extremist jihadist organisations for false interpretations of Islam and using derogatory
 548 terms to describe them”. Note that these observations bear similarities to extremist message authors’
 549 descriptions of what they refer to as “sham” or “bogus” scholars, whom they perceive as incorrectly
 550 interpreting their religion.

551 If one views extremist messages as a form of resistance narrative, what does this mean in practical
 552 terms for counter-extremism policy? Literature on resistance narratives offers us potential insights. In
 553 relation to resistance narratives, Andrews (2004, p. 1) states that:

554 “When, for whatever reason, our own experiences do not match the master narratives with
 555 which we are familiar, or we come to question the foundations of these dominant tales, we
 556 are confronted with a challenge. How can we make sense of ourselves, and our lives, if the
 557 shape of our life story looks deviant compared to the regular lines of the dominant stories?
 558 The challenge then becomes one of finding meaning outside of the emplotments which are
 559 ordinarily available. We become aware of new possibilities”.

560 Extrapolating from this statement, some individuals may find meaning in extremism (whether framed
 561 in religious terms or otherwise), which is turned to as a means of resisting a dominant narrative into
 562 which they do not fit. Framed in this way, countering extremism becomes a question of individual
 563 identity. How do individuals make sense of themselves and how do they see themselves in relation to
 564 dominant cultural narratives? Given an understanding of this, how can we assist the individual in
 565 finding meaning and what positive new possibilities might be offered to the individual as a result?

566 In practical terms, this could involve investment in, or capitalizing on, grass-roots projects and
 567 initiatives that seek to understand the layered nature of individuals’ identities, and to guide
 568 individuals towards roles and outlets that allow them to explore and exercise these identities. At a
 569 national level, the observations made here problematize top-down attempts to define a singular,
 570 unified national identity and associated values within counter-extremism policy, in that such efforts
 571 impose a dominant perspective that could be said to generate resistance from those who do not
 572 perceive themselves to fit the defined frame; individuals one might wish to engage with. Instead, a
 573 starting point might be to draw on the aforementioned projects and initiatives to co-create a bottom-
 574 up definition of national identities (plural) and values, which overtly recognizes and acknowledges
 575 the complexities, oppositions and tensions at play.

576 This paper concludes with a caveat. Whilst this piece has provided insights into the overlaps between
 577 extreme and non-extreme message content, it is worth highlighting that there are limitations to the
 578 methodology and analysis techniques used. The analysis entailed a detailed reading of concordance
 579 examples and the reporting of illustrative examples of patterns and trends observed within these
 580 examples. Nevertheless, one might argue that the insights provided are surface-deep in nature. Future
 581 work should look to explore similarities in content further, for example, by taking sets of texts from
 582 each of the message types which contain a high number of the overlapping concepts identified here
 583 and exploring whether such texts employ similar arguments and rhetorical strategies. One possibility
 584 would be to explore whether non-extreme messages with conceptual similarity to extremist messages
 585 employ the types of strategies previously identified in studies of extremist messages (see Prentice et
 586 al. 2011). Such an analysis would strengthen the connection between conceptual and rhetorical
 587 similarity.

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724 **7 Conflict of Interest**

725 Professor Paul J Taylor holds a position as Chief Scientific Advisor on Policing, based at the NPCC.
726 Dr Sheryl Prentice is a Director of W&P Academic Consultancy Limited. Both authors have
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728 **8 Author Contributions**

729 SP is responsible for the first draft of the paper, collection of the mainstream and extremist datasets,
730 partial collection of the counter-extremist dataset, and analyses. PJT has provided subsequent
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 745 extremist messages featured in this paper, and whose thesis was also funded by the *TRACE* project,
 746 led by PJT.

747 11 Data Availability Statement

748 Due to the nature of the material generated and analyzed in this study, the datasets have not been
 749 made publicly available. Permission to use the material can be obtained via a data sharing agreement
 750 with Lancaster University. Contact p.j.taylor@lancaster.ac.uk for details.

751 12 Tables

752 Table 1. Showing numerical breakdown of shared conceptual categories between message types

Corpus/Corpora	No. shared categories	% of categories
Extremist/Muslim_Counter/Mainstream/BrOfficial_Counter	27	25.96%
Extremist/Muslim_Counter	8	7.69%
Extremist/Mainstream	6	5.77%
Extremist/BrOfficial_Counter	3	2.88%
Muslim_Counter/Mainstream	3	2.88%
Muslim_Counter/BrOfficial_Counter	8	7.69%
Mainstream/BrOfficial_Counter	11	10.58%
Extremist/Muslim_Counter/mainstream	0	0.00%
Extremist/Mainstream/BrOfficial_Counter	2	1.93%
Muslim_Counter/Mainstream/BrOfficial_Counter	1	0.96%
Extremist/Muslim_Counter/BrOfficial_Counter	3	2.88%
Extremist	6	5.77%
Muslim_Counter	1	0.96%
Mainstream	6	5.77%
BrOfficial_Counter	2	1.93%
Total	87 (of 104)	83.65%

753

754 Table 2. Listing shared conceptual categories between selected groups of message types

Extremist, Muslim Counter, Mainstream and BrOfficial Counter		
L3.Plants	N6.Frequency	X7.Wanting, planning, choosing
B4.Cleaning and personal care	S3.Relationship	A15.Safety/danger
K2.Music	X5.Attention	K4.Drama and the theatre
K5.Sports and games	W4.Weather	W2.Light
E6.Worry, concern, confidence	X8.Trying	O4.Physical attributes
A8.Seem	F4.Farming and horticulture	H5.Furniture and household

N4.Linear order	I4.Industry	I1.Money generally
H4.Residence	M8.Remaining/stationary	
E1.Emotional actions and states	A10.Open/closed, hidden/hiding	
H3.Areas around/near buildings	F2.Drinks	
BrOfficial_Counter and Mainstream	Muslim_Counter and Extremist	Muslim_Counter and BrOfficial_Counter
G1.Government and politics	S9.Religion	S6.Obligation and necessity
M7.Places	A5.Evaluation	X4.Mental object (means, method)
I2.Business	S7.Power relationship	A13.Degree
I3.Work and employment	S2.People	A4.Classification
A11.Importance	E2.Liking	A7.Definite
Y1.Science and technology	P1.Education in general	A1.General actions
Y2.IT and computing	S8.Helping/hindering	N5.Quantities
S5.Groups and affiliation	S1.Social actions, states and processes	A14.Exclusivisers/particularisers
M5.Movement and transportation: air		
K1.Entertainment generally		
X6.Deciding		

755

756 Table 3. Examples of shared conceptual categories between Salafi Jihadist/Related messages (Extremist),
 757 religious authored counter-extremist messages (Muslim_Counter), Arab Mainstream Media messages
 758 (Mainstream), and British Official counter-extremist messages (BrOfficial_Counter).

Category	Corpus	Example
B4	Extremist	“Verily, the sword does not wipe off an-Nifaaq (hypocrisy)”
	Muslim_Counter	“This includes struggling against evil inclinations and purifying one's soul”
	Mainstream	““These events can no longer be swept under the carpet. If followed by strong regional and international action, this report could make a major contribution to ending the impunity that lies behind the cycle of atrocities in the Great Lakes region of Africa," he added.”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“But the narrative of grievances has sufficient plausibility that it can not just be brushed aside”
L3	Extremist	“Accordingly, although Muslims have divided themselves into sects, nonetheless, a way out is that we should be united like a huge tree which has numerous branches , they are not disconnected”
	Muslim_Counter	“Actually, after reading the news, one realizes why the "civilized world leaders" might never succeed in stopping terrorism! For one thing, they do not want to hear about the root causes of terrorism”
	Mainstream	““This is the will of the regional nations that after 60 odd years, the root of this corrupt microbe and the main reason for insecurity in the region be pulled out””
	BrOfficial_Counter	“I thought then and I think now that defeating this threat - whose roots are deep and have been a long time growing - was going to take a generation”
N4	Extremist	“ Then there was the coordination after Afghanistan, to eliminate the former Iraqi regime”
	Muslim_Counter	“Both sides of the argument should be heard, the situation should be analyzed, and the reason and the intention of the person should be taken into account, and then the person can be judged accordingly”
	Mainstream	“Netanyahu, who has said he would push hard to clinch a deal, also wants the U.S. letter to spell out that the proposed moratorium would be the last ”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“ First , in this country. The unavoidable priority is to identify the individuals who intend to commit violent acts and prevent them doing damage”
H4	Extremist	“People live in perpetual fear and paralyzing terror, awaiting death at any moment from a missile or shell which will destroy their homes , kill their sisters and bury their babies alive”
	Muslim_Counter	“Some countries where Muslims live have been attacked and occupied in the last few years, so I think it's not wrong for the population to resist the invasion, but this has nothing to do with putting bombs in trains in Madrid and London”

E1	Mainstream	“Palestinians said that Israeli settlers in the occupied West Bank burned about 200 of their olive trees on Sunday and also torched surrounding grazing land”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“But we have to work at finding what we have in common and making this a home for all of us”
	Extremist	“I was in contact with him and I asked him about his morale . He told me he was very happy”
X7	Muslim_Counter	“For centuries, their tolerance and compassion have characterized Muslims”
	Mainstream	“The loss of civilian lives at the hands of foreign forces has dramatically increased anti-American sentiments in Afghanistan”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“Over the coming months, in the courts, in parliament, in debate and engagement with all parts of our communities, we will work to turn these sentiments into reality”
	Extremist	“We don't want oppression. We want to regain the freedom of our Muslim nation”
	Muslim_Counter	“We are human beings too. We want a peaceful life. Afghans want to be educated and have a prosperous life”
	Mainstream	““We no longer want military coups in this country...We want a civilian and a more democratic constitution," said Serkan Misirlioglu”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“We want to respect all of our communities, including the Muslim community. But we also want to deal with the extremists in our ranks, because that is a way of protecting our way of life”

759

760 Table 4. Examples of shared conceptual categories between Salafi Jihadist (and related) messages and
761 religious authored counter-extremist messages

Category	Corpus	Example
S9	Extremist	“All this is happening at a time in which nations are attacking Muslims like people fighting over a plate of food”
	Muslim_Counter	“This way people in general will come to love Islam and its message and will convert to this wonderful religion after having learnt its great principles and values”
A5	Extremist	“This is a great advantage for Muslims since during wars and fighting , their ranks will disunite and their assemblies will disintegrate”
	Muslim_Counter	“If you're praying they stop killing innocent people , that's good ”
S7	Extremist	“For to try and defend oneself against criticism and blame in the New World Order today , from its Muslims and non-Muslims is indeed a waste of time”
	Muslim_Counter	“ Let us put our dislike of Bush and his coterie of warmongering, torture-condoning neo-cons aside, and focus on what is really important-the future of our Iraqi brothers and sisters, who deserve nothing less than to live as free citizens, free from the evils of autocracy and the scourge of terrorism”
S2	Extremist	“If some people have in the past argued about the fact of the occupation , all the people of the Peninsula have now acknowledged it”
	Muslim_Counter	“It is their only battle , as they have no weapons except their own bodies and their own lives to resist the invasion of those who come with F-16s , tanks , and machine guns to kill their very own children ”
E2	Extremist	“They like to spread mischief and corruption on earth and strive hard to accomplish this”
	Muslim_Counter	“I would like to recall here that the intolerant Catholics in Spain went very far against the teachings of Jesus himself, the prince of peace”
P1	Extremist	“They (Muslim scholars) say we have to obey our government , abide by its laws , serve in its military and security forces , and pay taxes”
	Muslim_Counter	“In fact, after September 11 and since, Muslim leaders and scholars have been voicing their condemnation of terrorism loud and clear”
S8	Extremist	“Raise your arms and fight to escape from this humiliation and shame!”
	Muslim_Counter	“I'd like to make it close to your mind why Muslims are in need of fight or combat”
S1	Extremist	“We know the truth about the leaderships of the first tier and their subjugation to our enemies ”
	Muslim_Counter	“The second case why the 'defensive' acknowledged physical Jihad is when it brings about safety to the Muslim state and security its borders, especially when the state is being threatened by enemies who are plotting against it”

762

763 Table 5. Examples of shared conceptual categories between religious authored messages and British Official
764 authored counter-extremist messages

Category	Corpus	Example
S6	Muslim_Counter	“Even if Spain and the UK were among the attackers, they should have fought against the soldiers who are in their countries, not random killing civilians, including children, who have no other fault than sitting in a train”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“Understand the causes of terror. Yes, we should try, but let there be no moral ambiguity about this: nothing could ever justify the events of 11 September, and it is to turn justice on its head to pretend it could”
X4	Muslim_Counter	“Somehow Al Qaeda has convinced Muslims that the only way to fight the West is through new means”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“You saw with Afghanistan or the 11th September attack, there's no way Britain could have stood apart from that. I mean we could have taken a back seat, but we were still involved”
A13	Muslim_Counter	“The Prophet Muhammad said that anyone who killed even a bird unjustly would meet Allah on Judgment Day”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“The more we reach out across the world of faith, the more common space the Abrahamic and non-Abrahamic faiths can inhabit, then the extremists and reactionaries within all faiths can be challenged”
A4	Muslim_Counter	“In case there is a violation to the security pledge by any non-Muslim citizen, then he is solely responsible for his personal violation, and no one except the Muslim rExtremistr is allowed to question him for such violation”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“And here is why Iraq is important in this, because in the end their case , which is based on dividing people, the Arab world and the western world, the Muslim world and the Christian world and other religions, their case is that we are in Iraq to suppress Muslims, steal their oil, to spoil the country. Now we know, you know, that all those things are lies”
A7	Muslim_Counter	“Only God can guide individuals to Islam, not some disgusting fool named bin Laden”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“if we do take military action, we have to do everything we possibly can to minimise the civilian casualties”
A1	Muslim_Counter	“For this reason, Muslims do not encourage everybody to go about interpreting and explicating the Qur'an”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“The sceptics said it was pointless, we'd make matters worse, we'd make Milosevic stronger and look what happened, we won, the refugees went home, the policies of ethnic cleansing were reversed”
N5	Muslim_Counter	“Still, always the proviso is that fighting should be the last option, when all other avenues are closed”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“If international terrorism is defeated, we are all safer”
A14	Muslim_Counter	“The only difference between you and them is; they follow the Quran and the Sunnah, fearing Allah and not basing their judgments on their own opinions, while the others make their own conclusions according to their own desires”
	BrOfficial_Counter	“It turns upside-down our concepts of how we should act and when, and it crosses the frontiers of many nations. So just as it redefines our notions of security, so it must refine our notions of diplomacy”

765
766 Table 6. Examples of shared conceptual categories between British Official authored counter-extremist
767 messages and Arab mainstream media messages

Category	Corpus	Example
G1	BrOfficial_Counter	“The first priority of any Government is to ensure the security and safety of the nation and all members of the public”
	Mainstream	“The peace talks have also exacerbated tensions between Palestinian President Mahmoud Abbas' West Bank government and the rival Islamic militant Hamas that rule the Gaza Strip and opposes negotiations with Israel”
M7	BrOfficial_Counter	“In the decades to come there will be many international negotiations , debates , occasionally , if only in a diplomatic sense , confrontations”

	Mainstream	“Kidnapping for ransom is common and a lucrative business in the Horn of Africa country and Somali fighters say they will stand up to the government until all foreign forces in the capital leave the country”
I2	BrOfficial_Counter	“There is now no contact permitted with western agencies , even those delivering food”
	Mainstream	“We observe the banks in the UAE, whether foreign or local banks, are applying more and more daily restrictions to the Iranian traders and businesses,” said Morteza Masoumzadeh, the vice president of the Iranian Business Council (IBC) in Dubai and managing director of Jumbo Line, a shipping agency ”
I3	BrOfficial_Counter	“It is right that we now also work more closely with allies in the region through a new 'Friends of Yemen' group, we will help establish to pool effort, resource and expertise”
	Mainstream	““The idea that courts should have no role whatsoever in determining the criteria by which the executive branch can kill its own citizens is unacceptable in a democracy,” the American Civil Liberties Union and Center for Constitutional Rights said. “In matters of life and death, no executive should have a blank check,” they said”
A11	BrOfficial_Counter	“I think what is important is that we don't just have a period of calm, but progressively, within that, we're able to start to reopen the border crossings, get not just humanitarian aid in, but also get some of the business going in Gaza again”
	Mainstream	“The main alternative, according to officials, is to seek U.N. Security Council recognition of a Palestinian state in the West Bank, Gaza and east Jerusalem, the territories Israel captured in the 1967 Mideast war”
Y1	BrOfficial_Counter	“It is to prevent Iran acquiring nuclear weapons capability; but it is more than that, it is to put a stop to the Iranian regime's policy of de-stabilisation and support of terrorism”
	Mainstream	“A new U.N. nuclear agency report shows that Tehran has now amassed nearly twice as much enriched uranium as the West wants removed from Iran. That finding is likely to increase Western opposition to a nuclear deal that Iran says would build trust about its atomic activities”
Y2	BrOfficial_Counter	“Whereas once, influence was carried by word of mouth and through books and newspapers, today the internet and 24 hour media allow access to a global audience with examples of course of young people being radicalised solely by contact with the internet”
	Mainstream	“The Zionist regime's ambassador to the UN Gabriela Shalev sent a letter to Secretary General Ban Ki-moon asking that the international community intervene to prevent the ship approaching Gaza, the website of the Israeli regime paper Haaretz daily reported”
S5	BrOfficial_Counter	“The world community must show as much its capacity for compassion as for force. The critics will say: but how can the world be a community ? Nations act in their own self-interest. Of course they do. But what is the lesson of the financial markets, climate change, international terrorism, nuclear proliferation or world trade?”
	Mainstream	“After democratic elections last year, the government formed by Hamas was paralysed by a punishing Western aid freeze and the withholding by Israel of Palestinian tax revenue”
M5	BrOfficial_Counter	“Likewise, we must see what more scope there is to contract helicopters commercially to do some of the routine tasks, and free up helicopters for the frontline”
	Mainstream	“China is a strong ally of Pakistan and Islamabad draws heavily on Beijing for its defense and infrastructure needs. Pakistan's air force has a fleet of Chinese aircraft , including F-7PGs and A-5s, but also U.S.-built F-16s and French Mirages”
K1	BrOfficial_Counter	“If Europe and America are together, the others will work with us. If we split, the rest will play around, play us off and nothing but mischief will be the result of it”
	Mainstream	“The Israeli air force played a key role in a fierce three-week offensive in Gaza early last year, which began with airstrikes that killed hundreds of Hamas fighters”
X6	BrOfficial_Counter	“in conflict resolution ; encouraging investment; and access to our markets so that we practise the free trade we are so fond of preaching”
	Mainstream	“Azizi added that the demolition is also motivated by the government plan to take advantage of the priceless land on which the palace was located. "Because of the corruption that pervades its institutions, the Revolutionary Guard is not only dominating political decision making but also the economy””