-

N



# A CDA Study of News Reports on 2009 UN Climate Change Conference in Chinese and American Newspapers

# By Xie Ying

# Under the Supervision of Professor Wang Xiangyun

Submitted to the School of Foreign Languages and Literature

# In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of Master of Arts

**Shandong University** 

Jinan, China

March, 2010

**、** · · · .

### 原创性声明

本人郑重声明: 所呈交的学位论文, 是本人在导师的指导下, 独立进 行研究所取得的成果。除文中已经注明引用的内容外, 本论文不包含任何 其他个人或集体已经发表或撰写过的科研成果。对本文的研究作出重要贡 献的个人和集体, 均已在文中以明确方式标明。本声明的法律责任由本人 承担。

论文作者签名: 浙和 日期: 20/0、3、20

# 关于学位论文使用授权的声明

本人同意学校保留或向国家有关部门或机构送交论文的印刷件和电子 版,允许论文被查阅和借阅;本人授权山东大学可以将本学位论文的全部 或部分内容编入有关数据库进行检索,可以采用影印、缩印或其他复制手 段保存论文和汇编本学位论文。

(保密论文在解密后应遵守此规定)

论文作者签名: 11 段 导师签名: 1802日期: 2010年6月6日

•

¥.,

.

.

.

# Contents

Abstracti
摘 要
List of tablesv
List of figures
List of diagrams
Chapter One Introduction1
1.1 Research Background1
1.2 Goal and Significance2
1.3 Outline of the Thesis
Chapter Two Literature Review
2.1 Introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis4
2.1.1 The Origin of CDA4
2.1.2 Theoretical Basis of CDA5
2.1.3 The Objective and Principles of CDA
2.1.4 Giant Figures of CDA
2.2 Language, Power and Ideology10
2.2.1 Language and Power10
2.2.2 Language and Ideology12
2.3 A Brief Introduction to News Discourse
2.4 Critical Studies on News Discourse15
2.4.1 CDA Studies on Media Discourse in the West
2.4.2 CDA Studies on Media Discourse in China17
Chapter Three Theoretical Framework and Methodology
3.1 Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar19
3.2 Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model21
3.3 Analytic Tools26
3.3.1 Lexical Classification

0.0 march 14	
3.3.2 Transitivity	28
3.3.3 Intertexuality	33
3.4 Data Collection Procedures	33
3.5 News Data Background	36
Chapter Four Results and Discussions	
4.1 Headline/ Lead Analysis of News Data	
4.1.1 Analysis of Processes in News Headline/Lead	40
4.1.2 Analysis of Actor in News Headline/Lead	41
4.2 Qualitative Analysis of Sample Texts	45
4.2.1 Description	45
4.2.2 Interpretation	49
4.2.3 Explanation	54
Chapter Five Conclusion	56
5.1 Major Findings	56
5.2 Implications	58
5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research	59
Appendix I Sources of the Selected News Reports	60
Appendix II News Reports for Lexical Classification Analysis	
Bibliography	
Acknowledgements	70

### Abstract

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as a branch of discourse analysis goes beyond the description of discourse to an explanation of how and why particular discourses are produced. CDA deals with examining and analyzing spoken and written texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, and inequality, and explaining how these sources are produced within specific social, economic, political, and historical contexts. News discourse as a type of non-literary mass media discourse attracts attention from many critical linguists. The relationship between language and ideology is also one of the central topics for critical discourse analysis, particular in the study of media discourse. Critical linguists believe that there is a determinant relation between ideological processes and linguistic processes and that the linguistic choices made in discourses can carry ideological meaning.

Based on Fairclough's three-dimensional model and Halliday's systemic-functional grammar, the present thesis conducts a comparative critical analysis of news reports from different sources on the same event in order to identify diverse ideologies hidden in news discourse. Samples for analysis are ten English news reports concerning the 2009 UN Climate Change Conference extracted from *China Daily* and *The New York Times* respectively. The present analysis is carried out at three levels. At the textual level, aspects of lexical classification and transitivity are explored. Mode of discourse representation and news sources are examined at the discursive level. Analysis at the third level focuses on investigating the textual choices in the light of social and cultural context in which texts are produced.

The objective of this research is to make a contribution to the application of CDA. Our study validates the results of many former critical studies that news is not impartial, serious and objective as it seems to be and that the naturalized ideological assumptions and implications are concealed under the seemingly neutral lexical and structural patterns.

The significance of this research is threefold. First is the extension of research scope

i

of CDA. Previously, CDA is interested in analyzing such news discourse as politics, racism, and gender discrimination. But little attention is paid to climate change reports in this field. Second, the comparative study of the news reports from different news agencies on the same event is proved to be applicable and effective. Last, it may help raise people's critical language awareness in news reading.

The present thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter One is a brief introduction to the research background, goal, significance and organization of the thesis. In Chapter Two, the fundamental concepts and development of CDA and news discourse are introduced, followed by the presentation of contributions made by prominent figures in critical discourse studies. The theoretical framework and methodology of the present study are elaborated in Chapter Three. An analytical model is proposed and the methods employed for data collection and data analysis are also introduced in detail. In Chapter Four, news data are dealt with first from headline/lead, the most prominent and significant elements of news texts. Then, two groups of samples are analyzed at three levels: textual level, discursive level and socio-cultural level. Differences between these two newspapers are identified and a reasonable explanation of differences is also presented. Chapter Five summarizes major findings of this study, followed by the implications derived from the research findings and the limitations and suggestions for further research.

Key words: Critical Discourse Analysis; China Daily and The New York Times; ideology; UN Climate Change Conference; comparative study

ü

#### 摘要

批评语篇分析作为语篇分析的一个分支,不仅仅描述语篇,而且解释了特定语篇 产生的方式和原因。通过对话语文本和书面文本的分析,批评语篇分析试图揭示语篇 中的权利,支配和不平等现象,并对这些现象所产生的特定的社会,经济和政治语境 做出解释。新闻作为一种非文学的大众传媒语篇,受到众多批评语篇分析家的重视。 语言和意识形态的关系是批评语篇分析研究的一个热点问题,特别是在新闻语篇的研 究中。批评语篇分析家认为意识形态和语言之间存在相互决定的关系,并且,语篇中 的语言选择往往带有意识形态的含义。

本文以费尔克劳夫的三维模式和韩礼德的系统功能语法为分析框架,对选自不同 报纸的新闻报道进行了对比分析,以阐明语篇结构背后所隐藏的社会意识形态背景。 本文以十篇分别选自《中国日报》和《纽约时报》有关"2009 年联合国气候会议"的 报道为样本,从三个层面对其进行了分析。在文本层面,从词汇分类和及物性系统角 度考察了所选新闻报道的语言特征;在话语实践层面,通过对新闻来源的分析,再现 了新闻语篇的生成过程。在社会实践层面,结合特定的政治、经济和社会文化背景对 文本层次和话语层次的选择进行了解释,揭示了新闻语篇中蕴含的意识形态意义。

本文研究的目的在于进一步丰富对批评语篇分析这一理论的运用。本文的研究证 实了许多之前批评语篇分析研究的结论,即,新闻并非如其所标榜的公正,严肃和客 观,在看似中立的词汇和结构类型下隐藏了自然化的推断和暗示。

本文的研究价值和意义主要体现在三个方面:首先,拓展了批评话语分析的范围。 前人的研究往往只注重对政治、种族歧视和性别歧视等新闻报道的研究,而对看似中 性的气候变化的新闻很少问津。本论文很好地说明了对不同新闻媒体对同一事件的报 道进行比较分析的方法被证明是适用的和有效的。最后本论文在一定程度上可以帮助 读者提高对新闻话语的批评阅读意识。

本文共五章。第一章简单介绍了的论文的研究背景、目标、意义和结构。第二章 首先介绍了批评语篇分析和新闻语篇的基本概念和发展情况,以及批评语篇分析研究 领域的著名学者对本领域所做的贡献。第三章则详细说明了本研究的理论框架和方法 论,提出了本文的分析模型以及解释了数据搜集和分析的详细方法。第四章从新闻文 本中最为显著和重要的标题和导语开始分析,然后又从三个层面对两组新闻样本进行

iii

了分析: 文本层面、语篇层面和社会文化层面,由此发现了两种报纸对同一事件报道 的不同点,并阐明了这种现象的原因。第五章总结了本研究的主要发现,和从发现中 得到的启示以及本研究存在的不足和对未来进一步研究的建议。

关键字: 批评语篇分析;《中国日报》和《纽约时报》; 意识形态; 联合国气候变化 会议; 对比分析

# List of tables

Table 3.1 Six types of process, adapted from Halliday(1994:143)
Table 3.2 Material processes
Table 3.3 Mental processes
Table 3.4 Relational processes
Table 3.5 Verbal processes
Table 3.6 Behaviour processes
Table 3.7 Existential processes
Table 3.8 News texts from China Daily and The New York Times
Table 4.1 Processes analysis of the news headlines/lead40
Table 4.2 Analysis of the material processes with U.S and rich countries as actor42
Table 4.3 Analysis of the material processes with China and developing countries as actor42
Table 4.4 Analysis of the material processes with agreement and climate talks as actor44
Table 4.5 Analysis of the material processes with other abstract issues as actor
Table 4.6 Media coverage concerning the Danish text
Table 4.7 Media coverage concerning the developed countries
Table 4.8 Media coverage concerning the developing countries
Table 4.9 Distribution of news sources in the two groups of news reports
Table 4.10 Categories of news sources in samples from China Daily
Table 4.11 Categories of news sources in samples from The New York Times

# List of figures

Figure 2-1: Model discourse structure for news texts (after Bell, 1991:171)	14
Figure 3-1Discourse as text, interactions and context (Fairclough, 1989)	23
Figure 3-2 A three-dimensional model of discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995)	24

# List of diagrams

	Diagram 4.1 Total distributions of processes in the news headlines/leads from two newspapers
•	Diagram 4.2 Distribution of news sources in samples from China Daily
	Diagram 4.3 Distribution of news sources in samples from The New York Times53

. , . . 

## **Chapter One** Introduction

#### **1.1 Research Background**

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) stems from a critical theory of language which sees the use of language as a form of social practice. Critical linguists employ a new perspective different from that of traditional linguists who study purely academic or theoretical problems.

Critical linguistics examines how underlying ideologies are embedded in linguistic structures such as vocabulary and syntax. It deals with examining and analyzing spoken and written texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, and inequality and explaining how these sources are initiated, maintained, reproduced, and transformed within specific social, economic, political, and historical contexts (van Dijk, 1998).

Public discourse is the main domain practiced by critical linguists, covering media discourse, advertisement and political discourse. Since mass media plays an increasingly important role in modern society, variations of language use in the media attract attention from many critical linguists. Research on media discourse within the paradigm of CDA in the past two decades has largely established the media as a social and discursive institution which regulates and organizes social life as well as the production of social knowledge, values and beliefs through linguistic means (van Dijk, 1993; Fairclough, 1995b; Fowler, 1996).

A survey of previous study shows that researchers mainly focus on obviously ideology-embedded subjects including racism, war and other political issues. Other seemingly more neutral news genres, covering economic and climate change, receive scare attention. The current study attempts to analyze the reports on the 15<sup>th</sup> Copenhagen Climate Change Conference in Chinese and American newspapers from a CDA perspective, making a modest contribution to the existing literature on critical studies of news discourse.

#### 1.2 Goal and Significance

In this thesis, the main task is to make a contribution to the application of CDA. A comparative analysis of event representation in newspapers which are ideologically different is carried out to strengthen the assumption that news is not value-free but ideology-embedded. Aiming at this primary objective, the current study tries to answer the questions: (1) Are there any differences in the employment of linguistic devices by two newspapers to present the issue of climate change? If yes, what are they? (2) Are there any differences in the ideologies embedded in these two newspapers? If yes, how does it happen? And why does it happen?

The significance of this research is threefold. First, research scope of CDA is extended to a certain degree. Previously, CDA is interested in analyzing such news discourses as politics, racism, and gender discrimination. But little attention is paid to climate change reports in this field. Second, the comparative study of the news reports from different news agencies on the same event is proved to be applicable and effective. This practice shows that a comparative analysis is an effective way to reveal the hidden ideology embedded in the linguistic features. Readers will grasp a comparatively comprehensive understanding of news events. The present study also shows that the methodology framework adopted in the thesis can be used in the comparative analysis of news reports. Last, it may help raise people's critical language awareness in news reading.

#### **1.3 Outline of the Thesis**

The present thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter One is a brief introduction to the research background, goal, significance and organization of the thesis. In Chapter Two, the fundamental concepts and development of CDA and news discourse are introduced, followed by the presentation of contributions made by prominent figures in critical studies. The theoretical framework and methodology of the present study are elaborated in Chapter Three. An analytical model is proposed and the methods employed for data collection and data analysis are also introduced in detail. Halliday's systemic-functional grammar and

Fairclough's three-dimensional model are introduced elaborately. In Chapter Four, news data are dealt with first from headline/lead, the most prominent and significant elements of news texts. Then, two groups of samples are analyzed at three levels: textual level, discursive level and socio-cultural level. Differences between these two newspapers are identified and a reasonable explanation of differences is also presented. Chapter Five summarizes major findings of this study, followed by the implications derived from the research findings and the limitations and suggestions for further research.

### Chapter Two Literature Review

This chapter gives a brief survey of news discourse and reviews the literature related to CDA by discussing the origin, development, theoretical basis and principles of CDA and explicating the relationship among language, power and ideology. Finally, the limitations and enlightenments of previous studies of news discourse with the emphasis on the critical approach are given.

#### 2.1 Introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis

A brief introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is provided in this part. CDA stems from critical linguistics which makes great contributions to the theory of CDA. The origin and theoretical basis of CDA are introduced at first, followed by the objective and principles of CDA. Finally, many giant figures in this field are also mentioned.

#### 2.1.1 The Origin of CDA

CDA stems from critical linguistics, which is a branch of discourse analysis that goes beyond the description of discourse to an explanation of how and why particular discourses are produced (Teo, 2000). The term "critical linguistics" was first used in *Language and Control* (Fowler et al., 1979) and *Language as Ideology* (Hodge & Kress, 1993). They hold that discourse does not only mirror social processes and structures, but also consolidates and even reshapes existing social structures. According to Fowler (1991:67), "critical linguistics seeks, by studying the minute details of linguistic structure in the light of the social and historical situation of the text, to display to consciousness the patterns of belief and value which are encoded in the language and which are below the threshold of not for anyone who accepts the discourse as natural."

After Language and Control was made public in 1979, the notion of CDA was still scarcely known to the public. With the emergence of a variety of works in this field such as

Linguistic Criticism in 1986 and "Notes on Critical Linguistics" in 1987, Critical Linguistics was known to people gradually and group of critical linguists appeared in Britain, Australia, Holland and Austria. The publication of Social Semiotics by Kress & Hodge in 1988 and other books opened a new era for the development of CDA.

CDA as a network of scholars emerged in the early 1990s, following a small symposium in Amsterdam, in January 1991. The meeting supported by the University of Amsterdam, with the attendance of many giant figures in CDA, such as Teun van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Gunther Kress, Theo van Leeuwen and Ruth Wodak, flourishes the theories and methods of Discourse Analysis, specifically CDA. The start of CDA network was marked by the launch of van Dijk's journal *Discourse and Society* (1990), as well as by several books which were coincidentally published simultaneously and led by similar research goals (Ruth Wodak & Michael Meyer, 2001:3).

#### 2.1.2 Theoretical Basis of CDA

Some of the tenets of CDA can be traced back to the critical theory of Frankfurt School before the Second World War (Agger 1992b; Rasmussen 1996). CDA has also been an important instrument in sociolinguistics, psychology, and the social sciences, some already dating back to the early 1970s (Birnbaum, 1971; Calhoun, 1995; Fay, 1987; Fox & Prileltensky, 1997; Hymes, 1972; Ibanez & Iniguez, 1997; Signh, 1996; Thomas, 1993; Turkel, 1996; Wodak, 1996). Playing the same role in these related disciplines, "CDA may be seen as a reaction against the dominant formal (often "asocial" or "uncritical") paradigms of the 1960s and 1970s."(van Dijk, 2001)

The social theories of Foucault and other socialists also make great contributions to the formulation of CDA framework of Fowler, Kress and more recently van Dijk and Fairclough, who believe that language reflects and is reflected by social construction. Two American anthropologists, Edward Sapir and Benjamin Wholf, also make contributions to Critical linguistics. CDA advocates the idea of Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis that human beings have something in common in culture, but different nations have different languages because of their distinct cultural background and socio-cultural ideology.

Systemic-Functional Linguistics put forward by M.A.K.Halliday is no doubt one of the greatest contributions to the shaping of CDA.

Critical linguists made two further contributions based on the critical linguistics in the mid-1970s. Inspired by Marx, they hold that the "patterns of experience" Halliday refers to, are not necessarily neutral. They are patterned the way they are to suit the needs and interests of those who use them both to understand and to enact their reality, and if such interests include domination, they are ideological. The second was inspired by Wolf. If different language can encode different "patterns of experience" (and different ideologies), they agreed, so can different use of one and the same language.

Critical discourse analysis moves beyond critical linguistics in a number of ways. The first is the attempt to ground critical discourse analysis in critical social theory and to articulate the relation between discourses and the social practices in which they are embedded. The second way lies in adopting a much more fully interdisciplinary approach, studying not only texts and transcripts of talk, but also their contexts, whether by historical or ethnographic methods.

Critical discourse analysis is not bound with a particular school of linguistics or discourse analysis. Many have followed Fairclough (1989) in drawing primarily on the systemic-functional linguistics of Halliday (1994). According to Halliday, the language forms chosen by people when expressing their ideas are decided by the social functions. Language mainly performs three meta-functions: the ideational function of constructing representations of the world; the interpersonal function of constituting social interactions; and the textual functions of creating cohesively structured texts and communicative events. Critical discourse analysis has the same purpose of systemic-functional linguistics, dealing with "the way language is used to construct and disseminate discourses-ideologically specific representations of some aspects of the world and with the way language is used to enact hegemonic genres-specific ways of using language to achieve purposes of social domination." (Halliday, 1994)

### 2.1.3 The Objective and Principles of CDA

CDA aims to provide a different "mode" or perspective of theorizing, analysis, and application throughout the whole field instead of being a direction, school, or specialization next to many other "approaches" in discourse studies (van Dijk, 2001). Fairclough argues that the objective of critical analysis is to "denaturalize such naturalized ideologies." "To denaturalize them is the objective of a discourse analysis which adopts 'critical' goals. I suggest that denaturalization involves showing how social structures determine properties of discourse, and how discourse in turn determines social structures."(Fairclough, 1995b)

A variety of areas such as pragmatics, conversation analysis, rhetoric and stylistics, can also be found to employ such a critical perspective to some extent. Instead of denying or ignoring a relation between scholarship and society, Critical discourse researchers insist that such relations should be studied and explained.

Wodak (1996:204) puts the objective of CDA as analyzing "opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language."

Fairclough provides a more specific explanation:

[CDA] aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony.

(Fairclough, 1995a:133)

In order to effectively realize these aims, van Dijk (2001:353) puts forward the following requirements needed to be satisfied in critical research:

- As is often the case for more marginal research traditions, CDA research has to be "better" than other research in order to be accepted.
- It focuses primarily on social problems and political issues, rather than on current

paradigms and fashions.

- Empirically adequate critical analysis of social problems is usually multidisciplinary.
- Rather than merely describe discourse structures, it tries to explain them in terms of properties of social interaction and especially social structure.

More specifically, CDA focuses on the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce, or challenge relations of power and dominance in society.

Fairclough & Wodak (1997:271-280) summarizes the main tenets of CDA as follows:

- 1. CDA addresses social problems
- 2. Power relations are discursive
- 3. Discourse constitutes society and culture
- 4. Discourse does ideological work
- 5. Discourse is historical
- 6. The link between text and society is mediated
- 7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
- 8. Discourse is a form of social action.

#### 2.1.4 Giant Figures of CDA

Fowler is one of the giants in Critical Discourse Analysis and made great contributions to the development of CDA and even the term *Critical linguistics* was first introduced in his work *Language and Control*. In 1986, his famous book *Linguistic Criticism* was published, offering a detailed introduction to the critical study of discourse. In his paper "Notes on Critical Linguistics" which was published in 1987, he focused his study on improving critical linguistics in theory and methodology based on the existing achievements in the field. The most pressing task for Fowler at the time was to draft an integrated set of well-defined analytic tools for practical application because there were few monographs on systemic analysis in this field except *Language and the Nuclear Arms Debate: Nukespeak Today* (Chilton, 1985). He put most of his energy on studying media

language. He holds that the tools for analysis are an eclectic selection of descriptive categories suited to the purpose, especially those structures identified by Halliday as ideational and interpersonal functions. On the methodological level, Fowler prefers the Systemic-Functional Grammar and he distinguished his approaches from the mainstream paradigm of linguistics, insisting on analyzing real texts and their relations to real contexts. Most of his studies focus on the analytic tools, such as the analysis of transitivity, lexical structure, modality and speech acts, etc.

Fairclough, a key figure in the field of CDA, is among the first to use the term of CDA. He explains his understanding of the role of discourse in society in his book Language and Power. Fairclough argues that the objective of CDA is to uncover the ideological assumptions hidden in the words of our written texts or oral speeches in order to resist or overcome various forms of power (Fairclough, 1989a). He attaches great importance to discourse representation in news report and regards it as an important aspect in analyzing discursive practice in news reports. In Fairclough's Discourse and Social Change (1992b), he puts forward a social theory of discourse and provides a practical solution for Critical Discourse Analysis in methodology, a significant attempt to theorize the CDA program. He also proposes a three-dimensional conception of discourse as text, discursive practice, and social practice, which is further developed into three stages of his analysis: description of text, interpretation of the relationship between text and interaction, and explanation of the relationship between interaction and social context. This three-dimensional approach is widely used in analyzing the power relations in and beyond discourses, and the ideologies the linguistic features may possess. With social context in mind, this method also helps uncover the dialectical relationship between language and social change.

Van Dijk also made great contributions to the development of CDA. He considers that critical linguistics mainly studies spoken and written discourses with the aim to explore how power, control, inequality and prejudice, etc., are shown in discourse and also how they are initiated, maintained, regenerated and transformed in a certain social, political and historic context (van Dijk, 1988a). Van Dijk shows special interest to media discourse, in particular to the issues of racism and ideology. Since the 1980s his work in CDA focused

especially on the study of the discursive reproduction of racism by what he called the "symbolic elites" (politicians, journalists, scholars, writers), the study of news in the press, and on the theories of ideology and context. He points out that media discourses are the main source of people's knowledge, attitudes and ideologies, both of elite as well as ordinary citizens (van Dijk,1998). He argues that textual theories and media discourse should be related to each other on the basis of content of texts.

Ruth Wodak, the most internationally well-known discourse analyst from the German speaking countries, proposes a practical analytical method by endeavoring to recontextualize the text and integrate the historical context as well. Her approach is interdisciplinary. She tries to incorporate fieldwork and ethnography to explore the object under investigation as a precondition for any further analysis and theorizing. The specific discourse-analytical approach is three-staged: first, the specific contents or topics of a specific discourse are established; second, the discursive strategies are investigated; third, the linguistic means and the specific, context-dependent linguistic realizations are examined. The first stage shows that her approach is problem-based. The second stage indicates that the model depends on description of linguistic categories. In the end, contextual knowledge is employed to explain the structures of descriptive and discursive event.

#### 2.2 Language, Power and Ideology

#### 2.2.1 Language and Power

Power is a central concept in critical discourse analysis, as it often analyses the language use of those in power, who are responsible for the existence of inequalities. Typically, CDA researchers are interested in the way discourse (re)produces social domination, that is, the power abuse of one group over others, and how dominated groups may discursively resist such abuse. This raises the question of how CDA researchers understand power and what moral standards allow them to differentiate between power use and abuse—a question which remains unanswered.

There are as many concepts of power as there are social theories. There is almost no sociological or socio-psychological theory which does not provide a distinctive notion of power. According to Wodak (2009:9), at least three different approaches to power can be distinguished:

- power as a result of specific resources of individual actors (e.g. French and Raven, 1959)
- power as a specific attribute of social exchange in each interaction (e.g. Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1962, 1975)
- power as a systemic and constitutive element/characteristic of society (e.g. from very different angles, Foucault, 1979 and Giddens, 1984)

Since the text in CDA is often regarded as a manifestation of social action which again is widely determined by social structure, power is mostly perceived in the third way within CDA. Power is essential for understanding the dynamics and specifics of control (of action) in modern societies, but power remains mostly invisible. Linguistic manifestations are under investigation in CDA. This relation between social power and language is a permanent topic not only in CDA (Fairclough, 1989; Wodak, 1989) but also in sociolinguistics (Ng & Bradac, 1993).

In Foucault's study *Discipline and Punish* (1979), power system is superior to discourse. At the same time, he develops his view of the nature of power in modern society, which places discourse and language at the heart of social practices and processes. The nature of power in modern society is bound up with dominant populations. Power is implicit within every social practice which is pervasively distributed at every level in all domains of social life, and is constantly engaged in; moreover, it "is tolerate only on condition that it masks a substantial part of itself. Its success is proportional to its ability to hide own mechanism" (Foucault, 1981: 86).

According to Fairclough, power does not work negatively by forcefully dominating those who are subject to it; it incorporates them, and is "productive" in the sense that it shapes and "retools" them to fit in with its needs (Fairclough, 1992a).

Foucault (1984:109) also raised some important issues related to power and language:

"In every society, the production of discourse is at once controlled, selected,

organized and redistributed by a certain number of procedures whose role is to ward off its powers and dangers, to gain mastery over its chance, events, to evade its ponderous, formidable materiality."

Power is not always exercised in obviously abusive acts of dominant group members, but may be enacted in the myriad of taken-for-granted actions of everyday life (van Dijk, 2002).

#### 2.2.2 Language and Ideology

The relationship between language and ideology is also one of the central topics for critical discourse analysis, particular in the study of media discourse. Critical linguists believe that there is a determinant relation between ideological processes and linguistic processes and that the linguistic choices made in discourses can carry ideological meaning.

Fairclough has been critical of the idea proposed by Critical linguists that ideologies reside in texts (1992, 1995). He holds that ideology is situated both in the structures that form the outcome of past events and the conditions for current events, and in the events themselves as they reproduce and transform their conditioning structures.

Van Dijk (1998) has made a great contribution to the study of the complicated relationship between discourse and ideology. He defines ideology as "the basis of the social representations shared by members of a group." (van Dijk, 1998:8) He also puts forward that discourses including language use, text, talk and communication, are the most crucial social practices in the formulation of ideologies in their social reproduction. In other words, it is necessary to examine the discursive markers for the purpose of unveiling the mechanism by which the ideology works.

Fairclough and van Dijk are particularly concerned with ideological effects of discourse. Fairclough notes:

"One of the causal effects of texts which has been of major concern for critical discourse analysis is ideological effects ... ideologies are representations of aspects of the world which can be shown to contribute to establishing, maintaining and changing social relations of power, domination and exploitation (2003: 9)."

Van Dijk notes that a key function of ideologies is to promote and coordinate the

interests of a group, and also comments that dominated groups also need ideologies as a basis for resistance. That said, he reaches the conclusion that: it is of course true that many ideologies develop precisely in order to sustain, legitimate or manage group conflicts, as well as relationships of power and dominance (van Dijk, 1998: 24).

Ideological meaning embedded in discursive structure is sometimes hard for recipients to be aware of. "Ideologies built into conventions may be more or less naturalized and automatized, and people may find it difficult to comprehend that their normal practices could have specific ideological investments." (Fairclough, 1992b:90) Therefore, detailed critical analysis is necessary for analysts to uncover deeply-rooted ideologies in discourses.

### 2.3 A Brief Introduction to News Discourse

Critical linguistics focuses on the critical analysis of a variety of public discourses; however, news discourse is given wide attention by them. The reason may lie in that, as Thompson points out, the core function of the nature and influence of mass media on ideology production and communication needs to be put under the spotlight (Thompson, 1990: 264).

As mass media becomes an integral part of modern society, the development of mass media greatly changes people's life. And the cultural experiences of modern people are dependent on various mass media to a large extent.

In terms of what is news, Bennett (1988:125) provides a definition that "news is usually defined as information that is timely, relevant to the concerns of its audience, and presented in a form that is easy to grasp." Bell (1991:64) regards news as one variety of stories:

> "Stories are central to human nature. The stories people tell are a core part of their social identity, and the construction of a life story is crucial to our self-identity. The idea of the story is also central to news media. Journalists do not write articles, they write stories—with structure, order, viewpoint and values. So the daily happenings of our societies are expressed in the stories we are told in the media."

The media plays an important role in presenting culture, politics and social life, shaping as well as reflecting how these are formed and expressed. Media "discourse" attracts attention from critical discourse analysts both for what it reveals about a society and because it also contributes to the character of society.

There are "hard news" and "soft news." "Hard news" describes serious, factual and accidental stories of significance, such as the reporting of crime, war and conflicts. "Soft news" inclines to choose less serious topics which can easily arouse human-interest.

Labov (1972) proposes a framework of "narrative analysis" including six components: abstract, orientation, action, evaluation, resolution and coda. Bell provides an approach to media discourse analysis based on the contribution of Labov and van Dijk (Bell, 1995; Labov, 1972; van Dijk, 1988b). The framework proposed by Bell is shown in Figure 2-1.



Figure 2-1: Model discourse structure for news texts (after Bell, 1991:171) The close analysis is prerequisite to a more complicated approach to questions of ideology in news texts. It makes readers aware of the complexity and ambiguity of news.

### 2.4 Critical Studies on News Discourse

Research on media discourse from a perspective of CDA in the past two decades has already established the media as a social and discursive institution which regulates and organizes social life as well as the production of social knowledge, values and beliefs through linguistic means (van Dijk, 1993; Fairclough, 1995b; Fowler, 1996). Variations of language use in the media often constitute particular representations of the world, social identities, and relations, projecting certain versions of reality depending on the media's institutional purposes, positions and interests.

The undeniable power of media has inspired many critical studies in many disciplines: linguistics, semiotics, pragmatics, and discourse studies. Traditional, often content analytical approaches in critical media studies have revealed biased, stereotypical, sexist or racist images in texts, illustrations and photos (van Dijk, 2002:359).

### 2.4.1 CDA Studies on Media Discourse in the West

Stuart Hall and his associates carry out a famous discourse study within the framework of the cultural studies paradigm (Hall et al., 1980). Fowler and his associate (Fowler, 1991; Fowler et al., 1979) investigate how media language might work ideologically in their early work. One of his analysis centers on how some groups and individuals are unfavorably labeled in the media. As with many other English and Australian studies in this paradigm, the theoretical framework of Halliday's systemic-functional grammar is used in a study of the "transitivity" of syntactic patterns of sentences (van Dijk, 2002:359).

Van Dijk (1988b) has studied that the media as ideological institutions have taken over the ideological work of the family, the church, and the school in contemporary information society. He applies a theory of news discourse in critical studies of international news, racism in the press, and the coverage of squatters in Amsterdam.

Fairclough (1992b) incorporates the social theories with CDA and analyzes a variety of textual samples to illustrate his theories. He offers a new contemporary approach to

media language which connects both with the key issues in modern social theory and poststructuralist interest in intertextuality and genre mixing. His three-dimensional model is highly useful for media studies courses and adds a dimension to existing issues and theories in textual analysis. He has written extensively on news discourse. He also elaborates the relationship between language and ideology and gives a general picture of the place of language in society.

Allan Bell's research findings and methods can be found in his work *The Language of News Media* (1991). Bell stresses the importance of the processes which produce media language, as stories are shaped and modified by various hands. He emphasizes it is indeed stories that journalists and editors produce, not articles. These stories have viewpoint, values and structures that can be analyzed. He is concerned too with the role of the audience in influencing media language styles, and in understanding, forgetting or misconceiving the news presented to it. Bell also investigates the structures of the headlines and lead paragraphs of news reports.

The fact that ethnic minority groups in the west have always been portrayed negatively or stereotypically in the popular media has attracted attention from many CDA scholars. Van Dijk (1991) carries out studies of the recurring features and structures in British press coverage of ethnic relations and finds that minority actors tend to get first position in headlines when they are agents of negative action and they are quoted much less often than majority members when they are agents of positive action. In addition, minority groups are labeled with negative terms of reference.

Similarly, Teo (2000) shows special interest to the news reports about a Vietnamese gang in Australia and discovers evidence of a systematic "othering" and "stereotyping" of the ethnic community by the white majority. His analysis also uncovers the racist ideology of the press, which is manifested in asymmetrical power discourse between the (ethnic) law-breakers and the (white) law-enforcers.

The same as ethnic minorities, women are also considered as a separate kind, generally separated from power structures, and as a result, sexual discrimination is pervasive in news text. Findings from both Calda-Coulthard (1993) and Fowler (1991) present that in British newspapers, whereas women's public identity tends to be

characterized in terms of marital or family relations, men are generally described in terms of their professional status. Calda-Coulthard's analysis has also found that news texts are basically oriented to a male audience and exclude women from the speaking position, and "even when women are given voice, they are not given the same speaking space." These studies reveal the asymmetrical reproduction of power relations between the genders (Kuo & Nakamura, 2005).

Kuo & Nakamura's (2005) case study of language and ideology in Taiwan's media discourse explores, both qualitatively and quantitatively, the quotation patterns in two ideologically opposed newspapers in Taiwan, namely the pro-unification *United Daily News*, and the pro-independence *Liberty Times*. It is found that in reporting Taiwan President Chen Shuibian's "one country on each side" statement, the two newspapers differ significantly in their selection of quotation contents and quoted speakers. The same speaker is quoted as saying completely different things by the two newspapers, which are also more likely to quote those who voice their positions on the controversial political issue. As a result, this study has demonstrated that the choice of quotation patterns is by no means objective or neutral and presentations of speech in the news tend to contain some degree of intervention of mediation.

Lee & Craig (1992) demonstrates that the "us versus them" dichotomy and anti-Communist sentiments in operation in US news coverage of Polish and South Korea labor disputes greatly affect whether a strike is reported favorably or unfavorably.

According to the reviews above, it is clear that CDA has been used as an effective analytical tool to analyze various types of media discourse. And great achievements have been made by those critical scholars abroad.

#### 2.4.2 CDA Studies on Media Discourse in China

In addition to illuminating how ideologies function, CDA is at its strongest in the direct comparison of different media accounts of the same event, revealing how language is a vehicle of covert interpretation in supposedly neutral reporting. The same event may be portrayed in vastly contrastive ways by various newspapers.

The study of media from a critical perspective in China has drawn attention from many scholars. Chen Zhongzhu is the first scholar who introduces Critical Linguistics (CL)

into China. He elaborates the philosophical and linguistic basis of CL in *An Introduction* and Evaluation to Critical Linguistics published in 1995. Further, introducing the development of CL grounded on language, discourse, context and ideology as well as the methodology of CL, Chen makes CL widely known and accepted in China. He divides the development of CDA into five periods from its birth to the latest development tendency. Chen also puts into practice the analytic tools proposed by CL through analyzing two pieces of news in two British newspapers and gives a detailed demonstration on how grammar and discourse structure can be used to realize ideological representation and to reach the aim of power control.

Xin Bin, by far the most productive writer on CL/CDA is interested in a wide range of subjects in CDA. His research area ranges from the theoretical origin and the development of CL to the analysis of real discourses to uncover the underlying ideologies in various discourses. He also distinguishes between Critical Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis and elaborates the widely used methodology in CDA—Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), methodological framework of depth hermeneutics (Thompson, 1990) and three-dimensional model (Fairclough, 1989; 1992; 2003). Xin holds that news discourse incorporates various genres and styles. In order to emphasize the importance of examining the intertexuality in news discourse, he makes a case study of two news reports through analyzing modes of speech reporting from the angle of news sources, reporting verbs, direct and indirect speeches. His study of news discourse from the critical perspective makes a great contribution to the application of CDA in news.

Following Chen and Xin, quite a few Chinese scholars also employ CDA to analyze the news discourses covering many fields, such as Zhang Yanxu(1998), Xu Lixin (1999) and Dai Weihua & Gao Jun(2002). Pan Zhigao (2003) makes a content analysis of all reports on Chinese issues from *The New York Times* during the years from 1993 to 1998 in his book "China's Image in *The New York Times*: Political, Historical and Cultural Factors". Adopting Fairclough's three-dimensional model, Pan divides his analysis into three stages of description, interpretation and explanation. Interpretation and explanation are carried out from the perspectives of the cultural differences between the two nations, the US view of China and Sino-U.S. relations.

# Chapter Three Theoretical Framework and Methodology

The theoretical framework and methodology of the present study are elaborated in this chapter. An analytical model is proposed and the methods employed for data collection and data analysis are also introduced in detail. The present study is conducted within the theoretical framework of Fairclough's three-dimensional model, which states that critical discourse analysis should be carried out through three stages: description of text; interpretation of the relationship between text and interaction; and explanation of the relationship between interaction and social context. In this chapter, a concise account of Fairclough's three-dimensional model and Halliday's systemic-functional grammar is given.

#### 3.1 Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar

Viewing CDA as an analytic approach, CDA practitioners have been greatly influenced by Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), which provides a sound theoretical foundation for CDA. In Halliday's opinion, "a discourse analysis that is not based on grammar is not an analysis at all, but simply a running commentary on a text" (Halliday, 1994:47). Choosing a comprehensive grammatical system is vital for a successful critical discourse analysis. Halliday sees language as a well-regulated system rather than a structure, which consists of a number of sub-systems from which people make choices. The question of which to choose is determined by the existed or expected social relations between language users. SFG serves as the main source and the useful analytic tool for CDA practitioners by offering clear and rigorous linguistic categories to analyze the relationship between discourse and social meaning (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999).

Halliday further puts forward that language is what it is because it has to serve certain functions. "The basis of Hallidayan linguistics is a very strong notion of 'function.' It is true that language 'performs functions' in a specific practical sense, i.e. being used distinctively to write headlines, to greet, to make a will, chide the children, and so on." (Fowler, 1991:69) Halliday distinguishes seven functions of language from children's learning and adults' learning of language, and later shortens the original functions into a set of highly coded and abstract functions, the famous three metafunctions: the ideational function, the interpersonal function and the textual function. Each of these functions deals with one aspect of the world and is concerned with a different mode of meaning of clauses.

The ideational function uses language to represent experience of the world, including our own consciousness, and is concerned with clauses as representations. This representation includes two parts: experiential meanings encode the experiences; logical meanings show the relationships between them. It is a function serving to express our experience, both of the external world and of the inner world of our own consciousness. (Halliday, 1973) Halliday further categorizes ideational metafunction into two aspects: experiential metafunction and logical metafunction. Ideational meaning is mainly realized through the transitivity system and transformation.

The interpersonal metafunction uses language to encode interaction, to show how defensible people find their proposition, to encode ideas about obligation and inclination and to express our attitudes. Put it simply, interpersonal metafunction refers to the relationship between the speaker and hearer. The interpersonal function is mainly realized through mood and modality.

The textual metafunction uses language to organize people's experiential, logical and interpersonal meanings into a coherent and, in the case of written and spoken language, linear whole. According to Halliday & Matthiessen, this function does not only construe and enact reality but also becomes part of the reality that is construed and enacted (1999).

In systemic functional approach, each sentence encodes not just one but three meanings simultaneously, and these meanings are related to the three different and very basic functions of language. SFG, as a useful analytic tool, is widely used by critical analysts. Van Dijk (2001) points out that CDA is not a specific direction of research, and it does not have a unitary theoretical framework. Diverse types of CDA have been used in analyzing media discourse. Currently, the socio-cognitive approach of van Dijk, the discourse-historical method of Wodak and the three-dimensional model of Fairclough

attract attention from most critical analysts. Since Fairclough's three-dimensional model is widely adopted and well suited in current study, the present research is conducted within the theoretical framework of Fairclough's three-dimensional model, which states that critical discourse analysis should be carried out through three stages: description of text; interpretation of the relationship between text and interaction; and explanation of the relationship between interaction and social context.

# 3.2 Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model

Fairclough views CDA as the analysis of the dialectical relationships between semiosis (including language) and other elements of social practices. These semiotic aspects of social practice are responsible for the constitution of genres and styles. The semiotic aspect of social order is called the order of discourse. Fairclough also draws upon Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics which analyses language as shaped (even in its grammar) by the social functions it has come to serve (Ruth Wodak & Michael Meyer, 2009:26).

#### **Key Terms**

It is essential to have a general idea in mind of the key terms used in Fairclough's approach before applying the method to the analysis. The following are the key terms used in his approach of CDA (Fairclough, 1992a, 1992b, 1993, 1995a, 1995b, 2001, 2003).

#### Text

Fairclough refers to text as "the written or spoken language produced in a discursive event" (Fairclough, 1993:138). He stresses the multi-semiotic characteristic of texts and adds visual images and sound—using the example of television language—as other semiotic forms which may be simultaneously present in texts (1995a).

#### Discourse

As an abstract noun, discourse is defined by Fairclough (1993: 138) as the "language use conceived as social practice." He refers to the countable noun of discourse as a "way of signifying experience from a particular perspective."(Fairclough, 1993:138) Fairclough
further points out:

[the] question of discourse is the question of how text figure (in relation to other moments) in how people represent the world, including themselves and their productive activities. Different discourses are different ways of representing associated with different positions (Fairclough, 2000:170).

### **Discursive event**

A discursive event is an "instance of language use, analysed as text, discursive practice, social practice." (Fairclough, 1993:138) Discursive event, thus, refers to text, discursive practice (production and interpretation of the text), and social practice (including situational, institutional and societal practice).

### Orders of discourse

Orders of discourse refer to the "totality of discursive practices of an institution and relationship between them." (Fairclough, 1993:138) They are often related to particular institutions or domains of social life. For example, there are particular orders of discourse associated with schools. In describing orders of discourse, one is concerned with specifying what discourse types are used in the domain, and the relationships between each discursive practice (production and interpretation of discourse).

Fairclough's approach to CDA makes an investigation of the relation between two assumptions about language use: language use is both socially shaped and socially shaping. Obviously, his idea is influenced by Halliday's systemic functional linguistics. The process of being socially shaped is a very complex one. On the one hand very different types of discourses may coexist within the same institution, while on the other hand the relationship between the language use and the underlying conventions and norms is not always a simple linear one (Fairclough, 1995a).

### Three-dimensional model

In Language and Power (1989:26), Fairclough developes a three-dimensional model of critical discourse analysis, including texts, interactions and contexts as illustrated in Figure 3-1.



Firgure 3-1 Discourse as text, interactions and context (Fairclough, 1989)

Fairclough gives his explanation of the figure:

"[In] seeing language as discourse and social practice, one is committing oneself not just to analyzing texts, nor just to analyzing processes of production and interpretation, but to analyzing the relationship between texts, processes, and their social conditions, both the immediate conditions of the situational context and the more remote conditions of institutional and social structures, or, using the italicized terms in Figure3-1, the relationship between texts, interactions, and contexts."

### (Fairclough, 1989:26)

Later, in this book *Discourse and Social Change* (1992b), Fairclough revises this model and constructs a new three-dimensional framework for conceiving of and analyzing discourse. This is regarded as the most elaborate and ambitious attempt towards theorizing the CDA program which provides a methodological blueprint for critical discourse analysis in practice. Figure 3-2 is the revised version of his model with three dimensions illustrated in the figure.



Dimensions of discourse Dimensions of discourse analysis Figure 3-2 A three-dimensional model of discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1995)

Fairclough's analytical framework is composed of three dimensions. The first dimension is discourse-as-text, i.e. the linguistic features and organization of concrete instances of discourse. Choices and patterns in vocabulary (e.g. wording, metaphor), grammar (e.g. transitivity, modality), cohesion (e.g. conjunction, schemata), and text structure (e.g. episoding, turn-taking system) should be systematically analyzed. The use of passive verb forms in news reporting, for instance, can have the effect of obscuring the agent of political processes. Fairclough also points out that the analysis is concerned with presences as well as absences in texts that could include "representations, categories of participant, constructions of participant identity or participant relations" (Fairclough, 1995a:58)

The second dimension is discourse-as-discursive-practice, i.e. discourse as something that is produced, circulated, distributed and consumed in society. There are two facets in this dimension: institutional process (e.g. editorial procedures), and discourse process (the changes that the text goes through in production and consumption). Approaching discourse as discursive practice means that in analyzing vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, and text structure, attention should be given to speech acts, coherence, and intertextuality—three aspects that link a text to its context. Discourse processes can be best explained through discussing a core concept in his approach: "intertextuality", which is "basically the property texts have of being full of snatches of other texts, which may be explicitly demarcated or merged in, and which the text may assimilate, contradict, ironically echo, and so forth." (Fairclough 1992b:84)

According to Fairclough, "intertextual analysis focuses on the borderline between text and discourse practice in the analytical framework. Intertextual analysis is looking at text from the perspective of discourse practice, looking at the traces of the discourse practice in the text." (Fairclough, 1995a:61) For Fairclough, "discourse practice straddles the division between society and culture on the one hand, and discourse, language and text on the other." (Fairclough 1995a:60)

According to Fairclough, intertextual analysis draws attention to the dependence of texts upon society and history in the form of the resources made available within the order of discourse (genres, discourses, etc.). Intertextual analysis also draws attention to how texts may transform these social and historical resources, how texts may "re-accentuate" genres, how genres (discourses, narratives, registers) may be mixed in texts. (Fairclough, 1995a:188)

The third dimension is discourse-as-socialcultural-practice, i.e. the ideological effects and hegemonic processes in which discourse is a feature. Hegemony concerns power that is achieved through constructing alliances and integrating classes and groups through consent, so that "the articulation and rearticulation of orders of discourse is correspondingly one stake in hegemonic struggle." (Fairclough, 1992b:93)

To put it simply, the method of discourse analysis of Fairclough's framework includes "linguistic description of the language text, interpretation of the relationship between the (productive and interpretative) discursive processes and the text, and explanation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the social processes. A special feature of this approach is that the link between sociocultural practice and text is mediated by discourse practice." (Fairclough, 1995a:97)

His model is a model of critical discourse analysis which also includes analysis of media discourse. Fairclough (1995b:34) summarizes the following principles for a critical analysis of the media discourse especially that of the press:

- Analysis of discourse should focus on the manifestation of social, cultural, and political changes in media discourse practices.
- Analyzing media texts should include analyzing both language and texture plus visual images.
- Relations of power and ideology, as a part of the wider sociocultural practices of the media, should be included in discourse analysis.
- Analysis of text should involve both linguistic analysis and intertextual analysis.
- Texts should be perceived as multifunctional and analyzed accordingly.
- Linguistic analysis should include all aspects of both language (grammar, phonology, lexicon, metaphor) and macrostructure or schemata in van Dijk's terms.
- Media texts should be conceived in a dialectical relationship with society and culture: "texts are socioculturally shaped but they also constitute society and culture, in ways which may be transformative as well as reproductive."

## **3.3 Analytic Tools**

## 3.3.1 Lexical Classification

Lexis, the most basic component of a language, is regarded as a major determinant of ideational structure in Hallidayan Functional Grammar. Lexical classification is an essential analytical tool for critical discourse analysis. According to Fowler (Fowler et al., 1979) the terms of classification and categorization are interchangeably used in the critical discourse analysis referring to the basic level of language function—word choice. Fowler thinks that vocabulary is an internal part of reproduction of ideology or proposition. "Lexical choice", says van Dijk (1988a:177), "is an eminent aspect of news discourse in which hidden opinions or ideologies may surface." He holds that words may be chosen that generally or conceptually express values or norms, and that therefore are used to express a

value judgment (van Dijk, 1995:23).

It is argued that the grammatical and vocabulary choices which a speaker/writer makes within the resources of a particular language construct a representation of the world, rather than simply reflect a pre-existing reality. The transmission of a message through language almost of necessity encodes beliefs and values into the message. The word selection is a powerful tool for establishing an ideological stance. So vocabulary is naturally regarded in critical linguistics as "a representation of the world for a culture; the world as perceived according to the ideological needs of a culture." (Fowler, 1991:82)

Lexical classification is a device at the very basic level which helps realize our experience of the world. According to Kress and Hodge, "classification is at the basis of language and thought. Without acts of classification no one could relate concepts or words to new concepts or messages because words and concepts only exist through classification. As social beings we learn through classifications, and we learn classifications". (Hodge & Kress, 1993:62) The classificatory function of language is one of the main-reasons why language is so closely bound up with world-view. Language can be seen as a tool for the classification of our experience of the world in many different ways and at many different levels. Vocabulary is at a very basic level a clear classificatory device. Within Fairclough's 10 questions to describe, interpret, and explain discourses, the "classification scheme" is the fist question in vocabulary to deal with. He claims "classification schemes in different discourse types may differ quantitatively, in a sense of wording particular aspects of reality to different degrees, with a larger or smaller number of words". (1989:115) And Fairclough further claims "the classification scheme constitutes a particular way of dividing up some aspect of reality which is built upon a particular ideological representation of that reality. In this way, the structure of a vocabulary is ideologically based." (Fairclough, 1989:115) Therefore, word classification is an important cognitive ability for the human being, which endows the outside world with orders.

In lexical choices, especially in news reporting, a famous theory proposed by van Dijk is worth mentioning. Van Dijk calls it "Strategy of Polarization" which implies "a first general strategy for the expression of shared, group-based attitudes and ideologies through mental models. This strategy of polarization—positive in-group description, and negative

out-group description—thus has the following abstract evaluative structure, which we may call the 'ideological square' ":

1 Emphasize our good properties/actions

2 Emphasize their bad properties/actions

3 Mitigate our bad properties/actions

4 Mitigate their good properties/actions

#### (van Dijk, 1998:33)

These functional moves in the overall strategy of ideological self-interest, which appear in most social conflicts and actions (e.g. in racist, sexist etc.), may be "expressed in the choice of lexical items that imply positive or negative evaluations, as well as in the structure of whole propositions and their categories." (van Dijk, 1998:33) Van Dijk's ideological square summarizes the general strategies widely used by news reporters to convey different ideologies.

### 3.3.2 Transitivity

Transitivity is a system for describing the whole clause, rather then just the verb and its object (Thompson, 2000:78). According to Roger Fowler (1991: 70), transitivity is recognized as a fundamental and powerful semantic concept in Halliday's systemic-functional grammar, and is also an essential tool in the analysis of representation, which has been already proved extremely illuminating in CDA. "The term of transitivity is the systemic linguistic term for exploring the ideational function of grammar at the level of the clause" (Fairclough, 1992a:177). Through analyzing the transitivity features of language use, one can find how the reader's understanding of the meaning of discourse is pushed along a particular direction and how the linguistic form of a text effectively encodes a particular world-view.

Transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types. Halliday (1994) identifies six types of process (see Table 3.1): material process, mental process, relational process (the three main types of process in the transitivity system), behaviour process, verbal process and existential process (the three

subsidiary process types located at each of the previous boundaries). The semantic process represented in the clause consists of three components: the process itself which is realized through verbal group, the participant involved in the process which is typically a part of nominal group, and the circumstance associated with the process which is expressed in adverbial group or prepositional phrase. According to Fairclough (1992a:180), the system of transitivity makes options available, and which process type is chosen to represent a real process may be of political, cultural, and ideological significance.

Process	Meaning	Participant
Material	doing: doing/happening	actor, goal
Behaviour	behaving	behavior
Mental	sensing: seeing/feeling/thinking	senser, phenomenon
Verbal	saying	sayer, target
Relational	being:attributing/identifying	carrier, attribute, identified, identifier
Existential	existing	existent

Table 3.1 Six types of process, adapted from Halliday (1994:143)

## Material process

Material processes, as defined by Halliday (1994:103), are those processes which involve physical actions: running, throwing, cooking, and sitting down, so on and so forth. Material processes are divided into "action" and "event", depending on whether the Actor (the doer of action) is animate or inanimate. Actor is an obligatory element which represents the "doer" of the process; and Goal is optional, which represents the person or the entity affected by the process. As for the circumstances associated with process, it is normally realized by adverbial and prepositional phrases. Some examples are presented here:

Actor	Process: material	Goal	Beneficiary
The dog	bit	the visitor.	
Lily	sent	me	a book.

Table 3.2 Material processes

## Mental process

Mental processes form a viable semantic category: they represent something that goes on in the internal world of the mind. Mental processes may be more delicately defined as perception processes ("seeing", "hearing"), reaction processes ("liking", "hating") and processes of coginition ("thinking", "understanding") (Simpson, 1993:91). Senser (the conscious being) and Phenomenon (that is perceived, reacted to or thought about) are two inherent participant roles associated with mental processes. Mental processes often reflect the senser's opinion or attitude towards what has happened. Following are some examples of mental processes.

Senser	Process: mental	Phenomenon
Adam	saw	his friend.
She	loves	her classmates.
Mike	understood	her words.

Table 3.3 Mental processes

### **Relational process**

Relational processes are processes of being, which operate with three main types: intensive, circumstantial and possessive. Each of these comes in two distinct modes: attributive and identifying (Halliday, 1994:119). The former expresses what attributes a

certain object has, or what type it belongs to. The latter expresses the identical properties of two entities. An important difference between the attributive and the identifying modes is that the identifying clause is reversible whereas the attributive clause is not.

Type mode	intensive	Circumstantial	possessive
Attribute (carrier & attribute)	Mary is smart.	The party is on Tuesday.	Lily has a car.
Identifying (identified/value& identifier/token)	Tom is the mayor.	Tomorrow is Fathers'Day.	The car is Lily's.

Tabl	e 3.4	Relational	processes
------	-------	------------	-----------

### Verbal processes

Verbal processes are processes of saying and exchanging information. The Sayer in verbal processes is the participant responsible for the verbal process, and is typically but not necessarily conscious; the Receiver is the participant to whom the sayer is addressed. The verbiage is realized by nouns expressing verbal behaviour like question, story and report, through direct or indirect projection.

Tab	le :	3.5	Verl	Sal	processes
-----	------	-----	------	-----	-----------

Sayer	Process: verbal	Receiver	Verbiage
Lily	asked	me	a question.
Не	explained	to her	what he did.

### **Behaviour** process

Behaviour processes are the category between material and mental processes. Halliday (1994:139) specifies the distinction among the three types of processes as following: processes of consciousness represented as forms of behaviour (near mental), e.g. look, watch, stare; verbal processes as behaviour (near verbal), e.g. chatter, talk; physiological processes manifesting states of consciousness, e.g. cry, laugh, smile; other physiological process, e.g. breathe, cough, faint; bodily postures and pastimes (near material), e.g. sing, dance, lie (down).

Behaviour	Process: behaviour	Range	Circumstance
Lily	waved	her hands	when she saw us.
Adam	sighed		Deeply.

Table 3.6 Behaviour processes

## **Existential process**

Existential processes, the processes of existing, are the category between relational and material processes. They are normally recognizable because of the subject is "there". Sometimes, this category of processes can also be realized by other verbs, for instance, remain, occur, follow, emerge, flourish, prevail etc. This type of process is hardly seen in media discourse.

Table 3.7 Existential processes

Process : existential	Existent	Circumstance
There is	a lake	in front of my house.
There is	a pencil	under the desk.

### 3.3.3 Intertexuality

For critical analysts studying news media, news reports are always fragments of other texts, which may be explicitly demarcated or merged in the text. In the case of news reports, it is obvious that texts always contain a variety of subtexts or prior texts of which the presence may or may not be explicitly identified. According to Fairclough (1995a) who introduces the concept of intertextuality into CDA for the analysis of discursive practice, intertextuality is called the process of constructing a text with other texts. Intertextuality is considered as one of the most obvious characteristics of news discourse. Thibault (1994:1751) explains the perspective of intertextuality by stating that all texts, spoken and written, are constructed and have the meanings which text-users assign to them in and through their relations with other texts in some social forms.

The analysis of news sources is an important issue concerning discourse representation which is called a type of "manifest intertextuality". In most straightforward cases of reported speech, the news source is referred to by using the addresser's name or a definite description or applying an indefinite description with some vague words simply because the reporter may not be sure about the exact source of the news or want to conceal it deliberately. The quality of a story's source affects its news value.

This section makes a general introduction to the analytical devices for present study. Some other analytical devices in critical discourse analysis such as modality, nominalization, and thematic choice are excluded in this part. It does not necessarily mean that these devices are less important. The selection and application of tools depend upon the research question and the types of samples.

# **3.4 Data Collection Procedures**

News report is not as neutral and objective as it appears to be, which has been explained in Chapter Two. The present study intends to make a comparative analysis of news discourse for the purpose of demonstrating a tight link between language use and ideology in certain situational and social context. Due to the limited time and energy, the current study is narrowed down to the news reports on the event of "2009 UN Conference on Climate Change" reported by two newspapers from two countries. Data for the present study consists of ten English news reports, five of which are collected from *China Daily* in China (CD) and the rest from *The New York Times* (NYT) in the U.S. The newspaper selections are all extracted from the Internet sites of the publication, which mirror the contents of the hard copy versions.

The two newspapers are chosen because of their importance in their respective countries. *China Daily* is chosen for the basic reason that it has been the most influential English newspaper in China since its first publication in 1981. Its language use provides a direct comparison with that in its American counterpart. However, the choice of *China Daily* for an examination of national identities and ideologies in this study is also based on other important considerations. *China Daily* is often considered as the English version of *People's Daily* which is the most important newspaper in China and dubs the "official mouthpiece" of the Chinese Communist Party. *China Daily*'s reports of major political events often demonstrate a high degree of ideological congruency with *People's Daily*.

The reason for choosing *The New York Times* is that it is the most influential, formal and authoritative newspaper of the United States. It is one of the biggest newspapers in the world and "probably exhibits fragments of an overall American ideological perspective on news events and the world" (van Dijk, 1988a:21). The newspaper covers a wide range of contents, including hard news, feature articles, sports, business, advertising, traveling, editorials, letters to editor and so on. It is one of the leading newspapers in the U.S. with regard to the coverage of international news and views, attracting readers around the world. According to Golan (2006), *The New York Times* serves an inter-media agenda-setting function for other news sources, in particular with regard to the coverage of international events and issues. And most of the readers of *The New York Times* are middle-class elites.

The texts selected are issue-oriented, focusing on 15<sup>th</sup> United Nation Climate Conference. Considering the large amount of news reports on Climate Change from the two newspapers, the current research takes "Copenhagen Conference on Climate Change" as key words to penetrate into different ideologies embedded in news reports from the two countries, with time limit from the 30<sup>th</sup> November, 2009 to 25<sup>th</sup> December, 2009. The time

span for news search extends from the period of conference duration to one week ahead and after respectively, in order to cover all related news reports. News reports of these two newspapers on this particular event are quite different. In the process of corpus construction, fist of all, all the relevant news reports are retrieved from the archives of websites of these two newspapers: http://www.chinadaily.net/ and http://www.nytimes.com.

After the stage of corpus design and compilation, ten news texts are identified from the corpora and put into two groups: the reports from China are labeled as Group A, and those from the U.S. as Group B. To make the analysis manageable, the length of each text is limited within 1500 words. Table 3.8 gives a list about ten news texts in *China Daily* and *The New York Times*, with information about source, date and headline/captions.

· · · · · ·			The New Tork Times
N	D	S	Headlines/ Captions
1	Dec.10	CD	Wealthy nations urged to do more A leading Chinese climate change official has criticized rich nations for attempting to wriggle out of their obligations to poorer nations in the fight against global warming.
2	Dec.10	CD	Climate talks in disarray over 'Danish text' The UN Copenhagen climate talks are in disarray after developing countries reacted furiously to leaked documents that show world leaders will next week be asked to sign an agreement that hands more power to rich countries and sidelines the UN's role in all future climate change negotiations.
3	Dec.17	CD	New text surprises developing nations Tough political issues are being put on the table for high-level consultations as differences of opinion between developing and developed nations continue to heat up.
4	Dec.18	CD	Crunch time prompts final push amid doubts on meetings last day Two high-level contact groups are starting to crack the "nuts" in the draft texts for the final outcome of the United Nations Climate Change Conference (COP15) here after the nations of G77 and

Table 3.8 News texts from China Daily and The New York Times

### 山东大学硕士学位论文

		·	
			China received reassurance they would proceed on the draft texts
			that they'd been working on for the past 11 days.
			Wen meets Obama on day of whirlwind diplomacy
5.	Dec.19	CD	Premier Wen Jiabao on Friday ended days of climate change
			diplomacy with a swift low-key meeting with US President Barack
			Obama, who stayed less than 10 hours in the snowy Danish capital.
			China demands more from rich to unlock climate talks
			China led calls by developing nations for deeper emissions cuts
6	Dec.8	NYT	from the United States, Japan and Europe at U.N. climate talks on
			Tuesday, as a study showed that this decade will be the warmest on
			record.
			Progress in U.N. Climate Talks, tougher issues ahead
7	Dec.12	NYT	U.N. climate talks have made progress at the half-way mark but
			many of the toughest issues such as greenhouse gas emissions
			targets for 2020 are deadlocked, delegates said on Tuesday.
	-		At climate talks, a week of posturing
			The first week of the United Nations climate meeting has unfolded
8	Dec.13	NYT	more or less as expected: with much posturing, minor progress and
			punctuated moments of drama-inside and outside the meeting's
			venue.
			Delegates at talks scramble as gulf on issues remains
			Impatience was clearly rising Tuesday at global climate
9	Dec.15	NYT	negotiations here as delegates struggled without success to
			surmount disputes over issues like emissions targets and financial
			aid for developing countries.
			Poor and emerging states stall climate negotiations
			If the United Nations climate talks here are entering their final two
10	Dec.16	6 NYT	days in virtual deadlock, it is in large measure because of delays
			and diversions created by a group of poor and emerging nations
			intent on making their dissatisfaction clear.

# 3.5 News Data Background

The 2009 United Nations Climate Change Conference, commonly known as the Copenhagen Summit, was held at the Bella Center in Copenhagen, Denmark, between 7<sup>th</sup> December and 18<sup>th</sup> December, 2009. The conference included the 15<sup>th</sup> Conference of the

Parties (COP 15) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and the 5th Meeting of the Parties (COP/MOP 5) to the Kyoto Protocol. According to the Bali Road Map, a framework for climate change mitigation beyond 2012 would be discussed there.

The conference was preceded by the Climate Change: Global Risks, Challenges and Decisions Scientific Conference, which took place in March 2009 and was also held at the Bella Center. The negotiations began to take a new format when in May 2009 UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon attended the World Business Summit on Climate Change in Copenhagen, organised by the Copenhagen Climate Council (COC), where he requested that COC councilors attend New York's Climate Week at the Summit on Climate Change on 22<sup>nd</sup> September and engage with heads of government on the topic of the climate problem.

Connie Hedegaard was the president of the conference until 16<sup>th</sup> December, 2009, handing over the chair to Danish Prime Minister Lars Løkke Rasmussen in the final stretch of the conference, during negotiations between heads of state and government. On Friday, 18<sup>th</sup> December, 2009, the final day of the conference, international media reported that the climate talks were "in disarray". Media also reported that in lieu of a summit collapse, solely a "weak political statement" was anticipated at the conclusion of the conference.

# Outcome of the conference

On 18<sup>th</sup> December, 2009 after a day of frantic negotiations between heads of state, it was announced that a "meaningful agreement" had been reached between the United States, China, India, South Africa, and Brazil. The use of "meaningful" was viewed as being political spin by an editorial in *The Guardian*. An unnamed US government official was reported as stating that the deal was a "historic step forward" but was not enough to prevent dangerous climate change in the future. However, the BBC's environment correspondent stated: "While the White House was announcing the agreement, many other – perhaps most other – delegations had not even seen it. A comment from a UK official suggested the text was not yet final and the Bolivian delegation has already complained about the way it was reached— "anti-democratic, anti-transparent and unacceptable". With no firm target for limiting the global temperature rise, no commitment to a legal treaty and

no target year for peaking emissions, countries most vulnerable to climate impacts have not got the deal they wanted."

Early on Saturday 19<sup>th</sup> December, delegates approved a motion to "take note of the Copenhagen Accord of 18<sup>th</sup> December, 2009". However it was reported that it was not yet clear whether the motion was unanimous, or what its legal implications are. The UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon welcomed the US-backed climate deal as an "essential beginning". It was unclear whether all 192 countries in attendance would also adopt the deal. The Copenhagen Accord recognizes the scientific case for keeping temperature rise below 2°C, but does not contain commitments for reduced emissions that would be necessary to achieve that aim. One part of the agreement pledges US\$ 30 billion to the developing world over the next three years, rising to US\$ 100 billion per year by 2020, to help poor countries adapt to climate change. Earlier proposals which would have aimed to limit temperature rise to 1.5°C and cut CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 80% by 2050 were dropped. An agreement was also reached that would set up a deal to reduce deforestation in return for cash from developed countries. The agreement made was non-binding but U.S. President Obama said that countries could show the world their achievements. He said that if they had waited for a binding agreement, no progress would have been made.

# Chapter Four Results and Discussions

# 4.1 Headline/ Lead Analysis of News Data

Headlines are the most conspicuous part of news reports: they are brief, printed "on top", in large bold type, and often run across several columns. In addition to offering the most important information of the report, headlines also have cognitive and ideological functions (van Dijk, 1988a, 1988b, 1991). Cognitively, headline information is strategically used by the reader to construct the overall meaning of the news text during the process of understanding. This information leaves the deepest impression on readers, which will influence the use of this information on later occasions. However, it is the ideological function that has been much discussed in previous studies in news discourse (e.g. Bell, 1991; Fang, 2001; Lee & Craig, 1992; Min, 1997; van Dijk, 1988a, 1988b, 1991; Wang, 1993; Yu, 1995). As van Dijk (1991) has suggested, because headlines summarize what the journalist considers the most important aspects of a news event, and such a summary necessarily implies an opinion or a specific perspective on the event, they may bias the understanding process and influence the readers' interpretation.

And the status of lead in news structure also can not be ignored. Bell (1991:174) regards lead as the "story in microcosm". The values and expertise of journalism are all compressed into the lead sentence and the essential information and news appeal are highlighted, but at the same time lead is readily accepted by readers as it is as short as possible and can be clearly understood.

Bell (1991) explains that news in the daily press is organized by the principle of relevance or importance, along a dimension of decreasing prominence with respect to the macro-structure. In order to learn about what the whole report is about, a reader only needs to glance at the headline/lead instead of scanning the whole news report. In journalistic parlance, the term "inverted pyramid" is used to describe this situation, where the most significant or newsworthy information is placed at the top and the least important at the bottom. The function of headline/lead is to form a cognitive macro-structure that serves as

° 39

an important strategic cue to control the way readers process and make sense of the report.

### 4.1.1 Analysis of Processes in News Headline/Lead

After data analysis, it is found that *China Daily* and *The New York Times* represent different topics and focuses through their headlines.

## Analysis of Transitivity in News Headline/Lead

As mentioned in Chapter Three, transitivity system consists of six types of processes, each of which includes principally three elements—the process itself, participants in the process, and circumstances associated with the process. The analysis of processes in news headline/lead will be carried out in these three aspects. The distribution and percentage of the process type of each verb can be seen in Table 4.1, with a Pie Diagram 4.1 presented visually below.

Process name	Material	Relational	Mental	Verbal	total
China Daily	15	2	1	0	18
The New York Times	11	3	1	1	16
Total	26	5	2	1	34

Table 4.1 Processes analysis of the news headlines/leads



Diagram 4.1 Total distributions of processes in the news headlines/leads from two newspapers

The diagram shows that the distribution of the transitivity processes of the samples in these two newspapers share a common feature: material process takes the highest percentage among all other transitivity processes, as high as 76%. Considering such a high density of material process, it is necessary to detail the material processes here.

# 4.1.2 Analysis of Actor in News Headline/Lead

Material processes, as defined by Halliday (1994:103), are those processes which involve physical actions: running, throwing, cooking, and sitting down, so on and so forth. In present study, material process takes the highest percentage among all other transitivity processes, which bears conformity with Bell's research results. In April 1990, Bell (1991) conducts a research about the lead paragraphs from ten international wire service stories on several New Zealand newspapers. The results show that actors, main event and place-the journalist's who, what and where-are the three major elements expressed in the leads. In other words, in the lead part, actor and action are the core, which, to a large extent, are realized by material processes. Material processes have two inherent participant roles associated with them, ACTOR and GOAL. Actor is an obligatory element which represents the "doer" of the process; and Goal is optional which represents the person or the entity affected by the process. By examining 26 instances of the two newspapers, the present study finds that the focuses of these two newspapers varies to a certain degree although similarities still exist. In the reporting of the United Nation Climate Change Conference, reporters pay great attention to the agreement-a wished final outcome, the attending parties including developed nations as well as developing nations and the progress of the meetings. ACTOR can be classified into following categories: U.S. and rich countries related; conference related; China and developing countries related; and other issues related.

N	Source	Actor	Process	Goal	Circumstance
1	CD	Rich nations	wriggle out of	obligations	in the fight against global warming

Table 4.2 Analysis of the material processes with U.S and rich countries as actor

As can be seen from Table 4.2, the stance of Chinese government is clearly revealed by this process. As one important member of the group of developing countries, China expects rich nations to be fully responsible for what they have done to the climate change in history. The verb phrase used here, wriggle out of, is explained by Oxford Advanced Learners English-Chinese Dictionary as "avoid (doing) an unpleasant task by being (cunning) or by making excuses." It reveals that China is dissatisfied with the promises made by rich nations in meetings.

N	source	Actor	Process	Goal	Circumstance
1	CD	Developin g countries	reacted to	leaked documents	
2	CD	The nations of G77 and China	-	reassurance	
3	CD	Wen	meets	Obama	on day of whirlwind diplomacy
4	CD	0	urged	Wealthy nations	to do more
5	NYT	China	led	calls by developing nations	
6	NYT	China	demands	more (fund)	
7	NYT	A group of poor and emerging nations	created	delays and diversions	

Table 4.3 Analysis of the material processes with China and developing countries as actor

The actors involving China and developing countries, which take up a high percentage in both of the two newspapers, are shown in detail in Table 4.3. Compared with climate change conferences held before, this conference witnesses the group of developing countries as a united and strong power in the world political arena.

In the reports from *China Daily*, Wen, the Chinese premier, representing Chinese government, attends the meeting and takes positive action to help handle difficult issues, showing that China has taken their proper share of the responsibility in world affairs. In the reports of *China Daily*, the Actor of China or China related subjects is often associated with the Actor of developing countries (G77 also represents the group of developing countries). The arrangement of these two parts—China and developing countries is not randomly made by news media. It reveals that China takes the same side with developing countries or G77 in the climate change conference: China locates itself as a developing country. Comparing with the developed countries, it has a different responsibility for emission reduction. The reasons can be explained by two points: first, developed countries during their earlier industrial development process have made great contribution to global warming and, therefore, they should take their share of responsibilities for emission reduction; second, it is impractical for those developing countries and undeveloped countries to slow down their development pace without enough financial support since many poor people in these countries still fail to feed themselves.

The New York Times changes the actor of developing countries into "a group of poor and emerging nations." Emerging nations refer to great developing countries like China, India, Brazil and so on. The United States divides developing countries into poor nations and emerging nations and holds that the two kinds should be burdened with different responsibilities.

Ν	source	Actor	Process	Goal	Circumstance
1	CD	An agreement	hands (power) to	rich countries	in all future climate change negotiations
2	CD	An agreement	sidelines	U.N.'s role	
3	NYT	UN climate talks	are entering		in virtual deadlock
4	NYT	The first week of UN climate meeting	has unfolded		
5	NYT	UN climate talks	have made	progress	

Table 4.4 Analysis of the material processes with agreement and climate talks as actor

As can be seen from Table 4.4, five out of twenty-six instances are concerned with agreement and climate talks. It shows that China and the U.S. as well as other participating nations wish to reach a legally-binding agreement during the conference and this goal can be achieved by climate talks.

N	Source	Actor	Process	Goal	Circumstance
1	CD	Crunch time	prompts	final push	amid doubts on meetings' last day
2	CD	Differences of opinion between developing and developed nations	continue to heat up		
3	NYT	Impatience	was rising		Tuesday at global climate negotiation
4	NYT	Many of the toughest issues	are deadlocked		-

The four actors showed in Table 4.5, "crunch time", "differences", "impatience", many of the toughest issues, indicate that the global climate negotiation has met

obstacles, on which China and the United States have made a consensus. Both of the two countries are worried about the outcome of the conference.

This section analyzes the headlines and leads recognized as the most striking elements of a news text from the perspective of transitivity. In the genre of news discourse, news headlines/leads are carefully chosen and structured so as to attract readers' attention at the first sight and lead readers to interpret news in the intended way. Therefore, they often encapsulate the newspaper's ideological values and attitudes. The analysis of news headline/lead in this section, serving as solid evidence, makes us glance at the different ideologies embedded in these two newspapers. What's more, through the analysis of news headline/lead, a general map of the collection of news data can be grasped.

# 4.2 Qualitative Analysis of Sample Texts

### 4.2.1 Description

At the beginning stage of the climate conference in Copenhagen, a secret draft agreement being called the "Danish Text" sparked uproar among various groups at the United Nations climate change summit.

The controversial draft proposal was reportedly prepared by a group known as "the circle of commitment" composed of at least the U.K., the U.S. and Denmark. Delegates from developing countries, environmental organizations, and opponents of global taxation all criticized the proposal.

Executive director for environmental group Friends of the Earth, Andy Atkins, said the Danes holding secret backroom meetings with a few select countries was deeply disappointing, as the world expected the host country to be neutral. Countless other green groups denounced the document as well.

One of the issues highlighted by critics of the proposal was the change in power dynamics. The agreement would seemingly hand more control over the climate change money mechanism to rich countries. This would be accomplished via the World Bank where votes are based on contributions with a diminished role for the U.N.

Another concern raised by outraged summit participants was the notion that by 2050, people in "developed" countries would still be able to emit twice the amount of carbon dioxide per capita as those in "developing" nations.

As can be seen from the incident of the leaked text, the climate change is not simply an environmental issue but also deeply related to the political and economic situations. Out of their respective national interests, different countries may have different ideas and stances when confronted with the issue about how to react towards global warming, and about what effective measures should be taken to cut emissions of greenhouse gases and to cut deforestation. Under such circumstances, a legally-binding agreement satisfying to all participating countries seems to be an impossible mission for the climate change conference.

# Lexical classification

Lexical choice, as the eminent aspect of news discourse, represents the hidden opinions or ideologies of the author. Therefore, the vocabulary in the discourse analysis is definitely worthy of attention.

By checking the news about the Danish Text in the climate conference from the two newspapers, the attitudes and positions held by the two newspapers can be found. The choices of the words certainly influence the way in which readers construct a mental picture of what has happened in the conference. The readers will naturally follow how the media or the press reports an event. And the contrastive study of the reporting on the same event from two national newspapers will help prove the point that "linguistic codes do not reflect reality neutrally; they interpret, organize, and classify the subjects of discourse," and reveal the world-views or ideologies (Fowler, 1986:27).

In these two samples, *China Daily* and *The New York Times* obviously represent different attitudes and positions of the two groups of journalists in China and the U.S. There are striking differences in naming the same event, which is illustrated in Table 4.6.

China daily	The New York Times
cuts called for by UN scientists; the	A draft 9-page Danish Text; a weak attempt to accommodate the U.S.; informal paper for the purposes of consultation; not an official paper

Table 4.6 Media coverage concerning the Danish Text

There is a sharp contrast between the definitions in the two newspapers, reflecting different stances and attitudes of these two media towards the leaked Danish Text. Expressions, such as "fell short of," "leaked," "so-called," "departure," and "contentious" show that Chinese reporters were greatly discontent with such an action of developed countries to deal with the treaty secretly. It is known from Chinese reporting that those negotiating nations of the Danish Text tried to hide this one and they want to betray what had been accepted in the Kyoto Protocol. After being made public, the Danish Text drew criticism from many developing countries as well as environmental organizations. Words chosen by American reporters, "draft," "weak attempt," "informal paper," and "not an official paper", indicate that the Danish Text is just an ordinary draft and used for consultation. It doesn't mean any deception or betrayal.

A close look at the data brings more information that is ideologically meaningful in the comparative analysis. The ideological conflicts represented in the two groups of reports could also be detected through different lexical choices for describing the relevant participants of this particular event which are illustrated in the following two tables. Table 4.7 shows some examples of media coverage about developed countries.

China Daily	The New York Times
rich nations for attempting to wriggle out of their obligations; fully developed countries; developed nations; wealthy nations seems to lack the political will; the Japanese have actually made no commitment; rich countries that seem to want to violate international agreement;	recession-hit rich countries have not yet made concrete offers;

Table 4.7 Media coverage concerning the developed countries

China and the United States are both regarded as the leading country in their respective group—developing countries and developed countries. For Chinese reporters, rich nations represented by the U.S., Japan and so on, "lack the political will" and try to "wriggle out of " their proper responsibilities and they even have such desire to "violate the international agreement." These expressions leave an impression to readers that the group of developed countries is irresponsible; they are wealthy, but they refuse to share their duty on global warming.

For American reporting, the expression of "recession-hit rich countries" was used here to indicate that their bargain on the financial fund and the emission cuts is reasonable since they all are getting through the economic recession. They are not strong as before and thus it is unfair for them to provide so much financial fund. However, "much is riding on" the U.S., which gives an indication to readers that American can still be leaned on and is at the leading position in dealing with world affairs.

Developing countries, as a group, also play an important role in dealing with the climate change issue. Table 4.8 shows some examples of media coverage about the developing countries.

China Daily	The New York Times
poorer nations; nations that were still	developing nations; China and many
developing; less developed countries;	other developing nations urged the
China had insisted on a cut;	rich to make deeper cuts; China led
	calls by developing nations for
	deeper emission cuts; Beijing scoffed
	at a fast-start fund;
	China, the world's biggest emitter of
	greenhouse gases

TT 1 1 4 0 1 4 1		•	.1 1			
Table 4.8 Media	COVETORA	concorning	the d	01/0 0	n1n0	AAUMTMAA
Table 4.0 Micula	COVCIARC	CONCERNING	uic u	CVCIU	DHIB	willings.

As for developing nations, *China Daily* uses "poorer nations" to address the contrasted economic situation between two groups. The "poorer nations" are "still developing" and thus they need much more help in developing a low-carbon economy. And

"insist" used here tells readers that Chinese government carries out active policy for emission cuts and is responsible for what they should do.

In *The New York Times*, China is described as "the world's biggest emitter of greenhouse gases" but it also "scoffed" the financial aid from developed countries. "Scoff" here means "to eat (food) quickly and greedily," leaving a bad impression to readers that China criticized the U.S. just for the purpose of plundering much more wealth. A negative national image of China is built by *The New York Times* through their typical lexical choices.

### 4.2.2 Interpretation

At the interpretative stage, discourse analysis switches the focus of mere linguistic features of the text to a far more extensive coverage of discursive practices, that is, the "intertextual analysis." Fairclough (1995a:61) explains that "intertexual analysis" focuses on the borderline between text and discourse practice in the analytical framework. Intertextuality is considered as one of the most obvious characteristics of news discourse. This section mainly deals with the interpretative stage of discourse analysis through intertextual analysis.

Fishman (1980:92) once points out that "this fundamental principle of news fact can be stated like this: something is so because somebody says it. News makers take their facts from other people's account." It is a common feature that news reports are filled with words marked as reported speeches, and are full of others' words.

The news reporters are as much compilers of language as creators. Instead of piling up the previous texts randomly, news journalists make special choices from a pile of original materials. They select the news sources, and the modes of speech reporting according to their needs. The decisions they have finally made are of great significance for researchers in CDA. The preference to different sources and voices indicates diverse attitudes towards each source. It is easy to discover the position and stance held by the news reporters from different decisions. Next, the news data will be analyzed from the aspect of news sources.

### News sources

News source, concisely speaking, refers to someone who provides information directly to a reporter or who says something which is later quoted or alluded to in a news report. However, news is usually based on what an authoritative source tells a reporter. Generally speaking, the preferred sources are those by identifiable individuals and well-known public figures who occupy some official or authoritative position, e.g. the president, and state or local officials.

The traces of the speeches from other newspapers can be always found in news report. According to van Dijk (1988: 96), "most of the information used to write a news text comes in discourse form", namely, reports, declarations, interviews, meetings, other media messages, press releases, police documents, and so on. Xin Bin (1998, 2006) puts forward that in reporting others' comments or opinions, reporters usually introduce the news sources by using three ways: (a) specific source—the speaker's name, rank or profession is clearly identified; (b) semi-identified source—the speaker is not clearly indicated, only with hints of the name of institutions or groups; (c) unidentified source—by using vague terms such as "It is said/reported..."; "According to an anonymous source...".

All the source patterns in the news samples are examined and the following table presents a comparison of news source in the data analyzed.

	Specific	Semi-identified	Unidentified	Total
	source	source	source	
China Daily	25 (72%)	5 (14%)	5 (14%)	35
The New York Times	27 (61%)	12 (27%)	5 (12%)	44

Table 4.9 Distribution of news sources in the two groups of news reports

As can be seen from the Table 4.9, these two newspapers share two common characteristics: specific source takes a high proportion while unidentified source takes a

low proportion; unidentified sources scarcely appear in news samples. However, difference can still be found from the table that NYT quotes semi-identified sources comparatively more than CD does.

News report is regarded as "neutral" reflection of events and reporters try to build an image of objectivity and credibility to its readers. A large amount of specific sources are used by reporters to make the reports more convincing and trustworthy. Thus, the samples we collected share the common feature: 72% in CD and 61% in NYT are quoted from specific sources, both exceeding 50%.

A close examination of the sources is of great significance in digging out the ideological implications conveyed by the two newspapers. The more frequently a news resource is present in a news report, the more power of discourse it may have. Table 4.10 and Table 4.11 show the main categories of news sources in these two newspapers. As can be seen from the two tables, their choices on news sources manifest great difference, further revealing the different stances and standpoints of the two newspapers.

It is demonstrated clearly from Diagram 4.2 that China with 32% enjoys much priority over other entities, when China Daily considers selecting news sources to resort to. It would not bring us any surprises at such a high proportion of sources from Chinese government after being known that China Daily as one of the popular English newspapers is a main platform of Chinese government in promoting and publicizing its national image. Since the main topic of the conference is an environmental issue, voices from environmental organizations are also valued and their percentage takes 16% as the same as the group of G77, just next to Chinese government. G77 representing the group of developing countries has nearly the same stance with China, the largest developing country. The news sources quoted from G77 support what Chinese government wants to express during the conference. News sources from the U.S. scarcely appear in China Daily although the decision and pledge of President Obama are highly expected and vital in the conference. This finding bear conformity with that gained through news headline/lead analysis-China is dissatisfied with goal of emission cuts set by developed countries led by the U.S. and its unrealized promises. Another explanation is that there exists a tension between the two parties concerning how to set specific targets for each country in terms of

the emission cuts of greenhouse gases. The news sources from India and Brazil, although taking a low percentage, are particularly quoted by *China Daily*, showing that these emerging countries as well as China share the similar interests in confronting with the group of developed countries.

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Categories of news sources	Examples
China	Chinese premier Wen; Chinese negotiator Su Wei;
Environmental organizations	Andy Atkins, executive director of Friends of the Earth;
G77 and developing countries	Di-Aping, the Sudanese chairman of the group of G77
UN	U.N. climate chief Yvi de Boer
US	President Obama;
India	Indian Prime Minister Manmohen Singh
Brazil	Brazil President Luiz Incio lula da silva

Table 4.10 Categories of news sources in samples from	China Daily
---	-------------

Categories of news	Examples
sources	
US	President Obama; Todd Stern, the chief climate negotiator
UN	U.N. climate chief Yvi de Boer
G77	Di-Aping, the Sudanese chairman of the group of G77
Denmark	Danish government; Lars Lollke Rasmuseen, Danish Prime
	Minister
EU	Ed Miliband, Britain's secretary of state for climate change
African groups	Mithika Mwenda, the Pan African Climate Justice Alliance
China	Su Wei, a senior Chinese climate official at U.N climate talks
Small island countries	Ian Fry from the Tuvalu



Diagram 4.2 Distribution of news sources in samples from China Daily



Diagram 4.3 Distribution of news sources in samples from The New York Times

It is shown in Diagram 4.3 that the news sources of the United States in *The New York Times* also enjoy much priority (26%) over other entities. In this aspect, *The New York Times* and *China Daily* share the same characteristic: the news sources from their own countries take up the highest percentage among others. The same reason can also be used to explain this phenomenon. News sources from UN take a percentage as high as 23%. G77, a new power having emerged in this conference, is also focused on by *The New York Times*. Different with *China Daily*, the news sources from Denmark, the host country, are usually quoted by *The New York Times*. And the European Union which is traditionally a good friend with the United States attracts more attention from *The New York Times* than other nations do. The tension between the U.S. and China during Copenhagen conference can also be detected from the low percentage of news sources from China since it is acknowledged that the decision of Chinese government is vital for a successful deal of the conference.

### 4.2.3 Explanation

In Fairclough's three-dimensional model, explanation is the final stage. The explanation of social context is needed at this stage to uncover different ideologies hidden in different language uses and make the relationship of language, power and ideology clear.

The contrastive study of the two groups of samples from those two influential newspapers in China and the U.S. shows that the same event is reported with strikingly differences. According to Bell (1995:59), "linguistic research on the media has always emphasized this last concern, focusing where issues of ideology and power are closest to the surface." A close, linguistically proficient analysis of the news discourse shows that even simple-looking news stories are often rather complex, and the events they describe rather less distinct than we supposed.

The Copenhagen Climate Change Conference is highly expected before its beginning. People hope it can settle many specific issues as the emission reduction and financial support from developed countries to the poorer countries; environmental organizations and many environmentalists demand all the countries in the conference reconcile the divergent and often conflicting interests, finally dealing a legally-binding draft. The climate change issue from the very first beginning is not only a simple environment issue but a political and economical issue. Finally, a non-binding deal is forged, which proves the issue of climate change is much more complicated than people imagined.

Nearly all the countries participating in the talks share the same opinions that greenhouse gas emissions are contributing to climate change. But few want to slash their emissions without first ensuring that competing countries will do the same. Developing countries want the United States and other developed nations to cut emissions the most, since historically it's the industrialized world that's responsible for most of the carbon pollution in the atmosphere. Since China, India, Brazil, and many others are growing rapidly in economy as well as carbon emission, the United States and other developed countries insist that the developing world get a handle on its emissions, too. The tension between the U.S and China is manifested from the linguistic features of the samples.

Targets for cutting emissions and assistance to poor countries are main arguments in Copenhagen. The scientific community says industrialized countries need to cut their emissions 25 percent to 40 percent by 2020 to avoid the worst of climate change. The United States has been resistant. President Obama recently announced that he'd call for cutting U.S. greenhouse emissions by about 17 percent. It has gotten a mixed response, with many nations saying the United States needs to be much more aggressive. Meanwhile, before the climate talks, China announced that it would curb the intensity of its emissions (relative to GDP) by 40 percent to 45 percent by 2020. That indicates that China is getting serious about climate change.

Many of the countries that will be seriously influenced by climate change are poor. Some are island nations; some are prone to drought; still others have long coastlines and are already seeing the impact of changing ocean chemistry and rising sea levels. To respond to climate change, they are in need of financial and technological aids from the developed world. But it's unclear right now just how much rich countries will be willing to give poor countries, especially in terms of cash and new technology, when many rich countries are hit by financial crisis. The World Bank estimates that poor countries will need up to \$100 billion a year to respond to climate change. So far, the U.S. and other Western countries have pledged \$10 billion by 2012, which is obviously far from enough.

From the perspective of news media, *China Daily* and *The New York Times* respectively representing Chinese government and American government, no doubt reflect the ideologies of their governments. The news discourse indirectly influenced by their government through the reporters of the news institutions can never be called "neutral," and is concerned with the national interests of each country.

# **Chapter Five** Conclusion

Adopting the CDA approach to media discourse, this study has analyzed and discussed the news reports related to the Copenhagen Climate Change Conference from *China Daily* and *The New York Times*. The present study is carried out under the framework of Fairclough's three-dimensional model along with Halliday's functional grammar. It is found that, even though news articles center around nearly the same topics, noticeable differences are found with respect to lexical variations, transitivity processes and news sources. It is suggested that these structural choices made by these two newspapers are not arbitrary but are well motivated by their underlying ideologies. The comparative analysis carried out in current study demonstrates that news is not impartial, serious and objective as it seems to be and that the naturalized ideological assumptions and implications are concealed under the seemingly neutral lexical and structural patterns.

In order to reach the goal set in Chapter One, this thesis has made a comparative analysis of the reports on "2009 UN Climate Change Conference" from *China Daily* and *The New York Times* which are nearly the most influential newspapers in China and the United States respectively. Analysis starts from headline/lead with the analytical tool of transitivity; then, two groups of samples are selected and investigated with the employment of lexical classification and intertextuality. Insightful findings are presented as follows.

## 5.1 Major Findings

After data processing and analyzing, the results of current research validate the results of other critical analysts that news is not impartial, serious and objective as it seems to be. The seemingly factual media products are not merely transparent representation of the world but "constructed realities" with an ideological dimension.

(1) Data analysis starts from headline/lead with the analytical tools of transitivity. The pie diagram shows that the distribution of the transitivity processes of the samples in these two newspapers share a common feature: material process takes the highest percentage among all other transitivity processes, as high as 76%. Then, the analysis of material processes in headlines/leads is focused. After the analysis of the material processes from the aspect of actors, it is suggested that the stance of Chinese government is greatly distinguished with that of American government: China is dissatisfied with the promises made by rich nations in the meeting and expects the rich nations to be fully responsible for what they have done to the climate change in history; however, the United States holds the stance that China called one of the emerging nations, should be burdened with heavier responsibilities than poor nations and what's more, NYT stresses constantly that China is the largest emitter of carbon in the world. The present study also finds out that in spite of sharp contrasts between the reports of the two newspapers, several similarities still exist: both of them wish to reach a legally-binding agreement during the climate change conference although a non-legally-binding agreement is reached finally; the two newspapers reach a consensus on the obstacles the global climate negotiation has met.

(2)From the analysis of two groups of sample texts, extracted from the two newspapers respectively, it is found that the climate change is not simply an environmental issue but also closely related to the political and economic situations. These two groups of sample texts give a series of reports on the incident of a leaked text also called the Danish Text. By employing the analytical tools of lexical classification and intertextuality (mainly news source), it is easy to uncover the attitude and positions these two newspapers held.

From the aspect of lexical classification, striking differences in naming the same event in these two newspapers are found. A negative national image of China is built by NYT through their typical lexical choices. From the distribution of news sources in the two groups of news samples, it is found that the news sources quoted by *China Daily* and *The New York Times* are presented with sharp contrasts, which reflects different attitudes and stances the two newspapers hold. Besides, the voices heard in the two media are also different, as both are concerned with the interests of their own and more willing to make the voices beneficial to them heard.

Differences in the representation of the incident of the Danish text in these two newspapers are revealed through the analysis in aspects of lexical classification and intertextuality. The distinctions in linguistic features between the two newspapers manifest
their different ideological orientations which are consequently affected by their different political stances, cultural assumptions and institutional practices. The present study, together with many former studies, has proved that ideologies, although unnoticeable sometimes, can be drawn out through the analysis of textual elements, further testifying the usefulness and effectiveness of the Fairclough's three dimensional framework along with Halliday's functional grammar.

In conclusion, the results of present study are in accordance with those of the former studies, indicating that news discourse is not value-free but value-loaded. Linguistic strategies are greatly influenced by the socio-ideological context. News reports are the products of values, beliefs or ideologies which then will be reflected in the linguistic features of news reports.

#### **5.2 Implications**

This practice shows that a comparative analysis is an effective way to reveal the hidden ideology embedded in the linguistic features. Readers will grasp a comparatively comprehensive understanding of news events. Besides, CDA is again proved as an effective tool to analyze and uncover the underlying ideological assumptions. The present study also shows that the methodology framework adopted in the thesis can be used in the comparative analysis of news reports.

In addition, the findings also have implications for language teaching. At present, language teachers pay too much attention to the linguistic knowledge, skills and competency, scarcely referring to critical reading and thinking. Since different newspapers may report the same event in different ways due to their different stances and ideological background, it is urgent for language teachers to put more emphasis on the social and historical contexts of news discourse and help students raise critical language awareness in language learning, in particular to news reading.

Finally, the findings have positive implications for domestic decision-makers and media practitioners. The contrastive study of the two newspapers shows the advantages and disadvantages of the publicity strategies of two countries, which might be helpful for decision-makers in making publicity strategies.

## 5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Despite meaningful implications are provided, the existence of limitations in our study can not be denied and still, much room is left waiting for further study. For the limitations on the space of the thesis, the analyses of linguistic devices carrying ideological meanings have not been exhausted, and for some of the tagging work was done manually, 100% accuracy couldn't have been assured, which reduces the validity of the study to some extent.

The qualitative analysis in the thesis, based on the details of news samples with limited sizes, brings only tentative and open conclusions. The few quantitative attempts are only complementary to our qualitative analysis. Besides, our research area is confined to the three-dimensional model of CDA and data is limited within the area of news discourse, which is far from perfect.

Finally, due to the limited knowledge scope and the cultural background of the author, it is difficult to be absolutely objective in presenting the description and interpretation of the ideological assumptions. Consequently, the validity and accuracy of the analysis might be reduced. Due to the limitations mentioned above, it is hoped that a more comprehensive framework will be employed with an exhaustive analysis to lead a more valid study on news discourse.

# Appendix I Sources of the Selected News Reports

## Group A: (China Daily)

5.	Wen Meets Obama on Day of Whirlwind Diplomacy	(Dec. 19, 2009)				
		(Dec.18, 2009)				
4.	4. Crunch Time Prompts Final Push Amid Doubts on Meetings Last Day					
3.	New Text Surprises Developing Nations	(Dec. 17, 2009)				
2.	Climate Talks in Disarray Over 'Danish Text'	(Dec.10, 2009)				
1.	Wealthy Nations Urged to Do More	(Dec.10, 2009)				

## Group B: (The New York Times)

1.	China Demands More From Rich to Unlock Climate Talks	(Dec.8, 2009)
2.	Progress in U.N. Climate Talks, Tougher Issues Ahead	(Dec.12, 2009)
3.	At Climate Talks, A Week of Posturing	(Dec.13, 2009)
4.	Delegates at Talks Scramble as Gulf on Issues Remains	(Dec.15, 2009)
5.	Poor and Emerging States Stall Climate Negotiations	(Dec.16, 2009)

## Appendix II News Reports for Lexical Classification Analysis

### Wealthy nations urged to do more

#### (China Daily)

#### December 10, 2009

A leading Chinese climate change official has criticized rich nations for attempting to wriggle out of their obligations to poorer nations in the fight against global warming.

Su Wei, who is one of Beijing's senior officials at the United Nations' climate talks in Copenhagen, said wealthy nations seem to lack the political will to deal with global warming.

He made the comments on Tuesday as a text was made public suggesting rich countries were hoping to avoid their Kyoto Protocol commitments and heap more responsibility on poorer nations.

Su said the targets outlined in the leaked text fell short of emissions cuts called for by UN scientists who would like a reduction of between 25 and 40 percent from 1990 levels by 2020. It was "unfair", he said, to set a limit on nations that were still developing while emissions from fully developed countries were still rising. And he described an anticipated offer of financial support from rich countries to poorer nations of \$10 billion a year as a drop in the ocean. Su said the United States, the European Union and Japan simply had not brought enough to the table.

"If thought about in terms of the world's population, what is being talked about is less than \$2 per person," he said. Su contended that the success of the Copenhagen talks hinged on what the US will say and do, and he expressed disappointment in President Barack Obama's plans so far. "Currently, the target is to reduce emissions by 17 percent from the 2005 level. I think, for all of us, this figure cannot be regarded as remarkable or notable," he said.

The EU's announced 20 percent target was also too little, too late. And, while the new government in Japan has offered to cut emissions by 25 percent by 2020, Su said clauses on the offer made it less impressive.

"The Japanese have actually made no commitment because they have set an impossible precondition," he said. Japan, which is the world's fifth-largest emitter, has said its commitment depends on ambitious targets being set by other major polluters.

But Su's most vehement criticism was reserved for rich countries that seemed to want to violate international agreements. He said they wanted to go back on undertakings that allowed poorer countries to put economic growth ahead of reducing emissions.

Su made his comments as the so-called Danish Text was made public. The document was widely reported as being a departure from the Kyoto Protocol, which is the only legally binding treaty on carbon emissions. The Danish Text suggests less developed countries should be allowed to emit no more than 1.44 tons of carbon per person by 2050 but rich countries should be allowed to pump out 2.67 tons.

UNFCCC Executive Secretary Yvo de Boer played down the contentious paper. He said in a press release: "This was an informal paper ahead of the conference given to a number of people for the purposes of consultations. The only formal texts in the UN process are the ones tabled by the chairs of this Copenhagen conference at the behest of the parties."

Meanwhile, China yesterday urged Obama to increase a US offer to cut carbon emissions. China's top

climate envoy Xie Zhenhua also said that China wanted to play a constructive role at the Dec 7-18 climate talks. "I do hope that President Obama can bring a concrete contribution to Copenhagen," Xie said. When asked whether that meant something additional to what Obama has already proposed, a 3 percent cut on 1990 levels by 2020, Xie said: "Yes."

Xie also said that China could accept a target of halving global emissions by 2050 if developed nations stepped up their emissions cutting targets by 2020 and agreed to financial help for the developing world to fight climate change. "We do not deny the importance of a long-term target but I think a mid-term target is more important. We need to solve the immediate problem." "If the demands of developing countries can be satisfied I think we can discuss an emissions target," to halve global emissions by 2050.

The deputy chief of the National Development and Reform Commission (NDRC) said he wanted rich countries to cut their emissions by 25-40 percent below 1990 levels by 2020. "It is our hope that the emissions cuts of developed countries can fall into the range of 25-40 percent (below 1990 levels". Earlier this year, at previous rounds of UN talks, China had insisted on a cut of "at least 40 percent".

Xie said that he preferred a final, legally binding agreement at the meeting in Copenhagen, but if that were not possible a deadline to wrap up a full treaty by June "would be very good".

### China Demands More from Rich to Unlock Climate Talks

(The New York Times)

#### December 8, 2009

China led calls by developing nations for deeper emissions cuts from the United States, Japan and Europe at U.N. climate talks on Tuesday, as a study showed that this decade will be the warmest on record.

The first decade of this century was the hottest since records began, the World Meteorological Organisation said, underscoring the threat scientists say the planet faces from rising temperatures. Negotiators from nearly 200 countries are trying to seal the outlines of a climate pact to combat rising seas, desertification, floods and cyclones that could devastate economies and ruin the livelihoods of millions of people.

Yvo de Boer, head of the U.N. Climate Change Secretariat, said the Dec 7-18 talks in Copenhagen were "off to a good start." The EU said it was positive that no one had walked out of negotiation sessions.

But a rich-poor rift continued to cloud negotiations on finance and emissions cuts. Recession-hit rich countries have not yet made concrete offers to aid developing nations who also want the industrialised world to act faster to curb emissions.

China and many other developing nations urged the rich to make deeper cuts in emissions and Beijing scoffed at a fast-start fund of \$10 billion (£6.1 billion) a year meant to help developing countries from 2010 that rich countries are expected to approve.

China, the world's biggest emitter of greenhouse gases, criticised goals set by the United States, the European Union and Japan for cuts in greenhouse gas emissions by 2020. Su Wei, a senior Chinese climate official at U.N. climate talks in Copenhagen, said the targets broadly fell short of the emissions cuts recommended by a U.N. panel of scientists. The panel has said cuts of 25 to 40 percent below 1990

levels by 2020 were needed to avoid the worst of global warming.

He said a U.S. offer, equal to 3 percent below 1990 levels by 2020, "cannot be regarded as remarkable or notable." An EU cut of 20 percent was also not enough and Japan was setting impossible conditions on its offer of a 25 percent cut by 2020.

#### "LIFE AND DEATH"

"This \$10 billion if divided by the world population, it is less than \$2 per person," he said, adding it was not even enough to buy a cup of coffee in Copenhagen or a coffin in poorer parts of the world.

"Climate change is a matter of life and death," he said. Brazil's climate change ambassador said his country did not want to sign up for a long-term goal of halving global emissions by 2050 unless rich nations took on firm shorter-term targets -- which the Danish hosts view as a core outcome for the talks.

Copenhagen was meant to seal a legally binding climate deal to broaden the fight against climate change by expanding or replacing the Kyoto Protocol from 2013. While that now looks out of reach, host Denmark wants leaders to at least agree on a "politically binding" deal. The Danish government has said this would be 5 to 8 pages with annexes from all countries describing pledged actions.

Negotiators are also trying to whittle down almost 200 pages of draft text that is expected to form the basis of an eventual post-2012 climate treaty. While negotiators have made progress refining the text, it is still full of blanks and options.

African civil groups led a protest inside the main conference centre in Copenhagen, urging more aid to prepare for global warming. "Africans are suffering. We will not die in silence," said Augustine Njamnshi of Christian Aid.

#### "PLEASING THE RICH"

A draft 9-page Danish text with annexes seen by Reuters last week drew criticism by environmental activists, who said it undermined the negotiations.

"Focus on the Danish text right now is a distraction from the negotiations," said Kim Carstensen, head of conservation group WWF's global climate initiative, adding the text did not lay out what would happen to the Kyoto Protocol.

He called the Danish text a weak attempt to accommodate the United States. De Boer described the text as an informal paper for the purposes of consultation and not an official part of the negotiations.

Much is riding on what U.S. President Barack Obama can bring to the table in Copenhagen when he joins more than 100 other world leaders during a high-level summit on Dec 17-18.

Washington's provisional offer is to cut emissions by 17 percent by 2020 from 2005 levels, or 3 percent below the U.N.'s 1990 baseline.

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency ruled on Monday that greenhouse gases endanger human health, allowing it to regulate them without legislation from the Senate, where a bill to cut U.S. emissions by 2020 is stalled.

Delegates cautiously welcomed the step as a boost for Obama.

### **Bibliography**

Agger, B. (1992). The Discourse of Domination: From the Frankfurt School to Postmodernism. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.

Bell, A. (1991). The Language of News Media. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Bell, A. (1995). Language and the Media. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bell, A. & Garrett, P. (1998). Approaches to Media Discourse. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bennett, J. (1988). Events and Their Names. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Birnbaum, N. (1971). Toward a Critical Sociology. New York: Oxford University Press.

Blau, P. M. (1964). Exchange and Power in Social Life. New York: Wiley.

Caldas-Coulthard, C. (1993). From discourse analysis to critical discourse analysis: the differential re-presentation of women and men speaking in written news. In Sinclair, J., Hoey, M. & Fox, G., *Teachnique of Descrption*, pp.196-208. London: Routledge.

Caldas-Coulthard, C. & Coulthard, M. (1996). Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Calhoun, C. (1995). Critical Social Theory. Oxford: Blackwell.

- Chilton, P. (1985). Language and the Nuclear Arms Debate: Nukespeak Today. London and Dover, NH: Frances Printer.
- Chouliaraki, L. & Fairclough, N. (1999). Discourse in Late Modernity: Rethinking Critical Discourse Analysis. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-dependence relations. *American Sociological Review*, 27: 31-40.
- Fairclough, N. (1989). Languauge and Power. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. (1992a). Critical Language Awareness. London: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. (1992b). Discourse and Social Change. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Fairclough, N. (1995a). Critcal Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language. London: Longman.

Fairclough, N. (1995b). Media Discourse. London: Edward Arnold.

- Fairclough, N. (2000). Discourse, social theory, and social research: The discourse of welfare reform. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 4 (2): 163-195.
- Fairclough, N. (2001). Critical discourse analysis as a method in social scientific research. In Wodak, R. & Meyer, M., Methods of Discourse Analysis, pp.121-138. London: Sage.
- Fairclough, N. (2003). Analyzing Discourse: Text Analysis for Social Research. London: Routledge.
- Fairclough, N. & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In van Dijk, T. A., Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction, Volume II: Discourse as Social Interaction, pp. 258-284. London: Sage.
- Fang, Y. (2001). Reporting the same events? A critical analysis of Chinese print news media texts. *Discourse & Society*, 12(5):585-613.
- Fay, B. (1987). Critical Social Science. Cambridge: Polity.
- Fishman, M. (1980). Manufacturing the News. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Foucault, M. (1979). Discipline and Punish. New York: Vintage.
- Foucault, M. (1981) The History of Sexuality. Volume I: An Introduction. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Foucault, M. (1984). The order of discourse. In Shapiro, M., Language and Politics, pp. 108-138. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Fowler, R., Hodege, B., Kress, G. & Trew, T. (1979). Language and Control. London: Routledge.
- Fowler, R. (1986). Linguistic Criticism. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fowler, R. (1987). Notes on critical linguistics. In Steele, R. & Threadgold, T., Language Topics: Essay in Honor of Michael Halliday, pp.481-492. Amsterdam Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Fowler, R. (1991). Lanaguage in the News: Discourse and Ideology in the Press. London: Routledge.
  - Fowler, R. (1996). On critical linguistics. In Caldas-Coulthard, C. & Coulthard, M., Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis, pp. 3-14. London: Routledge.
  - Fox, D. R. & Prilleltensky, I. (1997). Critical Psychology: An Introduction. London: Sage.

- French, J. R. P., Jr., & Raven, B. H. (1959). The bases of social power. In Cartwright, D., Studies in Social Power, pp.150-167. Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research.
- Giddens, A. (1984). The Constitution of Society: Outline of the Theory of Structuration. Cambridge : Polity.
- Hall, S. (1980). Culture, Media, Language. London: Hutchinson.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1973). Explorations in the Functions of Language. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). Language as Social Semiotics: The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). An Introduction to Functional Grammar. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & Matthissen, C. (1999). Construing Experience through Meaning: A Language Based Approach to Cognition. London: Continuum.
- Hodge, R. & Kress, G. (1988). Social Semiotics. Cambridge: Cornell University Press.

Hodge, R. & Kress, G. (1993). Language as Ideology. London: Routledge.

Hymes, D. (1972). Reinventing Anthropology. New York: Vintage Books.

Ibanez, T. & Iiiiguez, L. (1997). Critical Social Psychology. London: Sage.

- Kress, G. (1985). Linguisitc Processes in Sociocultural Practice. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kuo, Sai-hua & Nakamura, Mari. (2005). Translation or transformation? A case study of language and ideology in the Taiwanese press. *Discourse & Society*, 16(3): 393-417.
- Labov, William. (1972). Sociolinguistic Patterns. Philadelphia: Pennsylvania University Press.
- Lee, J. & Craig, R.L. (1992). News as an ideological framework: Comparing US newspapers' coverage of labor strikes in South Korea and Poland. *Discourse & Society*, 3(3): 341-363.
- Min, S.H. (1997). Constructing ideology: A critical linguistic analysis. Studies in the Linguistic Sciences, 27:147-165.
- Ng, S.H. & Bradac, J.J. (1993). Power in Language. Newbury Park: Sage.

Rasmussen, D.M. (1996). The Handbook of Critical Theory. Oxford: Blackwell.

Simpson, P. (1993). Language, Ideology and Point of View. London: Routledge.

- Singh, R. (1996). Towards a Critical Sociolinguistics. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Stubbs, M. (1983). Discourse Analysis: The Sociolinguisitc Analysis of Natural Language. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Teo, P. (2000). Racism in the news: A critical discourse analysis of news reporting in two Australian newspapers. *Discourse & Society*, 11(1): 7-49.
- Thibault, P.J. (1994). Intertextuality. In Asher, R.E., *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics, Volume IV*, pp: 1751-1754. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Thomas, J. (1993). Doing Critical Ethnography. Newbury Park: Sage.

Thompson, J.B. (1990). Ideology and Modern Culture. Cambridge: Polity Press.

- Thompson, G. (2000). Introducing Functional Grammar. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Turkel, G. (1996). Law and Society: Critical Approaches. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1988a). News as Discourse. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1988b). News Analysis: Case Studies of International and National News in the Press. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1991). Racism and the Press. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1993). Principles of critical discourse analysis. *Discourse & Society*, 4(2): 249-283.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1995). Discourse analysis as ideology analysis. In Schaffner, C. & Weden, A.L., Language and Peace, pp.17-33. Dartmouth: Aldershot.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1998). Opinions and ideologies in the press. In Bell, A. & Garrett, P., Approaches to Media Discourse, pp.21-63. Oxford: Blackwell.
- van Dijk, T.A. (2001). Critical discourse analysis. In Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D. & Hamilton, H.E., Handbook of Discourse Analysis, pp.325-371. London: Blackwell.
- van Dijk, T.A. (2002). Political discourse and political cognition. In Chilton, P. A. & Schaffner, C., Politics as Text and Talk: Analytical Approaches to Political Discourse, pp.204-236. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- van Leewuen, T. (1993). Genre and field in discourse analysis. Discourse & Society, 4(2): 193-223.

- Wang, S. (1993). The New York Times' and Renmin Ribao's news coverage of the 1991
  Soviet Coup: A case study of international news discourse. Text, 13:559-598.
- Wodak, R. (1989). Language, Power and Ideology. Amsterdam: John Benjamin's Publishing Company.
- Wodak, R. (1996). Disorders of Discourse. London: Longman.
- Wodak, R. (2001). The discourse-historical approach. In Wodak, R. & Meyer, M., Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis, pp.63-95. London: Sage.
- Wodak, R. & Meyer, M. (2009). Critical discourse analysis: History, agenda, theory, and methodology. In Wodak, R. & Meyer, M., *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis*, pp. 1-33. London: Sage (2<sup>nd</sup> revised edition).
- Yu, H. (1995). Ideological practice in news production: Comparing Taiwan newspapers' report on the Provincial Governor's inauguration. Paper presented at Conferences on Political Linguistics, Antwerp, Belgium.
- 陈中竺,1995a,批评语言学述评,《外语教学与研究》第一期,21—27页。
- 陈中竺,1995b,语篇与意识形态:批判性语篇分析,《外国语》第三期,42—45 页。
- 戴炜华、高军,2002,批评语篇分析:理论述评与实例分析,《外国语》第六期,42—48 页
- 潘志高, 2003, China's Image in the New York Times: Political, Historical and Cultural Factors. 郑州: 河南出版社。
- 辛斌,1996, 语言、权力与意识形态:批评语言学,《现代外语》第一期,21—26页。
- 辛斌,1997, 英语语篇的批评分析刍议,《四川外国语学院学报》第四期,43---49页。
- 辛斌,1998, 新闻语篇转述引语的批评性分析,《外语教学与研究》第二期,9—14页。
- 辛斌, 2000a, 语篇互文性的语言分析, 《外语研究》 第三期, 14—16 页。
- 辛斌,2000b,批评语言学与英语新闻语篇的批评性分析,《外语教学》第四期,44—48 页。
- 辛斌,2000c, 《语篇互文性的批评性分析》, 苏州: 苏州大学出版社。
- 辛斌,2002, 批评性语篇分析方法论,《外国语》 第六期,34—41 页。

辛斌,2005,《批评语言学:理论与应用》,上海:上海外语教育出版社。

- 辛斌,2006,《中国日报》和《纽约时报》中转述方式和消息来源的比较分析,《外语 与外语教学》第三期,1—4页。
- 徐立新,1999,语言反映意识形态—对四家报纸关于印度核试验报道的语篇分析,《外 语教学》第四期,12-16页。
- 张延续,1998, 批评语言学与大众语篇——对美国新闻周刊的批判性分析,《解放军外 国语学院学报》第六期,24-27页。

### Acknowledgements

In the beginning, a M.A thesis seemed to be a mission impossible for me. The thesis journey is always accompanied by frustrations and failures. And the prospect of completing a 15000 words (plus) thesis is extremely daunting to me. Thanks to the selfless help from professors and friends in Shandong University and my families, my thesis is finally completed.

First of all, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Professor Wang Xiangyun, my supervisor. Every time I get into trouble either in academic research or in daily life, he is always ready to help me and instruct me. The shadow of fear from the thesis writing is dispersed by his insightful suggestions, constant encouragement and kindly smiles. During my three-year study in the field of linguistics, his expertise and rigorous scholarship have set a brilliant example for me to follow, and certainly, will become a strong source of inspiration for me to pursue further development in the academic study.

My heartfelt thanks also go to all the professors who have taught me during the three-year MA program and to the School of Foreign Languages and Literature of Shandong University.

I am heartily grateful to my dear classmates who have shared with me the sorrows and joys of the thesis writing and offered me useful suggestions about my thesis. Last but not the least, I am deeply indebted to my parents who gave me not only my life but also the strongest support and everlasting love.

学位论文评阅及答辩情况表

	\$	生名	专业技术 职 务	是否博导 (硕导)	所在单位	总体评价 ※			
论	苗	这伟	初报	YZ	山东大房	B			
文评	1	文化	弘援	22 27C	山东北花大学	B			
, 阅 人									
		·							
					· ·				
	姓名		专业技术 职 务	是否博导 (硕导)	所在单位				
	主席	成语	扒搭	Auc	山东城范大	ĥ			
		苗洲	台援	The the the	山东城市大学				
答  辩		书新格	教播	ž	山东旅				
委员	委								
会成									
员				-					
	员								
答辩委员会对论 文的总体评价※ B 答辩秘书 2010 答辩日期 2010 5									
备注									

※优秀为"A"; 良好为"B"; 合格为"C"; 不合格为"D".

. . . . .