Textual Features in American News Media: 
A Critical Discourse Analysis

(A Case Study of CNN's websites)

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of PhD in English (Applied Linguistics)

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Chapter One
Introduction

1.0 Overview

This chapter provides description of the theoretical framework of the study focusing mainly as the study problem and the research methodology.

1.1 Background of the Study

In the last few decades, a novel vehicle of transmitting information has been invented. For the first time in history, a story can be seen and followed visually around the clock. Visual devices have played a similar role that the radio had on in terms of reporting live events. TV Audiences consume the story as a live experience instead of receiving the story in the schedule of news bulletins. Moreover, in a global dimension the constraints of the time zones have disappeared due to the ongoing reporting.

Media discourse have introduced new communication practices, provided new interaction, patterns, created new forms of expressions, stimulated a wide civic participation and so forth. TV channels come into existence and their significance is increasing and their role is changing in social and political processes. Moreover, TV channels have become an instrumental approach to and power for social change due to their potential in bringing new dynamics to its underlying processes such as public mobilization.

News websites, particularly those related to satellite television networks with global coverage, has a pivotal and significant role to play in today’s world. Satellite networks such as CNN International has an associated news sites which provide news coverage in English.
Media frames can further influence opinion via the chosen news sources, since news sources are essential building blocks in news coverage. Journalistic norms dictate that reporters must “rely on external suppliers of raw material, whether speeches, interviews, corporate reports, or government hearings” (Shoemaker, 1996, p. 122). The selection of specific attributes of a story reflects the perspective of the source feeding specific frames of interpretation. Sources that are seen as more credible have more persuasive power on opinions (Norris, Kern and Just, 2003). Also, De Vreese links frames to various sources journalists rely on, arguing that “framing involves a communication source presenting and defining an issue” (2005, p. 52). While Gitlin (1980) suggests that other sources than officials should be taken into consideration by the media, Shoemaker (1996) noted a heavy reporters’ reliance on official sources due to several factors, one of which is the convenience as well as the “regular flow of authoritative information” (p. 125).

According to Cozma (2014) “source selection is a key component of the final news product, and using the same sources over time has important implications” (p. 5). In addition, Shoemaker (1996) states: “the importance of differences between media content and other sources of information about the world lies in the fact that our views of the world, and resulting actions, will be molded by our predominant sources of information: the mass media” (p. 56).

When television first entered American society, Harold Lasswell (1948) charged researchers in the then-fledgling field of media and communication with the task of discovering ‘who says what in which channel to whom and with what effect’. This task was widely adopted for several decades, especially by social psychologists (most notably, the Yale Program of Research on Communication), viewing masscommunication as a special case of the ‘general linear model of
communication’, namely sender message receiver. However, the implications of this linear model namely, that social influence is unidirectional, that communications are initiated by the sender, that messages are pre-given packages of meaning passed from source to recipient, that no feedback occurs along the way, that audiences are just the end-point of a communication, to be affected but not involved all of these implications have been variously challenged. Perhaps most influential has been the alternative, cyclic model of communication offered in Stuart Hall’s paper *Encoding/Decoding* (Hall, 1980). Hall (1994) was later to reflect that this model, intended as a programmatic sketch for cultural studies, represented an attack on the then mainstream, social psychological model of mass communication. Rejecting the linearity of this model, Hall stressed the links between processes of encoding and decoding, contextualising these within a complex cultural framework. On this view, mass communication is understood as a circuit of practices: production, circulation, consumption, (re)production (Pillai, 1992).

Influenced also by the work of reception theorists such as Umberto Eco (1979), who stresses how ‘readers’ strive to complete the necessarily partial meaning of a text by drawing on their own cultural resources in the process of interpretation, Hall reconceptualised the ideological effect of the mass media in terms of a series of dominant codes which place structural limitations on the interpretative process, leading readers/viewers to articulate the ‘preferred’ or normative meaning, thereby reproducing rather than resisting the dominant ideology.

However, in moving beyond classic Marxist accounts of ideology which propose deterministic ideological codes, Hall (1980) also allows for the relative autonomy of culture, suggesting a looser relation between
media texts and audiences than previously accommodated by theories of ideology. Thus, oppositional readings – those which run counter to the preferred reading – remain possible, precisely because texts do not stand in a deterministic relation to the reader but rather must be actively reproduced, or otherwise, by interpretative work on the part of the audience, depending on the variable social and cultural resources available to them in the reception context.

The cyclic model of encoding and decoding was first explored empirically by David Morley, setting the paradigm for many cultural studies’ projects to come (Morley, 1992). Following an earlier textual analysis of ideological encoding in the 1970s current affairs programme, *Nationwide*, Morley (1980; 1981) conducted a series of peer-group discussions which showed that audience decodings diverged as a function of socio-economic position, resulting in interpretations which were politically framed. For example, decoding by bank managers and by schoolboys was highly consistent with the normative assumptions which structured the programme, while trainee teachers and trade union officials made politically inconsistent, ambivalent or negotiated readings. Yet other groups, for example shop stewards, took a clearly oppositional position, constructing a critical reading grounded in their social experience but unintended by the text. And a few viewers were wholly alienated from the text as it did not afford them a reading congruent with their own cultural position (for example, black further education students).

In sum, despite some continuing theoretical and methodological debate, the advantage of this approach lies in its recognition of divergence in interpretation (particularly of the connotative meanings of texts), pointing up some significant indeterminacy in media texts, while at the same time preserving a view of ideology construed in terms of the production and
consumption of meanings. As anticipated by Hall, Morley showed how particular groups respond in different ways to the preferred reading offered to them by media texts, depending on the degree of correspondence between the conditions of encoding and decoding. For the most part, this correspondence is sufficient for the preferred reading to predominate, while the emancipatory potential opened up by a lesser degree of correspondence provides the counterbalance presumed by the theory of hegemony. While in principle, therefore, the moments of encoding and decoding are indeed relatively autonomous, in practice, the possibilities for critical or oppositional readings are restricted both by the degree of closure linguistically encoded into the text (a matter of ideological dominance) and the unequal access to symbolic resources.

1.2 Statement of the Study
The researcher has found out that the studies that focus on text production and text are rather few in number in connection with the studies that combine a focus on the text with studies of reception processes. This study is going to investigate textual features in American news media, which is a critical discourse analysis.

1.3 Objectives of the Study
The researcher will try to investigate textual features in American news Media that is used by CNN and to examine a corpus of online news articles presented during six months period. CDA differs from other frameworks of discourse analysis in that it is not only centered on textual, linguistic analysis, but goes further to incorporate the historical, political, social, and cultural context that surrounds text production and consumption.
1.4 Significance of the Study

Studies of textual features are the setting for meetings between humanities approaches to the text and social science analyses of contexts and institutions. Media considers as a source of data for some language feature. Media language affects attitudes and opinions in society through the way it presents people and issues.

The present study fills a gap in research on media discourse analysis in that it addresses an area that, has not been addressed before: Studies on media discourse analysis employing a CDA approach have addressed different critical issues that reveal relations of power, struggle, and dominance in different societies; yet, no study has investigated media discourse. Moreover, the study fills a gap in the literature on textual features. Despite the different topics addressed in studies on textual features, only a few studies have touched on the connection between media and discourse.

According to Peter Lunt (2001) throughout the western world, people spend a considerable proportion of their leisure hours with one mass medium or another, together totalling more hours than children spend in school or families spend in conversation. Through the media, people are positioned, or position themselves, in relation to a flood of images and information about both worlds distant in space or time as well as the world close to home. A considerable body of research from diverse disciplines over the past century has traced the complex and subtle ways in which the media have become an integral part of our everyday lives, implicated in the structuring of our domestic practices, our social relationships. On a more macro level, a growing body of research is also charting how the media are increasingly central to broader socio-cultural, even global, flows of communication and information. Thus the media
play a key role in how, in our everyday lives, we understand the world around us and our place within it.

Yet despite the popular anxieties which flare up sporadically over media content and regulation, it is easy to take the media for granted, failing to recognise their importance precisely because of their very ubiquity as background features of everyday life. Perhaps for this reason, systematic treatments of the media within social psychology are rare. This stands in curious contrast to the social psychological nature - in terms of questions, influences, concepts and methods - of the emerging field of media and communication, or media studies. Drawing on the resources of several disciplines across the social sciences and humanities, this field has established itself as a more or less autonomous discipline in recent years, more so in some countries (e.g. America, the Nordic countries) than in others, developing a rich and diverse panoply of theories and methods concerning the media and recently, information and communication technologies more broadly. Social psychology played a key role in the establishment of this new field. Most significantly, social psychology bequeathed to media studies from the 1940s onwards an emphasis on ‘effects’ and on ‘uses and gratifications’, both of which dominated media and communications research in the following decades. Yet since then, social psychology has tended to marginalise the media in one of several ways. If one looks at social psychology textbooks or journals, the media are either barely mentioned or bracketed off in a separate chapter, as if their role in social influence, social construction and social identity can be unproblematically contained. If one turns to more linguistically or discursively oriented social psychological research, a more subtle version of this strategy is evident as the media are treated either as an obviously
important source of social influence or, paradoxically, they are treated as a convenient source of material for analysing public understanding.

By contrast, the force of intellectual developments across many disciplines, most obviously media and communication itself, is to recognise the nature of the media as multifaceted artefacts embedded in a production-consumption cycle of considerable complexity which is in turn embedded in economic, political, cultural and psychological structures of modern society. It is the consequences of this recognition for social psychology. Given that the media represent a key constituent of contemporary life, how might social psychology best encompass their cultural and communicative significance? And further, how might social psychology develop a positive contribution to media and communication research beyond the effects and uses and gratifications positions?

Within media studies, an analysis of the role and significance of the media involves a focus on the three core components of media systems (institutional production, text, and audience), on the interrelations among these components, and last but not least, on locating these processes and interrelations within their social contexts (Abercrombie, 1996). This is an ambitious project encompassing a wide range of theoretical and methodological perspectives and borrowing freely from neighbouring disciplines from political economy to literary theory to anthropology. On the face of it, social psychology is well positioned to make a significant contribution but finds itself on the margins. This is partly because those social psychological theories which have proved influential in media studies (especially media effects and media uses and gratifications) tend to assume a particular, and heavily critiqued, model of communication.

Traditional psychological models of communication adopt a view of the relation between representation, language, interpretation and
culture which fits neither with current, discursively oriented approaches to communication within social psychology nor with new approaches to communication and culture within media studies.

1.5 Questions of the study

The researcher will seek to answer the following questions:

1.5.1 To what extent are distinctive features of form and content used, which make CNN different from other traditional types of news?

1.5.2 To what extent does CNN modify textual features and presentation according to the audience it addresses?

1.5.3 What are the textual features that are used by CNN?

1.6 Hypotheses of the study

The researcher sets the following assumptions:

1.6.1 As the CNN has actually become an important source of news, distinctive features of form and content are used, which make CNN different from other traditional types of news.

1.6.2 There are many textual features that are used by CNN.

1.6.3 CNN as a news producer modify textual features and presentation according to the audience it addresses.

1.7 Limits of the study

Limits of the study include CNN's websites, stories collected in English during January first, 2009 to November 30th, 2011. The study will be about textual features in American news media. The researcher will use a critical discourse analysis as a guide for this study.

1.8 Methodology of the Study

This research is interdisciplinary in nature. It’s a mixed methodology and is based mainly on the field of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), with insights from other disciplines, such as multimodal discourse analysis. The analyzed data will consist of stories collected
from CNN sites in English. The analysis will include multimodal, quantitative and qualitative analyses of the collected CNN websites stories.
Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews some relevant literature in relation to the current study. Due to the complexity of the phenomenon involved here, the following review divided into two sections, each of which reviews a particular aspect relevant to the topic of discourses analysis.

2.1 What is Discourse?

Blommaert, (2005:2) defines discourse is a language in action and investigating it requires attention both language and to action. And according to Guy Cook, (1990: 6) Discourse is language in use, for communication, discourse analysis is the search for what gives discourse coherence.

As well as Gee,( 2001:28) stated that discourse crucially involve: situated identities; ways of performing and recognizing characteristic identities and activities; ways of coordinating and getting coordinated by other people, things, tools, technologies, symbol systems, places, and times; characteristic ways of acting, interacting, feeling, emoting, valuing, gesturing, posturing, dressing, thinking, believing, knowing, speaking, listening (and in some discourses, reading and writing, as well). I agree with view that discourse is a language in action.

2.2 Field of discourse:

According to Halliday and Hasan (1985:12) Field of discourse refers to "what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?"

“Field of discourse plays a vital role in the context of text. It is one of the three basic elements in the textual internal world and external world. Fields of discourse can be non-technical, as is the
case with the general topics that we deal with in the course of our daily life. Or they can be technical or specialist as in linguistics, politics, law, computer science and many other fields" (International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 4, No. 8; June 2014)

2.3 Tenor of discourse:

Tenor of discourse refers to "who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved?"

2.4 Mode of discourse:

Halliday and Hassan (1985) mode of discourse is a term that to:

"[...] what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organization of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?) and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like” (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 12).

2.5 Spoken and written language

Darker and Yule (1983: 4-5), Manner of creation from the perspective of generation, obviously talked and composed dialect make to some degree distinctive requests on dialect makers. The speaker has accessible to him the full scope of 'voice quality' impacts (and outward appearance, postural and gestural frameworks). Outfitted with these he can generally abrogate the impact of the words he talks

I, unexpectedly, may investigate what he has effectively composed, stop between each word with no dread of his questioner intruding on him, take as much time as necessary in picking a specific word, notwithstanding finding it in the lexicon if essential, check his advancement with his
notes, reorder what he has composed, and even alter his opinion about what he needs to state. While the speaker is under consider-capable strain to continue talking.

2.6 Written texts
As expressed in Brown and Yule (1983: 6), The thought of 'content' as a printed record is well-known in the investigation of writing. A 'content' might be diversely exhibited in various releases, with various sort confront, on various sizes of paper, in a couple of sections despite everything we expect, starting with one version then onto the next, that the distinctive introductions all speak to the equivalent 'content'. It is vital to consider exactly what it is that is 'the equivalent'. Negligibly, the words ought to be similar words, displayed in a similar request. Where there are debated readings of writings, editors for the most part feel obliged to remark on the core; so of Hamlet's

"0, that this too too sullied flesh would melt".

2.7 Spoken texts
The issues experienced with the thought of 'content' as the verbal record of an informative demonstration turn into significantly more mind boggling when we think about what is implied by talked 'content'. The easiest view to accept is that a copying of an informative demonstration will protect the 'content'. The copying may likewise safeguard a decent arrangement that might be superfluous to the content hacking, seats squeaking, transports going past, the scratch of a match lighting a cigarette.

In general the talk expert works with a copying of an occasion, from which he at that point makes a composed interpretation explained by his interests on a specific event translations of the sort which will show up in this book. He needs to figure out what comprises the verbal occasion, and
what shape he will decipher it in. Except if the examiner creates a fine-grained phonetic translation (which not very many individuals would have the capacity to peruse fluidly) points of interest of emphasize and articulation are lost. When all is said in done, experts speak to discourse utilizing typical orthographic tradition.

2.8 Pragmatics and discourse context

The talk investigator fundamentally adopts a realistic strategy to the investigation of dialect being used. Such a methodology brings into thought various issues which don't by and large get much consideration in the formal etymologist's portrayal of sentential language structure and semantics. We noted, for instance, that the talk investigator needs to assess the setting in which a bit of talk happens. The absolute most evident etymological components which require relevant data for their translation are the deictic structures, for example, here, now, I, you, various stuff. With the end goal to decipher these components in a bit of talk, it is important to know (in any event) who the speaker and listener are, and the time and place of the generation of the talk.

2.9 Discourse Analysis

As mentioned Fairclough, (1989:7) Discourse analysis is an analysis of how texts work within social cultural practice- such analysis requires attention to textual form, structure and organization at all levels; phonological, grammatical, lexical…).

As cited in Schiffrin, Tannen, Hamilton ((eds) 2001:353) critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context.
As stated in Jones, (1983: 2) Discourse analysis study the ways sentences and utterances go together to make texts and interactions and how those texts and interactions fit into our social world.

“Fairclough (1995: 4) describes the text traditionally understood to be a piece of written language – a whole work such as a poem or a novel, or a relatively discrete part of a work such as a chapter” (JurnalPengembanganHumaniora Vol. 12 No. 3, Desember 2012).

The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. The discourse analysis is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for.

As cited to Fear (2004, 5) discourse is a network of relations between objects. Texts are objects. Discourse is an interrelated body of texts. Texts are symbolic expressions that are inscribed by being spoken, written, or depicted in some way.

Discourse analysis is a broad and fast-developing interdisciplinary field concern with the study of language use in context.

2.10 The origins of discourse Analysis:
As stated in Guy Cook, (1990:12-13) The main known understudy of language in the Western custom, the researchers of Greece and Rome, knew about previous being worried about the guidelines of language as a confined question, the last with how to get things done with words, to accomplish impacts, and convey effectively.

In twentieth-century phonetics, close by sentence etymology, there have additionally been impacted methodologies which examined language in its full setting as a piece of society and the world.

In North America, in the early many years of this century, energizing work on language was directed by individuals who were without a moment's delay the two anthropologists and etymologists, regularly engaged with examination into the language and social orders of the Native American.
In Britain a comparable custom created in crafted by J.R. Firth, who saw language, not as an independent framework put as a piece of culture. Incidentally, it was a sentence etymologist who both authored the term 'discourse analysis and started a scan for language rules which would clarify how sentences were associated inside a content by a sort of expanded language structure. This was Zelling Harris.

As referred to in Robin Wooffitt,( 2005), Foucauldian talk investigation abridged as pursue :Foucauldian discourse analysis endeavors to see how language propagates social disparities.

It fundamentally considers the manners by which discourse advise and shape our comprehension of the world and social and political connections.

It looks at writings and the discourse which are said to possess them.

Foucauldian discourse analysis are disparaging of the cognitivist introductions and trial techniques for contemporary scholastic brain science. They are likewise disparaging of discussion investigation and discourse analysis.

2.11 The origins of Critical Discourse Analysis

In authentic reviews, for example, Wodak (1995), reference is made to the basic etymologists' of the University of East Anglia, who, during the 1970s, swung to issues, for example, the utilization of dialect in social foundations and relations between language, power, and belief system, and who broadcasted a basic (in the feeling of left-wing) and emancipatory plan for etymological examination... Crafted by these basic language specialists depended on the fundamental useful and social-semiotic etymology of Michael Halliday, whose phonetic system is still hailed as essential to CDA rehearses (quite by Fairclough) in light of the fact that it offers clear and thorough semantic classes for breaking down the relations among talk and social importance.
CDA has delighted in a noteworthy accomplishment with understudies and researchers. It has major for of distribution in the diaries Discourse and Society (altered by Teun van Dijk), Critical Discourse Studies (altered by Norman Fairclough), and Journal of Language and Politics (altered by Ruth Wodak and Paul Chilton) and additionally in a few book arrangement. An European interuniversity trade program gave to CDA is presently set up; different sites and electronic discourse bunches offer contacts and data on CDA tasks and perspectives. This dynamic quest for systematization affects what pursues. To some degree, the 'school' attributes of CDA make an impression of conclusion and selectiveness concerning evaluate as a mode, fixing, and result of discourse analysis.

Critical discourse analysis is related with scientists, for example, Norman Fairclough, Teun A. van Dijk and Ruth Wodak. Comprehensively put, it is worried to dissect how social and political disparities are show in and imitated and substantive introduction of CDA look into. It is imperative to worry from the beginning, in any case, that there is nobody method for doing CDA.

As refered in Gilbert Weiss and Ruth Wodak, (2003:11-12) the underlying foundations of CDA lie in established Rhetoric, Text etymology and Socio-phonetics, and also in Applied Linguistics and Pragmatics. The thoughts of belief system control, chain of command, sexual orientation and sociological factors were altogether observed as pertinent for an understanding or clarification of content. The subjects under scrutiny contrast for the different offices and researchers who apply CDA.

Some dozen years prior, as prove by van Dijk's four-volume Handbook of Discourse Analysis (1985), the recorded investigation of talk was unrecognized. Nonetheless, the interceding time frame has seen an abundance of studies, which have been differently named "New
Philology" (Fleischman 1990), "post-/interdisciplinary philology" (Sell 1994), "historical talk examination" or "chronicled content phonetics" (Enkvist and Wårvik 1987: 222), "diachronic content etymology" (Fries 1983), or "authentic pragmatics" (Stein 1985b; Jucker 1994). The principal approach includes an utilization of talk investigation to dialect history. It is the investigation of talk structures, capacities, or structures – that is, whatever is enveloped by talk examination in prior times of a dialect. The consideration of the talk investigator is centered around chronicled phases of a dialect, yet the accentuation stays on talk structure. This methodology might be named recorded talk examination appropriate.

2.12 Media Language

According to Briggs, A. and Cobley, P. (eds) (2002) stated that socially in terms of what we talk about; physically in terms of what we see on our streets; culturally in terms of the time we spend absorbing ideas from screens and pages. The presence of texts is taken for granted and may well be treated uncritically. They are commonplace in both domestic and public environments: music in a department store, or a television set left on at home. Media texts are constantly appearing and changing – street posters come and go. Media texts are continually being produced and renewed. Media texts intend to engage people, to convey some kind of information, and to produce reactions in their audiences which justify their continuing production. Even when treated as part of the environment they can never be seen as passive in the way that the facade of a building or wallpaper is passive. They are active in their capacity to produce meanings in the minds of the audience. Throughout this book, I want to argue that this production of meaning is what makes media study very important. We live by meanings.
This production of meanings happens whether or not we engage intentionally with a text. Even when the text is attended to, there are meanings which the reader is conscious of, and yet other meanings which may be produced unconsciously. In this sense the reader of texts is not entirely in control of their engagement with the text. Equally, I am not arguing that the text maker is entirely in control of the production of meaning. The text becomes an interesting place of engagement. Things happen through the text, not all of them predictable or manageable. What we call ‘the text’ is not a given thing with given meanings. It means different things to different people at different times. It appears to have a material existence – the DVD, the magazine, even the broadcast live programme. But actually it really exists in an immaterial form, in the mind, and only when it is seen, read or heard. The text that we criticize lies at an intersection between the media producer (institutions) and the media audience. It acts as a stimulus to produce meanings.

Van Dijk (1991) Special access to the minds of the public does not imply control. Not only does the public have some freedom in participating in the use of media messages, it may also not change its mind along the lines desired by the more powerful. Rejection, disbelief, criticism, or other forms of resistance or challenge may be involved and thus signal modes of counterpower. In other words, influence defined as a form of mind control is hardly unproblematic, as is the power of the media and of the elite groups that try to access the public through the media. In the same way as forms or modes of discourse access may be spelled out, the ways in which the minds of others may indirectly be accessed through text and talk should also be examined. Such an account requires a more explicit insight into the representations and strategies of the social mind. Although I am unable to enter into the technical details
of a theory of the mind here as it is being developed in cognitive and social psychology, the very processes of influence involvemany different, complex steps and mental (memory) representations, ofwhich I only summarize a few.

Readers of a news report first of all need to understand its words, sentences, or other structural properties. This does not only mean that they must know the language and its grammar and lexicon, possibly including rather technical words such as those of modern politics, management, science, or the professions. Users of the media need to know something about the specific organization and functions of news reports in the press, including the functions of headlines, leads, background information, or quotations.

Besides such grammatical and textual knowledge, media users need vast amounts of properly organized knowledge of the world. A news report about the Gulf War, for instance, presupposes at least some knowledge about the geography of the Middle East, as well as general knowledge about wars, international politics, earlier historical events, and so on. This means that a lack of education may seriously limit news understanding, as is shown by much empirical research. In other words, powerlessness may involve limited (passive) access to mass mediated discourse due to a failure (fully) to understand news texts themselves or the events such texts are about.

What is true for access, routines of news production, sources, and quotation patterns also holds for other properties of ethnic news coverage. Analyses of topics show that despite slight changes and variations of coverage during recent decades, news on ethnic affairs remains focused on a small selection of preferred topics, including immigration, crime, violence, cultural differences, and race relations. The prominence of these topics is further biased by the
overall tendency to cover such issues in terms of problems, if not of threats.

Immigration in such a case will never be represented as a boon to a country lacking a workforce for dirty jobs or enough youths to prevent demographic decline. Rather, immigration, although tacitly condoned as long as it is economically propitious, will be represented as an invasion or a threatening wave. Refugees, who used to be pitied within the older framework of humanitarian paternalism as long as there were few, are now barred from entering the country and being called economic refugees (i.e., as coming only because they are poor), a well-known code word for being considered fakes, despite the political or economic oppression in their countries. Ethnic, especially black, crime has become a special category and is stereotypically associated with drugs (crack), mugging, violence, rioting, gangs, prostitution, and other forms of threats to the white population. Thus, young Moroccans in the Netherlands have easy topical access to the front pages of the quality press when a scholarly or bureaucratic report shows that they engage in street crime, but not when other research documents show how they are being victimized by discriminatory employers who refuse to hire them. Similarly, cultural differences of language, religion, clothing, food, mentality, or everyday behavior are among the standard explanations of failing integration or lack of success in school, at work, or in business.

Muslim traditionalism or fundamentalism is one of the best-known examples of such cultural explanations. Muslim fathers are given the entire blame for the failure of their daughters to stay in school, thus associating all Turkish or North African immigrants with fundamentalism or backward provincialism, an orientalist tradition that also characterizes much news about Islam. Stereotypes and prejudices in textbooks and lessons or discrimination by teachers and white students are not topics in
the press, let alone preferred as explanations of minority failure in education. In sum, the preferred topics of ethnic affairs coverage not only form a handy schema to define and interpret ethnic events, but also to select stories for their newsworthiness or to represent the white group or society as essentially tolerant and understanding. Also, they are the dominant strategy of defining the others for the white reading public as problematic, if not threatening, aliens, who at the same time maybe blamed for most of society’s social and economic ills.

It is not surprising that other topics seldom or never reach such prominence in the press, as is the case for economic contributions, political organization and activities, social self-help, minorities in high positions, high culture (as opposed to pop culture), and so on. Any topic that might contribute to a nonstereotypical (let alone a positive) attitude schema about a minority group is carefully avoided, if not censored. Exceptions here structurally define the rule, show that they are incidental and no threat to white group dominance, and at the same time signal that failing success must be blamed on the others and not on the majority. Similar conclusions follow from analyses of all other levels and dimensions of news reports on ethnic affairs. Strong stylistic or rhetorical derogation of ethnic minorities and especially of antiracists is a normal daily feature of the British tabloids. Editorials are replete with the usual moves of positive white self-presentation and negative other presentation, such as the well-known apparent denial we have nothing against blacks (Turks, etc.) but of which versions also appear in everyday conversations among whites. Similarly, apparent concessions or apparent praise also serve for moral face-keeping when the overall message about minorities or immigrants is meant to be negative. Phrases such as Life of blacks in the inner cities is very difficult, but is
aploy that organized much of the white media editorial and other commentary about the Los Angeles uprising in 1992.

I agree with Van Dijk that grammatical and textual knowledge, media users need vast amounts of properly organized knowledge of the world.

2.13. Language and the Media

The modern media possess a hitherto unprecedented power to encode and circulate symbolic representations. Throughout the western world, people spend a considerable proportion of their leisure hours with one mass medium or another, together totalling more hours than children spend in school or families spend in conversation. Through the media, people are positioned, or position themselves, in relation to a flood of images and information about both worlds distant in space or time as well as the world close to home. A considerable body of research from diverse disciplines over the past century has traced the complex and subtle ways in which the media have become an integral part of our everyday lives, implicated in the structuring of our domestic practices, our social relationships, our very identity. On a more macro level, a growing body of research is also charting how the media are increasingly central to broader socio-cultural, even global, flows of communication and information. Thus the media play a key role in how, in our everyday lives, we understand the world around us and our place within it, while that very ‘we’ is becoming more culturally dispersed as a result of those same media processes.

Yet despite the popular anxieties which flare up sporadically over media content and regulation, it is easy to take the media for granted, failing to recognise their importance precisely because of their very ubiquity as background features of everyday life. Perhaps for this reason, systematic treatments of the media within social psychology are rare.
This stands in curious contrast to the social psychological nature - in terms of questions, influences, concepts and methods - of the emerging field of media and communication, or media studies. Drawing on the resources of several disciplines across the social sciences and humanities, this field has established itself as a more or less autonomous discipline in recent years, more so in some countries (e.g. America, the Nordic countries) than in others, developing a rich and diverse panoply of theories and methods concerning the media and recently, information and communication technologies more broadly.1 Social psychology played a key role in the establishment of this new field. Most significantly, social psychology bequeathed to media studies from the 1940s onwards an emphasis on ‘effects’2 and on ‘uses and gratifications’,3 both of which dominated media and communications research in the following decades. Yet since then, social psychology has tended to marginalise the media in one of several ways. If one looks at social psychology textbooks or journals, the media are either barely mentioned or bracketed off in a separate chapter, as if their role in social influence, social construction and social identity can be unproblematically contained. If one turns to more linguistically or discursively oriented social psychological research, a more subtle version of this strategy is evident as the media are treated either as an obviously important source of social influence or, paradoxically, they are treated as a convenient source of material for analysing public understanding.

By contrast, the force of intellectual developments across many disciplines, most obviously media and communication itself, is to recognise the nature of the media as multifaceted artefacts embedded in a production-consumption cycle of considerable complexity which is in turn embedded in economic, political, cultural and psychological structures of modern society. It is the consequences of this recognition for
social psychology which we wish to pursue in this chapter, making the question of language in the media our central focus. Given that the media represent a key constituent of contemporary life, how might social psychology best encompass their cultural and communicative significance? And further, how might social psychology develop a positive contribution to media and communication research beyond the effects and uses and gratifications positions?

Within media studies, an analysis of the role and significance of the media involves a focus on the three core components of media systems (institutional production, text, and audience), on the interrelations among these components, and last but not least, on locating these processes and interrelations within their social contexts (Abercrombie, 1996). This is an ambitious project encompassing a wide range of theoretical and methodological perspectives and borrowing freely from neighbouring disciplines from political economy to literary theory to anthropology. On the face of it, social psychology is well positioned to make a significant contribution but finds itself on the margins. This is partly because those social psychological theories which have proved influential in media studies (especially media effects and media uses and gratifications) tend to assume a particular, and heavily critiqued, model of communication.

Traditional psychological models of communication adopt a view of the relation between representation, language, interpretation and culture which fits neither with current, discursively oriented approaches to communication within social psychology nor with new approaches to communication and culture within media studies. In the present chapter, we consider these new approaches to communication and culture -- from which social psychology could gain and to which it could contribute – in terms of their response to the traditional psychology of communication.
By identifying responses to each of five key elements of the traditional model of communication, we hope to show how valuable approaches to language and media are emerging that not only represent critical responses to each of these elements but also take the research agenda forward. These five linked elements of the traditional model are that (i) the communication process is essentially linear, with the result that (ii) audiences are passive receivers at the end of a chain of media influence (iii) whose key function is the transmission of information, (iv) in the performance of which the media work no differently from any other, face to face, source of representations, while (v) simultaneously (and paradoxically) adopting the rhetoric of public address.

I support the view of Briggs, A. and Coble that what we call ‘the text’ is not a given thing with given meanings. It means different things to different people at different times. When television first entered American society, Harold Lasswell (1948) charged researchers in the then-fledgling field of media and communication with the task of discovering ‘who says what in which channel to whom and with what effect’. This task was widely adopted for several decades, especially by social psychologists (most notably, the Yale Program of Research on Communication), viewing mass communication as a special case of the ‘general linear model of communication’, namely sender, message, receiver. However, the implications of this linear model – namely, that social influence is unidirectional, that communications are initiated by the sender, that messages are pre-given packages of meaning passed from source to recipient, that no feedback occurs along the way, that audiences are just the end-point of a communication, to be affected but not involved all of these implications have been variously challenged. Perhaps most influential has been the alternative, cyclic model of communication.
offered in Stuart Hall’s paper *Encoding/Decoding* (Hall, 1980). Hall (1994) was later to reflect that this model, intended as a programmatic sketch for cultural studies, represented an attack on the then mainstream, social psychological model of mass communication. Rejecting the linearity of this model, Hall stressed the links between processes of encoding and decoding, contextualising these within a complex cultural framework. On this view, mass communication is understood as a circuit of practices: production, circulation, consumption, (re)production.

Influenced also by the work of reception theorists such as Umberto Eco (1979; see below), who stresses how ‘readers’ strive to complete the necessarily partial meaning of a text by drawing on their own cultural resources in the process of interpretation, Hall re-conceptualised the ideological effect of the mass media in terms of a series of dominant codes which place structural limitations on the interpretative process, leading readers/viewers to articulate the ‘preferred’ or normative meaning, thereby reproducing rather than resisting the dominant ideology. However, in moving beyond classic Marxist accounts of ideology which propose deterministic ideological codes, Hall (1980) also allows for the relative autonomy of culture, suggesting a looser relation between media texts and audiences than previously accommodated by theories of ideology. Thus, oppositional readings – those which run counter to the preferred reading – remain possible, precisely because texts do not stand in a deterministic relation to the reader but rather must be actively reproduced, or otherwise, by interpretative work on the part of the audience, depending on the variable social and cultural resources available to them in the reception context.

The cyclic model of encoding and decoding was first explored empirically by David Morley, setting the paradigm for many cultural studies’ projects to come (Morley, 1992). Following an earlier textual
analysis of ideological encoding in the 1970s current affairs programme, *Nationwide*, Morley (1980; 1981) conducted a series of peer-group discussions which showed that audience decodings diverged as a function of socio-economic position, resulting in interpretations which were politically framed. For example, decoding by bank managers and by schoolboys was highly consistent with the normative assumptions which structured the programme, while trainee teachers and trade union officials made politically inconsistent, ambivalent or negotiated readings. Yet other groups, for example shop stewards, took a clearly oppositional position, constructing a critical reading grounded in their social experience but unintended by the text. And a few viewers were wholly alienated from the text as it did not afford them a reading congruent with their own cultural position (for example, black further education students).

As anticipated by Hall, Morley showed how particular groups respond in different ways to the preferred reading offered to them by media texts, depending on the degree of correspondence between the conditions of encoding and decoding. For the most part, this correspondence is sufficient for the preferred reading to predominate, while the emancipatory potential opened up by a lesser degree of correspondence provides the counterbalance presumed by the theory of hegemony. While in principle, therefore, the moments of encoding and decoding are indeed relatively autonomous, in practice, the possibilities for critical or oppositional readings are restricted both by the degree of closure linguistically encoded into the text (a matter of ideological dominance) and the unequal access to symbolic resources available to audiences (a matter of socio-economic positioning). In sum, despite some continuing theoretical and methodological debate, the advantage of this approach lies in its recognition of divergence in interpretation
(particularly of the connotative meanings of texts), pointing up some significant indeterminacy in media texts, while at the same time preserving a view of ideology construed in terms of the production and consumption of meanings.

From a social psychological perspective, cultural studies shifts us away from questions of attitudes towards or effects of media contents, both these being approaches which implicitly construe the media text as a ‘stimulus’ (Livingstone, 1998), towards questions of the context-dependent (but not deterministic) symbolic activity engaged in by audiences in order to generate the inherently variable meanings of a text, as part of a ‘circuit of communication’ that constitutes relations of media production/consumption. While Hall et al are primarily concerned with ideology, and hence focus on the normative structuring of texts and the concomitant role of social class in framing audience response, the force of their arguments ties in with those stemming from reception-aesthetics within literary theory, opening up a more general set of questions about active audiences. In other words, while cultural studies sees the struggle between texts and readers in class terms, other dimensions of the cultural conditions of both encoding and decoding may also be important to mass communication. Thus, a challenge to the linear model of communication involves a parallel challenge to the conception of the text as pre-given and of the audience as a passive recipient. The assumption of passivity is strong in social psychological approaches to the media, although the uses and gratifications tradition had long advocated a more selective and motivated conception of the audience (unfortunately not followed through into a re-conceptualisation of media texts).

Audience reception became a focus for media research during the 1980s and 90s (Livingstone, 1998), drawing on developments in reception aesthetics (or reader-response theory). For reception theorists,
the question was how to legitimate a non-elitist, more interactionist analysis of high culture (Holub, 1984; Suleiman & Crosman, 1980). Emphasis shifted from the structuralist analysis of meanings 'in' the text to an analysis of the process of reading a text, where the meanings which are activated on reading depend on the interaction between text and reader, although the application of this approach to popular or mass cultural forms remains contentious. Further, the media effects question is reconceived in terms of a dialectic between text and reader thus: "a well-organised text on the one hand presupposes a model of competence coming, so to speak, from outside the text, but on the other hand works to build up, by merely textual means, such a competence" (Eco, 1979, p.8). On the one hand, therefore, reception theorists argue that an implied or model reader - an ideal decoding strategy - is encoded into the text, thereby specifying the "horizon of expectations" (Jauss, 1982) or "textual competencies" (Eco, 1979) required to decode the text. On the other hand, the reception context may or may not meet this specification of the ideal reader presumed in the construction of the text, and as with Hall’s theory, actual contingent circumstances provide the interpretative resources --here theorised in terms of textual and extra-textual codes -- available to audiences in practice.

Within media studies, numerous empirical projects have explored the proposed activity of the viewer, typically using qualitative methods to uncover the subtle and context-dependent responses of audiences to specific media texts. For example, Liebes and Katz (1990) examined potential resistance to cultural imperialism (as represented by the prime-time soap opera, *Dallas*) among diverse cultural groups. While their prior textual analysis had stressed such primordial themes as family lineage, property inheritance and sibling rivalry, viewers from different social and cultural backgrounds generated different interpretations of the same
episode: Russian Jews made ideological readings centred on underlying moral and political themes; Americans focused on the personalities and motivations of the characters in making their readings coherent; Moroccan Arabs emphasised event sequencing and narrative continuity (Liebes & Katz, 1990). While each group's reading was clearly constrained by the text, the interaction between diverse cultural resources and a degree of textual openness resulted in divergent readings being made.

While Liebes and Katz were concerned with cultural divergence, Radway (1984) explored the contribution of gender in interpreting media texts. Her analysis of the contrast between the readings of popular romance novels made by ordinary women readers and by literary critics demonstrated how members of different ‘interpretive communities’ read differently, responding to print differently and for different purposes. Other studies have examined different aspects of the cultural conditions of reception, while more generally, audience reception research has generated considerable theoretical and methodological debate, further qualifying and clarifying but not essentially challenging the active role of the audience in making sense of media texts (Livingstone, 1998).

Inherent in the linear model of communication is not only a concept of the audience as passive but also a conception of the function of communication as the transmission of information. Again, this conception is particularly, though not solely, tied to traditional theories in social psychology, where a more influential relative of the transmission approach is the information-processing paradigm in psychology. Traditionally, social psychologists have held that mass communication centres on the flow of information (‘the message’) from sender to receiver in order to inform, influence, or persuade, while the media themselves represent transmission channels, whether these are seen as
accurate or flawed, neutral or biased. As Carey (1989) notes, many of our common metaphors for the media are based on this transmission model - sending and receiving, storing and carrying, coverage and reach - as if symbolic meanings were physical packages to be transported by road or rail to their destination.

As an alternative model, Carey develops a neo-Durkheimian view of communication whose function is that of cultural ritual which supports the social order through the construction of ‘mechanical solidarity’, moments in which all participate in a public ceremony and thus affirm their shared membership of a national or international community. Drawing especially on anthropology, on micro-sociology and on sociolinguistics, he outlines how the media can thus be analysed as generating occasions akin to ceremonies which hold us - producers and consumers of media meanings - in place within a shared culture. While in pre-modern societies, ceremony and ritual serve as liminal moments -- necessary points of reflection, sometime even turning authority on its head (Bakhtin, 1981) -- modern societies increasingly use the mass media for such ritual communication, similarly opening up the potential for reflection on everyday social practices.

Dayan and Katz (1992) apply an anthropological framework to the live broadcasting of 'historic' events such as the Olympic Games, Kennedy's funeral and the British royal wedding of 1981. Without requiring citizens to leave their homes (i.e. while ‘not being there’), the celebration of such ‘media events’ allows for national or even global participation in a potentially transformative ritual whose form and meanings must be negotiated among organisers, broadcasters, public relations experts, technicians, fans, and ordinary readers and viewers at home. This transformation may occur in several directions, a key one of which is the way in which the structures of this new genre -- rhetorical,
symbolic, narrative, and ritual are increasingly shaping the nature and outcome of cultural and political happenings as media events. While the dangers of the manipulation of media events are obvious, as is the notion of these as ‘pseudo-events’ (see the next section), for Dayan and Katz the ritual importance of media events is more interesting for its potential to enfranchise the audience as participants in their culture, providing liminal moments for a society to reflect on, and at the same time to authenticate, its vision of itself. Theoretically, this work has been important for stressing the ritual significance of mass communication in society instead of, or in addition to, their function as transmitters of information. This shift is commensurate with those outlined earlier, for the ritual model presumes cyclic rather than linear communication processes, actively participating rather than passively receptive audiences, and a complex account of media products as text rather than as stimulus, to be analysed in terms of genre, narrative, symbolic codes, and so forth. Whether media events can be shown to have the long-term effects claimed for them (e.g. promoting public debate, shaping the climate of opinion, displacing intermediaries or socializing citizens) remains to be seen, but the more political nature of these issues leads us to the next domain of research, one where the specific role of the media in shaping public participation and public debate has been hotly debated.

Participation in politically-oriented media events raises questions not only about media influence but also about the nature of media contents. As noted at the outset, social psychologists have often assumed that political talk in the media is just like everyday talk, neglecting the specific nature not only of media qua text but also media qua social institution. Are the media just another place where talk is to be found, or is there something special about mediated conversation? Arguments in favour of the latter position arose from the recent debate over the public
sphere, giving rise to a specific body of literature relevant to social psychology as well as stimulating the development of a more general social theoretical account of mediation (see Thompson, 1995).

The debate about the media and the public sphere was prompted by the work of Jurgen Habermas (1969, 1981). Arguing that dominant, institutionally-based, instrumental reason is not capable of generating a critical rational consensus as the basis for legitimation, Habermas is concerned that the very problem of legitimation has been subverted by the media, for these provide the illusion of public consensus rather than promoting actual consensus. His own attempt to construct a theory of communicative action looks to pragmatics for a theory of communication that links theory and practice in the interests of emancipation. In an intellectual climate where post-structuralist theory had rejected the possibility of pragmatic universals (by first defining rationality narrowly in terms of instrumental reason and then arguing that everyday talk and practice could not be seen as rational in these terms), Habermas claims instead that the ways in which people talk in concrete situations have a social significance not because of their constitutive (or discursive) properties but because they make claims to truth. While not necessarily narrowly logical, these claims to truth are pragmatic insofar as they invite the hearer to share knowledge, to trust the speaker and to join in a shared value system. The potential of such a ‘universal pragmatics’ lies in legitimating – i.e. in being seen publically to validate – the production of political consensus within a fundamentally unequal society, a society where the social system has become ‘polluted’ by everyday life and vice versa.

In this context, it becomes clear that the mass media have a key role to play in this process of public legitimation, and therefore that, for example, in principle it is the case that talk on television is not necessarily
‘just talk’. However, Habermas is pessimistic about possibility of today’s media coming close in practice to providing the conditions of open access, unconstrained conversation and consensus-seeking that his theory would require. Instead, he sees the claims to truth, the integrity and the value of utterances on television as reflecting the institutional contexts and constraints of production while simultaneously giving the appearance of spontaneity. This leads us directly back to the question of active audiences. Given the interpretative activity of audiences discussed earlier, the traditional question of whether the audience is duped by this apparent spontaneity has been replaced by the question of whether audiences can combine a positive engagement with ‘talk on television’ with a critical awareness of the institutional constraints within which this talk occurred.

We explored some of these questions in our empirical study of the audience reception of politically-oriented day-time talk shows (Livingstone and Lunt, 1994). In these shows, the moderator or ‘host’ plays an active role in the management of discussion, mediating between expert and lay participants, encouraging certain kinds of talk over others, keeping the conversation fast moving while ensuring contributions from a diversity of participants. Despite widespread cynicism about audiences for such programmes, the viewers were both engaged – in a ‘para-social’ manner - in the debate and, at the same time, they were critical of many aspects of the programmes. Their critical evaluation focussed on the host as manager of the supposedly ‘spontaneous’ discussion, on the experts’ implicit claims to authority, on the degree to which the studio audience is representative of the ‘public’, and on the potential impact such discussion might have for their own lives. While such talk programmes indeed fall short of the consensus-building necessary for a Habermasian rational-critical public sphere they do, however, conform to those alternative conceptions of the public sphere that emphasise the public expression of
diverse points of view and the search for compromise rather than consensus (Fraser, 1990; Negt and Kluge, 1990).

The analysis of media events focuses on major, global communication ceremonies, and the public sphere debate focuses on the possibility of ideal conditions within which rational-critical discussion might occur. However, the majority of mediated discourse is far more ordinary, more everyday and so more diverse than can be captured by either of these approaches. Despite this obvious diversity, in much early social psychological work on the ‘mass media of communication’ the media are regarded, implicitly, as a new version of a very old rhetorical form, that of public address. In other words, as in the speeches and sermons of old, the media are regarded as a source of public pronouncements intended to inform or persuade while the response of the audience is conceived in terms of attitude change. Our final challenge to the traditional model of communication, therefore, is directed to this assumption about the rhetorical nature of mediated communication.

Before the mass media, a large audience could only be addressed if they were gathered together in the same place at the same time. The rise of the press and later, broadcasting, radically altered this requirement, reaching a mass audience bounded by neither space nor time. Thus the advent of the mass media opened up new possibilities for public address that allowed authoritative elites to address a mass audience without the need for co-presence. Rather than analysing media texts in terms of public modes of address -- an elite speaking down to an appreciative but silent audience -- Paddy Scannell (1991) traces how television and radio developed a more conversational model of address -- more personal, more intimate, as if speaking face-to-face. By simulating informal conversation, broadcasting encourages the audience to feel that they are engaged in, or at least overhearing, a conversation rather than that they
are attending a lecture or a sermon. Following the early days of broadcasting, broadcasters realised that there would be resistance to a medium that adopted the register of public oratory but whose reception context was the privacy of people’s homes. Hence the media developed a form of communication that was produced in public but received in private: consequently, ‘the communicative style and manner of broadcasting approximate to the norms not of public forms of talk, but to those of ordinary, informal conversation, for this is overwhelmingly the preferred communicative style of interaction between people in the routine contexts of day-to-day life and especially the places in which they live’ (Scannell, 1991, pp. 3-4).

Empirical work in this area tends to follow either a conversation analytic or a discursive approach, examining talk in particular social settings in order to identify the communication features that make that talk intelligible and bind participants to a co-operative ethic. In broadcasting, for example, they inquire into the devices adopted to create liveness’, that sense of being ‘here and now’. Unlike Habermas’ concerns discussed above, the aim is not to produce a theory of consensus but rather to understand the anterior conditions that make social interaction intelligible and that, for broadcasting, create the sense of ‘taken for granted’ that allows television to insert itself so effectively into the routines of everyday life. Scannell’s *Broadcast Talk* collection contains several useful examples of this work. For example, Garton et al. (1991) use the notion of ‘register’ to show how ‘chat’ (central to much studio-based broadcasting) is characterised by topic shifts towards personal (as opposed to institutional) and private (as opposed to public) discourse, by displays of wit or humour and by opening up the possibility of transgression. Adopting a more conversation analytic approach, Clayman (1991; see also Heritage et al., 1988) demonstrates how the openings of
television news interviews accomplish the ‘staged’ quality of news reporting. In these and other ways, the broadcast media adopt specific linguistic conventions to create a spontaneous, ‘natural’ feel to programmes.

To develop one example, Gamson (1992) that people organise their often lively and well-informed discussion of political events in terms of discernible themes or ‘collective action frames’. These frames are ‘hot cognition’, to be distinguished from other organised belief systems because they are, first, motivated by feelings of injustice, second, they include a subject position which confers meaning onto actions and third, they confer identity onto the actor. Thus for a series of specific issues (concerning, for example, nuclear power, the Arab-Israeli conflict or problems in American industry), Gamson identifies the degree of convergence between these three components found within news media frames compared with lay conversational frames. By contrast with Morley’s study (see above), where audiences are identified broadly as normative, negotiated or oppositional in their responses, and where the oppositional response is implicitly construed as politically resistant, Gamson suggests that only when the specific issue in the news matches the concerns of the viewer, and only when both are framed in terms of these three components (injustice, action and identity) can ‘hot’ beliefs ‘legitimate and inspire social movements activities and campaigns’ (Gamson, 1992, p.7).

Whether one begins with an interest in the linguistic and rhetorical forms of media content analysis (exemplified by the Broadcast Talk collection), or with a social/political problem to be pursued through analysing a specific media form (exemplified by Gamson’s concerns about political participation), these projects represent a considerable advance on the conception of media language and media content typical
of traditional effects research, showing how any reduction of media contents to a straightforward notion of public address greatly underestimates the subtle and diverse structures of media discourse.

2.14. Social psychology of Language and Media

As we have seen, partly in response to the inadequacies of traditional social psychological work on the media, different strands of research within media and communication have rethought the complex relations between media production, media texts and genres, audience interpretation and the discursive contexts of everyday life. Focusing primarily on assumptions about language and communication, we have organised these developments in terms of alternatives to five key elements of the ‘general linear’ model of communication central, in historical terms, to psychology as a discipline. Hence we have explored alternatives to the assumption of linearity in communication, where this is replaced by the notion of complex circulation of meaning with relative autonomy at the different moments in communication networks. Audience response has been elaborated by reconstruing the audience as active interpreters of media texts, making a contribution, therefore, to the construction and reproduction of meaning in society. The earlier emphasis on the media as information transmitters has been replaced by growing interest in media-managed rituals as constitutive of culture. The institutional power vested in the media led to an analysis of how mediated talk - especially on issues of public significance - differs from that of private conversation and yet, as our last section above argued, the media have abandoned the rhetorical form of a system of public address in favour of more intimate, conversation-based generic forms of address which draw the viewer into a shared, if media-managed, culture.

It would be misleading, however, to imply that all social psychologists have adopted the five assumptions about communication
which we have challenged in this chapter, and nor still do all neglect the importance of media and popular culture in everyday life. Indeed, some are now drawing productively on developments in media studies and discourse studies, moving towards a social psychology of the media which treats language and the media in a more explicit and more sophisticated way than hitherto. For example, Michael Billig (1991) analyses the rhetorical construction of the Royal Family in both the mass media and family interviews. This work is strongly influenced by Hall’s assertion of the relative autonomy of culture and by his appropriation of Gramsci’s notion of ‘hegemony’ to explain indirect, symbolically mediated social influence. Billig reveals the ‘ideological dilemmas’ underlying arguments and contradictions he observes in ‘talk about the royals’ (concerning such values as heritage, family, etc). He concludes that in reaffirming the value of ordinary life, such common-sense talk in fact serves a palliative ideological function.

A further prominent reworking of the relation between social psychology and media studies, Teun van Dijk (1991) combines a discourse analysis of prejudice in news media with interviews with ordinary people. Challenged by the pernicious nature of prejudice in modern democracies, van Dijk is concerned with traditional social psychological attitude measures no longer reveal widespread racism. Rather than opting for complacency, he suggests that racism indeed endures, but that the explanation involves a complex relationship between ideology, the public and the press.10 His discursive approach does not lead to a rejection of psychology but instead sees social cognition as mediating between discourse and society. Specifically, he show how the elite views expressed in the media provide the resource from which white people construct models of ethnicity which in turn influence beliefs and behaviour concerning ethnic minorities.
While we lack space to discuss further developments within social psychology, we would direct readers particularly to the following. First, social psychologists working in the reception tradition are developing the text-reader paradigm by theorising the process of ‘making sense of television’ from the viewers’ perspective, to complement the theory of the text as developed within literary and cultural studies (Hoijer, 1990; Livingstone, 1998). Second, researchers working in the tradition of Moscovici’s theory of social representations seek to understand the role of the media in disseminating expertise to the public while also tracing how conversations among ordinary people respond, this feeding into a broader socio-cultural process in which individual beliefs, shared representations and mass media contents are integrated (Doise, 1993). Third, social psychologists following the discourse tradition within political communications: for example, Bull (1998) identifies the linguistic and situational features specific to media interviews which distinguish them from other social situations. In sum, social psychologists from diverse theoretical traditions, using different methods, have responded to the theoretical and empirical challenges of studying the media, thereby opening up the possibility of a new social psychology of the media in which questions of language and interpretation are of central concern. However, this is not a well organised ‘school of thought’ but rather a loose collection of researchers responding in varied ways to the current situation. How can we make sense of this diversity?

John Corner (1999) identifies ‘talk’ as a key debating point in contemporary media theory. While there are many varieties of linguistic/discourse analysis, he divides current work on the media into one of two broad approaches. One, allied to applied linguistics, provides close readings of media discourse, thereby highlighting the often sketchy and informal account of language in media research elsewhere (e.g.
Fairclough, 1995; Scannell, 1991). Despite the sometimes narrowly linguistic focus, this approach is not only interested in technical issues of language deployment but typically has an underlying concern with issues of social relationships and power. Similarly, within social psychology more generally, discursive approaches are increasingly following this linguistic turn, subordinating social theoretical considerations to a relatively implicit commitment to the analysis of power (Potter and Wetherell, 1987). The second approach also offers a more detailed analysis of language than is traditional in media studies, but from a broader, interdisciplinary and social theoretical perspective; thus it trades a less technical or systematic approach to language against a greater stress on social theory and social context (here he cites our book, Talk on Television; Livingstone and Lunt, 1994). Another example is the social semiotics approach (Hodge & Kress, 1988; Jensen, 1995) where both visual and verbal codes are included in analyses linking production and reception.

A key problematic here is the relation between language use and context. Linguistic-centred approaches emphasise indexicality, viewing context as immanent in discourse, and so conducting the analysis of spontaneous speech with a minimum of social and psychological assumptions, no appeal to abstract analytic concepts being required beyond those required to analyse the indexical codes. The difficult of analysing language use in context when it comes to the media is that the possibility that indexicality works better for informal conversations between friends than it does for mediated quasi-interactions and institutionally structured forms of talk. The difficulty of arguing for indexicality for the complex interplay between different forms of knowledge in complex institutional relationships suggests that social
theory is a necessary adjunct to the analysis of discourse (Thompson, 1995).

While the argument over whether an analysis of language alone is enough, or whether a non-linguistic account of the context (institutional, cultural, situational, psychological) must also be included will continue, it is surely clear that the study of language and the media is at the forefront of a revitalisation of social psychological interest in media and communications. A wide range of recent work takes seriously both language in the media and language surrounding the media (among audiences, publics, and elites). While little synthetic work on language and the media has yet appeared in the social psychological literature, partly because disciplinary lines are difficult to draw between social psychology and media studies, the questions, the debates, the methods and the insights are undoubtedly interesting and likely to be productive of further development.

2.15 CDA Approaches

Meyer (2001) introduces a wide range of theories that are borrowed from larger theoretical traditions and adopted as approaches to discourse. Among these are middle-range theories, which focus on society and power and their relation to discourse (Fairclough); linguistics theories, which try to describe patterns of language systems and verbal communication (Wodak); and socio-psychological theories, which focus on the social conditions of emotions and cognition (van Dijk). In the present study I follow Fairclough’s social-discoursal approach. My choice of this approach is because it addresses all levels that are crucial for a fully-fledged analysis of media discourse. The approach considers elements that examine the relationship between text and discourse, on the one hand, and discourse and society, on the other, to arrive at a full understanding of discourse in society. The framework has been widely
employed to analyze media discourse as it draws upon a number of critical social theories and is the most comprehensive framework of CDA. Nevertheless, the study also utilizes some of the features of van Dijk and Wodak’s approaches that would give further insights into the analysis of Arab media discourse during Egypt’s Revolution. In the following I address each of the three theoretical frameworks with a focus on Fairclough’s three-dimensional approach.

2.1 Framework

Conceptual framework is based on three dimensions: discourse, cognition, and society. Discourse analysis under van Dijk’s conceptual triangle involves an interpretation of linguistic aspects of discourse, such as syntax, local semantics, lexicon, topics, etc., while social analysis is concerned with the social context of discourse. He focuses on the relation between discourse and social structure through cognition. Thus, to understand a macro-level social notion such as power and dominance, and a micro-level notion such as discourse, one must consider mental representations that are socially shared and personal models that are based on personal experiences. The construction of meaning will always depend on how these representations and models are cognitively shaped. There are three types of belief under this framework: knowledge, opinions and attitudes, and ideologies. First, knowledge can either be shared by a specific group or be common throughout the society; the latter is referred to as Common Ground Knowledge, which is usually presupposed in discourse and taken for granted. Some factual beliefs are taken to be ‘true’ and taken for granted only within a certain group; outside the group, they are not considered knowledge, but belief. Second, opinions and attitudes are beliefs that are shared on the basis of evaluative criteria (good vs. bad) rather than truth criteria.
Finally, ideologies must apply to many different attitudes in different social domains. They are considered a special type of social belief in that, unlike other social beliefs such as sociocultural knowledge or social attitudes, they are more fundamental or axiomatic. Ideology is central in van Dijk’s framework as it is responsible for shaping mental representations and models that define different groups. They are sometimes shared so widely that they seem to have become part of the “generally accepted attitudes of an entire community” as beliefs, opinions, or common sense. They represent social characteristics of a group such as their identity, values, and resources.

Focuses on the effects of media discourse in formulating models and social representations based on his framework. He explains that the public will largely rely on the media to construct models and mental representations, especially in issues where such personal models are lacking. The diversity of such models and mental representations in a society depends on the diversity of information in mass media. Therefore, access to public discourse is restricted to those who serve the interests and ideologies of media institutions. van Dijk calls those the elite because of their control of text and talk and their preferential and active access to public discourse. He states, “the routines, actors, events, and institutional arrangements in newsmaking are biased towards the reproduction of a limited set of dominant, elite ideologies.

State-run media in Egypt is a symbol of soft power controlled by the ruling elite; it constructs models that reproduce government dominance through the exclusion of other groups. This type of media was especially influential at times where an alternative was not available; the public was only exposed to one narrative that constructed mental representations to serve the interests of one social group. However, with the diversity of information in the media more recently, namely after the
emergence of transnational media, access to public discourse became available to other competing groups, creating different models and different representations of reality and social actors. During the Egyptian Revolution, this diversity was reflected in the discourse of media outlets such as *Al-Ahram* and *Aljazeera*, which represented different ideologies.

Conceptual framework views discourse analysis as ideological analysis; thus, “any property of discourse that expresses, establishes, confirms or emphasizes a self- interested group opinion, perspective or position, especially in a broader socio-political context of social struggle, is a candidate for special attention in such an ideological analysis” employs a number of discourse structures to identify ideologies and reveal group struggles. These discourse structures include: lexical items, propositions, implications, presuppositions, descriptions, semantic moves, and other discourse structures. One of the main concepts in van Dijk’s framework is what he refers to as the Ideological Square which is expressed in terms of emphasizing the positive actions of what a media institution considers the ingroup and deemphasizing its negative actions, while, on the other hand, deemphasizing the positive actions of the outgroup, and emphasizing its negative actions. Thus, the Ideological Square aims to: (i) emphasize positive things about Us; (ii) emphasize negative things about Them; (iii) de-emphasize negative things about Us; and (iv) de-emphasize positive things about Them.

The Ideological Square and discourse structures are employed in the present study to show how *Al-Ahram* and *Aljazeera* identified the ingroup and the outgroup in the struggle between the government and the demonstrators by emphasizing the positive actions of the ingroup and negative actions of the outgroup and deemphasizing the negative actions of the ingroup and positive actions of the outgroup.
2.17 Wodak’s Framework

Wodak’s discourse-historical framework places emphasis, as its name implies, on the historical context and its role in the interpretation of texts. This interest in the historical context evolved from her work on anti-Semitism in 1990. With her colleagues, she found that the historical context was crucial in explaining the structure and function of utterances (Wodak, 1995). Like van Dijk, Wodak argues that discourse involves power and ideologies, and that background knowledge plays a role in the interpretation of a discourse.

Fundamental to this approach is the concept of social critique, which includes three interconnected aspects (Wodak 2001: 64-65):

1. ‘Text or discourse immanent critique’ aims at investigating the internal structures of texts or discourses to discover inconsistencies, (self-) contradictions, paradoxes and dilemmas.
2. ‘Socio-diagnostic critique’ investigates the possibly persuasive or ‘manipulative’ character of discursive practices. In this layer, the analyst relies on his/her background and contextual knowledge within the frame of social and political relations, processes and circumstances. The theory of context is crucial at this point.
3. ‘Prognostic/prospective critique’ aims at contributing in improving communication. This is achieved by elaborating guidelines and proposals for reducing language barriers or avoiding certain language use in different spheres.

Ideological struggle between ingroups and outgroups, under this framework, is discussed in terms of derogation and euphemization. Wodak and Koller (2008: 302) explain that five discursive strategies are involved in ‘positive self-presentation’ and ‘negative other-presentation’: reference/nomination, predication, argumentation, framing/discourse representation, and intensification and/or mitigation.
2.18 Fairclough’s Framework

Fairclough’s framework draws upon systemic functional linguistics (Halliday 1985) which attempts to analyze language based on the social functions it serves (Meyer 2001). Fairclough (1992, 1998) regards language use as a social practice, since discourse is implicated in all various orientations of social practice – political, economic, ideological - without any of them being reducible to discourse. He introduces a three-dimensional discourse analysis framework that aims to connect language “to social and political thought” (Fairclough, 1992: 92) under what he refers to as a ‘social theory of discourse’. The three dimensions of his framework are textual analysis, discursive practices, and sociocultural practices.

2.19 Textual analysis

Textual analysis deals with the structuring, combining, and sequencing of propositions. In interpretive approaches to discourse such as CDA, textual analysis is concerned with both what is present and what is not present in the text because “every aspect of textual content is a result of choice” (Richardson, 2007). It can be organized under four main headings: vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, and text structure. Vocabulary deals with words at the lowest level of analysis; grammar is concerned with a higher level that deals with how words are combined to form phrases and clauses; a higher level is cohesion which has to do with how clauses and sentences are linked together; and text structure deals with large-scale organizational properties of texts.

2.20 Discursive practice

Discursive practice “involves processes of text production, distribution, and consumption, and the nature of these varies between different types of discourse according to social factors” (Fairclough
1992:78). At this stage, analysis becomes discourse analysis rather than textual analysis as it analyses texts in relation to social conditions of production and consumption. Discourse mediates between textual and sociocultural practice by means of shaping ways in which texts are produced and consumed. Understanding texts, particularly media texts, involves more than encoded and decoded meanings that depend on the encoder’s intention; it involves professional practices and organizational routines that “are based in particular social relations, and particular relations of power” (Richardson, 2007: 40).

Explaining the dialectal relationship between producer and text, on the one hand, and text and consumer, on the other hand, Richardson (2007) mentions that a journalist in a particular news outlet may report a news report and an editorial with the same ideological message; however, the difference between these two genres results in encoding the ideological message in different ways. Thus, “the producer shapes the text but the text, and its conventions, shapes its production too” (p. 41). This dialectal relationship also exists between text and consumer. On the one hand, the message encoded in a text shapes the understanding of the decoder; this explains the continuous struggle over controlling the media. On the other hand, readers consume texts with “perspectives, agendas, and background knowledge” (ibid) that contribute to the understanding or misunderstanding of encoded meanings.

Production and consumption of a discourse require an activation of shared mental representations to achieve the highest level of communication. Meaning construction depends on how close or far the mental representations are between the producer of the discourse and its receiver. Discourse production requires the speakers or writers’ awareness of surrounding functions that are associated with the social, historical, and cultural context of the discourse to make themselves
understood, and the interpreter of the discourse, whether listener or reader, employs the same functions to make sense and construct meaning from the discourse; a mismatch in social representations yields communication breakdown. Hall (1980: 54) argues that the meanings achieved through the processes of encoding and decoding depend on the degree of “asymmetry between the codes of the ‘source’ and the ‘receiver’ at the moment of transfiguration into and out of the discursive form.” Also, meaning has an individual, idiosyncratic dimension that draws on personal beliefs and experiences that are responsible for different individual understanding.

2.21 Sociocultural practice

Sociocultural practice means “the social and cultural goings-on which the communicative event is part of” (Fairclough 1998: 311). According to Fairclough, it could be at different levels of abstraction; that is, it may be involved in the immediate situational context, the institutional practice within which the event is embedded, or the wider context of society and culture. He differentiates between three aspects of sociocultural practice that enter into CDA: economic, political and cultural.

The insights of textual and discourse analysis (i.e. the first two dimensions of the framework) are expanded to include the wider society in which the text is produced (Richardson, 2007). At this level the analysis aims at addressing questions pertaining to the text’s resemblance of the society in which it was produced and its role in maintaining or breaking down inequalities in a society as well as its impact on social relations. Critical analysis, which is undertaken under this dimension, involves an ethical and political critique of discourse and depiction of features that contribute to power abuse and social inequality. Similar to discursive practice, the relationship between discourse and society is
dialectical in that discourse shapes society and at the same time is constituted by it.

The three frameworks of CDA presented above complement each other and are similar in many ways; they mainly differ in the emphasis they place over one aspect or the other. van Dijk and Wodak consider ideology central in meaning construction and how different groups consume discourses differently. A comparison between van Dijk’s framework and Fairclough’s framework shows that they both set text and context as main dimensions, but differ in what mediates these dimensions: cognition, according to van Dijk, and discourse practice, according to Fairclough. Wodak and Fairclough share the notion that language manifests and at the same time constitutes social practices. Wodak’s central concept of historical context is dealt with under Fairclough’s intertextual level of analysis.

2.22 Model of Analysis

Drawing on Fairclough’s (1992) theoretical framework that is based on three dimensions: text, discursive practice, and sociocultural practice, the study first examines textual and discursive practice features to analyze the data textually and discursively; the third dimension is the critical analysis which is discussed separately after retaining the details of textual and discourse analysis.

The choice of textual and discursive practice features that are examined in the study was based on the findings of an initial pilot study that showed that three textual strategies and two discursive practice strategies provided the most interesting results. The tools for textual analysis include: lexicalization and predication, presupposition, and verbal processes, and for discursive practice: intertextuality and topics. In the following I shed light on each of these textual and discursive practice features.
2.23 Lexicalization and predication

The analysis of lexicalization involves studying the denotations and connotations of lexical items. Such analysis is significant because “words convey the imprint of society and of value judgments in particular” (Richardson, 2007: 47). Since two or more expressions do not convey exactly the same meaning, or at least have different connotations, “vocabulary encodes ideology, systems of beliefs about the way the world is organized” (Fowler, 1987: 69). A classic example of the interrelation between lexicalization and ideology is the use of 'freedom fighter' vs. 'terrorist' (Kress, 1983).

Naming, or referential strategy, is one of the lexicalization strategies used in media discourse. It refers to the ways in which social actors are referred to which “can signal the type of relationship between the namer and the named” (Richardson, 2007: 49). Reisigl and Wodak (2001) explain that referential strategies establish an identification of ingroups and outgroups through membership categorization devices. Fowler, Hodge, Kress, and Trew (1979: 200) state that “the different possibilities [of naming] signify different assessments by the speaker/writer of his or her relationship with the person referred to or spoken to, and of the formality or intimacy of the situation.” The ingroup is often described in detail, while the outgroup is marginalized by providing little or no detail in their description. Members of the ingroup are also sometimes referred to using terms of politeness that “indexes a particular social status” (Blommaert, 2005: 11).

The analysis will also focus on predicational strategies which “appear in stereotypical, evaluative attributions of positive or negative traits and implicit or explicit predicates” (Wodak and Meyer, 2001: 27). Reisigl and Wodak (2001: 55) identify specific forms through which predications are realized which include: forms of reference, attributes,
predicates or predicative nouns / adjectives / pronouns, collocations, and explicit comparisons, similes, metaphors and other rhetorical figures. Labeling implies categorization based on ideological grounds and also involves a dichotomy between the ingroup and outgroups. Thus, describing different social actors negatively or positively gives insights into group affiliations.

Relevant to the distinction between the ingroup and outgroup in terms of referential and predicational strategies is van Dijk’s ‘ideological square’ which is based on positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation; thus, positive referential and predicational strategies are associated with Us and negative ones are associated with Them.

2.24 Presupposition

Presuppositions are what encoders treat as common ground and are known by decoders. In making presuppositions a speaker/writer asserts the content of the utterance and considers it unchallenged and taken for granted. Wodak (2007: 214) argues that “presupposed content is, under ordinary circumstances, and unless there is a cautious interpretive attitude on the part of the hearer, accepted without (much) critical attention (whereas the asserted content and evident implicatures are normally subject to some level of evaluation).” Therefore, an analysis of presuppositions reveals encoders’ beliefs as well as what they want their recipients to take as a given.

Fairclough (2003) distinguishes between three types of presuppositions, or what he calls assumptions: existential, propositional, and value-laden. Existential assumptions are about what exists; propositional assumptions are about what will happen; and value-laden assumptions are about what is considered right or good. Ideological presuppositions are value-laden as they make judgments and express values.
Richardson (2007: 63) lists four linguistic structures as cues to presupposed meaning – he attributes the first three to Reah (2002): first, words such as change of state verbs (stop, begin, continue) or implicative verbs such as (manage, forget). For example, the sentence 'The government continued suppressing the protesters' presumes that the government used to suppress the protesters. Second, the definite article ('the ----) and possessive articles ('his/her ----) indicate presuppositions. For example, 'the Egyptian Revolution' presupposes that the Revolution exists and acknowledges it. Third, 'wh-questions' also indicate presuppositions; for example, a question like 'Which group is responsible for destruction?' presupposes that there is destruction. Fourth, adjectives or nouns that are used to quantify nouns also trigger presuppositions. For example, in the sentence: 'the old way of suppressing protesters,' employing the adjective 'old' presupposes that protesters used to be repressed.

Levinson (1983) adds other presupposition cues like referential expressions, factives, and cleft sentences. As to referential expressions, the use of the expression *inciters* in 'The inciters of the protests were arrested' presupposes that there were inciters. The classic example for referential expressions is 'The King of France has/hasn’t talked to Jane' which presupposes that the King of France and Jane exist. An example of factives is 'Ghonim regrets the killing of innocent protesters' which presupposes that protesters were killed, and also involves sympathy with those protesters as they are described as innocent. Finally, cleft sentences are employed to trigger presuppositions by focusing on the agent and taking the action for granted. For example, 'It was the security forces who started the clashes' presupposes that there were clashes.
### 2.25 Verbal process

Halliday (1994) states that experiential meanings are represented by different processes in the transitivity system. Under his system of transitivity, Halliday identifies six process types: material process, behavioral process, mental process, verbal process, relational process, and existential process. Relevant in this section is verbal process which relates to “any kind of symbolic exchange of meaning” (Halliday, 1985:129). Halliday (1994: 140) identifies three participants in a verbal process: the Sayer, the Receiver, and the Verbiage – the function that corresponds to what is said. To clarify this, consider the following example that is further explained in Table 2-2:

Barack Obama, the US president, said the move was the beginning, not the end, of the transition to democracy in Egypt. (*Aljazeera English*, Feb. 11, 2011).

An analysis of verbal processes in media discourse is important in that it shows how reporters utilize verbal processes to emphasize certain meanings and marginalize others and push readers’ understanding of verbiage to a certain direction. Thus, verbal processes not only introduce what is said, but also reveal the reporter’s attitude toward what is said. As Fowler (1991: 231) put it: “Critical analysis should pay particular attention to how what people say is transformed: there are clearly conventions for rendering speech newsworthy, for bestowing significance on it.”

Chen (2004, 2005) developed a comprehensive analytic tool of verbal processes. She classified verbal processes into three sub-types: positive, negative, and neutral. Examples of positive verbal processes include: pointed out, announced, explained, declared, indicated, and urged; negative verbal processes include: denied, claimed, admitted,
insisted, and complained; and neutral verbal processes include: said, told, described, asked, and commented (Chen, 2004).

In the present study, I examine how different verbal processes – positive, negative, and neutral – played out in the discourse of the two media outlets during the Egyptian Revolution. The analysis ought to reveal how reporters encoded their experiences and understanding of reality and their attitudes toward Sayers representing different sides of the conflict. The claim is that the consistent use of a type of verbal process, whether positive or negative, with a particular group is a trace of the reporter’s stance toward that group and, hence, the outlet’s ideology about the antagonists.

2.26 Intertextuality

“In its simplest form” Blommaert (2005: 46) explains “intertextuality refers to the fact that whenever we speak we produce the words of others, we constantly cite and recite expressions, and recycle meanings that are already available.” The analysis of intertextuality falls under the second dimension of Fairclough’s framework: discursive practice. Fairclough distinguishes between two types of intertextuality: manifest intertextuality, overtly drawing on previous texts, and constitutive intertextuality or interdiscursivity, which means that texts are composed of heterogeneous elements: generic conventions, discourse types, register, style. Analyzing how reported speech is selected and included in texts is an important aspect of manifest intertextuality.

2.27 Previous Related Studies

In this section the researcher presents a review of previous related studies. It is very important because it helps people to communicate each other and help people to tackle knowledge deeply.
2.27.1. Shrouq Hamad Al Maghlouth (2012) This thesis examines the discourse on social change in women-related posts on Saudi English-Language blogs written between 2009 and 2012. These posts discuss a number of reformative measures that took place during that period in order to allow for greater women’s empowerment in Saudi Arabia. The thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter One introduces briefly the thesis while Chapter Two offers a relevant literature review relating to critical discourse analysis, feminism, social change and online/digital discourse. This is conducted with special focus on the socio-cognitive approach as the main framework adopted in the analysis and its emphasis on cognitive context models and their role in the change/status quo struggle. Chapter Three lays the theoretical foundation upon which this thesis is based as well as the methodology it adopts in data selection, collection and analysis. For data analysis, a sample of forty posts has been collected on five different topics: women in politics, women and the driving ban, women in non-traditional work environments, women and sports, and gender segregation. Using a three-levelled analysis, the posts at hand have been examined from textual, intertextual and socio-cognitive perspectives. The textual level consists of four linguistic parameters: social actor representation, process type analysis, evaluation and metaphor. The intertextual levels target intertextuality and interdiscursivity while the socio-cognitive level ties in all these descriptive findings to offer interpretations and insight into relevant mental representations. In light of this, Chapters Four to Eight examine the posts thematically and based on the five topics identified earlier. Finally, Chapter Nine offers conclusive cumulative evidence and a discussion of the overall findings. The findings show a clash between the use of grammar and lexis, with social actor representation and process types often suggesting different mental representations from those
conveyed through evaluation and metaphor. Women are, to a large extent, represented as lacking in agency and power despite the fact that their relatively restrictive status quo is evaluated as negative and change is conceptualised as positively evaluated metaphorical movement and liberation. In fact, this detailed analysis reveals that representing the clash between supporters of change and their opponents appears to be the central focus, even at the expense of women and their representation in discourse.

2.27.2. Miss Pornjan Duanprakhon (2012) This study is a critical investigation of the language used in the front page headlines of popular newspapers in Thailand regarding news that involves physical violence committed by young people. The purposes of this study are to discover the discursive features of the language used in the news headlines; to expose the ideology of news practitioners reflected in the headlines; and to expose the social identities of the teenagers that these headlines construct in society. There were 97 front page headlines used as the data of this study. These headlines were collected from three well-known popular Thai newspapers: Thairath, Daily News, and Khom Chad Luek. The data were collected from January - December, 2012. The main frameworks of this study are based on two theories: Critical Discourse Analysis or CDA and Sociocognitive Approach or SCA. The analysis section is divided into 3 levels: sociocultural practice, discursive practice, and text. This study applied the CDA framework of Fairclough and the SCA framework of van Dijk to analyse sociocultural practice and discursive practice. The notion of van Leeuwen’s representation of actors: references, Machin and Mayr’s representation of actions: transitivity, verbs, circumstances, and Richardson’s lexical choice are all applied in the textual analysis section. The results show that there are 10 discursive
features in total. 4 of these discursive features function as the representation of the actors of crime events: functionalization, classification identity, relational identity, and appraisement. There are also 4 discursive features representing the actions of crime events: transitivity, transitivity giving vivid images of the violent actions, verbs showing violence, and circumstances. The 2 other discursive features function in lexical choices: metaphor and onomatopoeia. The results also show that the language used in the headlines of the newspapers reflects certain negative ideologies of the news practitioners, as well as constructs some negative social identities of the young offenders. Moreover, the analysis of sociocultural practice and textual analysis reveals some consistent and inconsistent aspects.

2.27.3 Hugh Tyrwhitt-Drake (2005). This thesis offers a critique of Norman Fairclough's critical discourse analysis (CDA) and suggests an alternative approach to doing CDA. In the first half (Chapters 1-5), I set CDA in context and examine some of the major theoretical issues that it raises. A consideration of two of the eponymous elements of CDA, criticism and analysis, highlights both the moral, emancipatory tone of much work in CDA and the privileging of interpretation. The assumptions that characterize much of this work are discussed largely wanting. A consideration of some of the problems with the central categorical apparatus of Fairclough's CDA leads into a discussion of the role of tradition, orthodoxy and values in the analysis of discourse. Aspects of Karl Popper's critical rationalist approach are introduced as a means of strengthening the theoretical basis of the endeavour. The bulk of the second half (Chapters 6-9) comprises four case studies, in which research work conducted in political, media, colonial and institutional discourse is evaluated, and textual analysis of the type I propose carried out. One of the central tenets of mainstream CDA, the claim that textual
tension, or ambivalence, is evidenced by generic hybridity, is critiqued and challenged. It is believed that a CDA which includes more rigorous linguistic analysis and which is more sensitive to the context in which texts are produced is commensurate with a reinvigorated discipline that values and promotes intellectual excellence while heeding the voices of the participants.

2.27.4. Minavere Vera Bardici (2012) Recent years were marked by a major transformation in human and social communication, owing to the advances in ICT and thus social media technologies. Social media have introduced new communication practices, provided newfound interaction patterns, created new forms of expressions, stimulated a wide civic participation, and so forth. They are rapidly evolving and their significance is increasing while their role is changing in social and political processes. Moreover, they are increasingly becoming an instrumental approach to, and power for, social change due to their potential in bringing new dynamics to its underlying processes such as public mobilization. Indeed, more recently, they played an important role in what has come to be known as the Arab Spring. Particularly, in the recent Egyptian revolt, social media, such as Facebook, Twitter and YouTube, have been transformed into effective means to fuel revolt and bring about political transformation. This marked a victory for social media and corroborates that they are an enduring resource for the successful mobilization of bottom-up, grassroots movements and leaderless collective actions. This, in turn, has stimulated discussions about their impact on political change, giving rise to a new discourse, what might be identified as ‘social media for social change’. This discourse is gaining an increased attention in the media and the academia: many journalists and authors talk and write about it. Particularly, research and publications by journalists emphasize the fundamental role the online
media play in the reproduction of the role of social media in the Egyptian revolution and political change. The aim of this study is to establish, by means of a discourse analysis, how and with what purpose in mind, the online media report on – represent – the relationship between social media and the Egyptian uprising and political transformation, a social relationship that seems to be overstated and constructed in various ways by different journalists. This critical reading reveals what is undervalued, overvalued and excluded, as well as the intersection between the media discourse, subjects and ideology. To achieve this aim, the discourse analysis approach was used to examine the set of selected media texts. The media representation is deterministic as to the role of social media in the Egyptian revolution and political transformation, i.e. it exaggeratedly depicts the power of social media by describing the Egyptian revolution as a Facebook revolution. It also tends to be rhetorical and exclusionary. The event of the revolution and the reality of political change in Egypt are far more complicated than how it is reconstructed by most journalists. Further, it plays a role in constructing a positive image of different corporate players, namely Facebook, Twitter and media companies, as well as in constituting their identities. A great highlight is given to represent these actors. In addition, the media representation does ideological work. It sustains and serves corporate power as well as advances ideological claims. This discursive research enhances the current understanding of the phenomenon of social media in relation to revolution and political change, although the findings may not be generalizable.

2.27.5. Minavere Vera Bardici (2013) Based on the title of this thesis which is *Critical Discourse Analysis of SBY’s Speech*, it is known that the data used is a speech of SBY, in this case is the speech which related to the bombings on Jakarta at that time. In a speech there is a relationship between language, power, and ideology. Therefore Critical
Discourse Analysis (CDA) is conducted which aims to describe language, power, and ideology of SBY’s speech that is used about the Jakarta bombings. The analysis of this thesis based on theory of CDA and its analysis method which were represented by Thomas N. Huckin. Whereas the discussion used descriptive qualitative research method which deals with data that are in the form of word, rather than statistics and attempts to arrive at a rich description of something systematically. It starts by analyzing some features in the text as a whole. Then, it is continued by analyzing some features in sentence-level and word-level. Since it is a critical discourse, therefore those features are analyzed critically. In fact, it is found the deficiency in analyzing each features based on speech of SBY. The last is by doing contextual interpretation, it is summarized about how language, power, and ideology that is used in SBY's speech. The interpretation is also based on the results from the two previous analyses. The result shows that CDA can explore the relationships among language, power, and ideology. Through the language used, it can be known the strength of power and the purpose of the speaker, which the power is strongly felt and the ideology is clearly seen as well as understandable.

2.27.6. Ida Jensen, Ida Koch Jakobsen, Lonnie Helene Pichler (2016) In the light of the 2016 American presidential election, the thesis uncovers underlying discursive structures in Hillary Clinton’s presidential campaign discourse. This is done through the use of the theory and methodology of Critical Discourse Analysis and corpus linguistics. The specific aim is to identify elements of gender references, persuasive techniques and social inclusion and exclusion. The primary analysis (with focus on Clinton’s Campaign Launch Speech from June 2015) shows that the campaign launch discourse relies heavily on constructed frames, such as the family frame and the battle frame. Furthermore, gender references
are marked by implicitness, and Clinton performs both stereotypical masculine and feminine genders. Also, we found elements of rhetorical tools of persuasion as well as examples relating to George Lakoff’s family models in American politics. As for social inclusion and exclusion, Clinton’s use of pronouns revealed her attitude towards her supporters and opponents alike. The secondary analysis is a corpus-based analysis with focus on comparing selected aspects from the primary analysis. Finally a discussion of the analytical findings concludes the thesis. According to our results, it might seem that Clinton’s main purpose of her campaign discourses is to construct a narrative of herself as President of the United States of America, and additionally, she pushes the boundaries of the historical perception of the American presidency in regards to gender.

2.27.7 Kayvan Shakoury (2018) Critical Discourse Analysis studies of communication in political contexts have scrutinized the use of language by politicians striving to win public opinion and votes. Utilizing Teun A. van Dijk’s framework for political discourse analysis, this thesis examines linguistic features in eight addresses of Iranian Presidents, Hassan Rouhani and Mahmoud Ahmadinejad, to the United Nations General Assembly. The study described in this thesis combines micro-level text analysis (following 25 discursive devices introduced by Van Dijk, 2005) with a macro-analysis focusing on the dichotomy of ‘positive self-representation’ and ‘negative other-representation.’ The data analysis demonstrates that President Rouhani made more use of the discursive devices ‘consensus’, ‘illustration’, ‘hyperbole’ and ‘polarization’, whereas President Ahmadinejad employed more frequently ‘lexicalization’ and ‘vagueness’. The comparison of the speeches by two presidents at macro-level shows that Rouhani relied more on ‘positive self-representation’ and Ahmadinejad on ‘negative
other-representation’. The results of the study also show that the two presidents convey different viewpoints on most topics covered in the eight UNGA addresses although their ideological stances on a few topics, such as world Zionism and the occupation of Palestine, seem quite similar.

2.27.8. *Daria Lombardi* (2018). This thesis is a critical investigation of the language used in online news headlines to report the Stoneman Douglas High School shooting, which took place on February 14, 2018 in Florida, United States. By analyzing 50 online news headlines, published by five of the most popular national and local news outlets, the purpose of this study is to understand how the words chosen by the journalists contribute to creating particular meanings, or representations of the event, and if through these representations any hidden ideologies are put forward. The framework used to carry out the research combined Fairclough’s critical discourse analysis with van Dijk’s sociocultural approach, resulting in the study of three different but interrelated elements of discourse: sociocultural practice, or the social and cultural context of gun ownership in the U.S.; discourse practice, hence the processes behind the production of online headlines and the cognitive processes behind their interpretation; and finally, a linguistic analysis of the text itself. The analysis found that, despite the anticipated neutral stance of news journalists, dictated by professional values such as integrity and objectivity, hidden meanings and ideologies necessarily transpire in the language used to describe the violent event, and to represent victims and attacker.

2.28 Summary of the Study
In sum, the present study widely adopted framework in CDA studies; second, it emphasizes the discursive and social in addition to the textual. Thus, it addresses meaning from different perspectives providing a comprehensive understanding of textual features. Nevertheless, the study also utilizes concepts from other CDA frameworks. The study aims to reveal how media discourse was textually and discursively utilized at times of crisis to sustain unequal relations of power in a society.

Chapter Three
Methodology

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe the methodology and the data that the researcher used to conduct this study. The description includes method of the study, data collection, material, sample and tools of analysis.

3.1 Method of the Study

The study adopted Critical Discourse Analysis as a method of this study. A close qualitative critical discourse analysis of the headlines of all the news reports in the sample was conducted to uncover the ideological underpinnings of reports on the news sites. The analysis focused on the ideological connotations of grammatical representation of agency, lexical choice, scripts and their associations. This study makes use of several types of content analysis layout analysis, structural analysis, and thematic analysis to investigate the presentation and content of the language versions of the CNN website. To analyze the layout, the interfaces of version was compared and described, with number of potential reports. An analysis of report refresh rates was conducted by dividing the total number of actual reports by the total another on the page was also tracked over time. The rate of repetition for the reports that occurred more than once was also analyzed. A quantitative analysis of basic structural features in the English versions was conducted. The average lengths of reports, headlines, blurbs, leads, and captions were calculated for the top stories. Additionally, the sources of each report were identified and counted. Moreover, since some reports contained more than one story, the frequency of stories per report was counted. Image frequency per report was also counted, and the sources of images were identified. The average length of captions accompanying the images was also calculated.
The researcher conducted an analysis of regional coverage. For this analysis, main categories were developed: Arab and non-Arab. The category of non-Arab was further subdivided into first world, second world, and third world. Independent of this, the researcher also coded the coverage of each non-Arab report as Muslim or non-Muslim.

3.2 Data collection
The primary data for this study are selected top stories collected from CNN website from January first, 2009 to November 30th, 2011, the main news pages of versions were downloaded twice a day, in the morning and in the evening. The full reports for the top stories linked to from the sites were also collected twice a day during the same period. Top stories are defined as stories that appear near the top of the page and that are accompanied by photographs. The site has a section dedicated to top stories. After excluding repeated reports, the sample consisted of 114 English reports totaling 38,078 words.

3.3 Material and Sample
The research material of this study consisted of 2789 online stories covering selected stories from CNN sites during 2009 to November 30th, 2011. A systematic research sample of 154 news stories was drawn and coded from the news outlets: Every 10th story was coded for CNN. When selecting the sample, if the story was not clearly about CNN, then it was skipped and the following article in the population was selected.

3.4 Tools of Analysis
In this study, the researcher analyzed the data using tools model for CDA consists of three inter-related processes of analysis. These three dimensions are:

1. The object of analysis (including verbal, visual or verbal and visual texts).
2. The processes by means of which the object is produced and received (writing/speaking/designing and reading/listening/viewing by human subjects).

3. The socio-historical conditions which govern these processes.

Each of these dimensions requires a different kind of analysis:

1. text analysis (description)
2. processing analysis (interpretation)
3. Social analysis (explanation).

3.5 Summary of the Chapter

As mentioned, all the data are from the CNN website which is a website that gathers all American news. By adopting Critical Discourse Analysis as a method of this study it will became clear that the data will be analyzed from the broadest to the narrowest pieces of news in order to outline a more comprehensive framework.

Chapter Four
Data Analysis, Results and Discussions
4.0 Overview

This chapter presents and analyzes the textual feature of the CNN website. The first part of the analysis focuses on the occurrence of textual feature in the news discourse of CNN, particularly on the use of direct, indirect speeches and scare quotes in the news text. Background information on the occurrence of direct speech, indirect speech and scare quotes in the news text are provided to foreground the use of intertextuality. The second part of the analysis focuses on the analysis of various voices in the news articles.

As the CNN has actually become an important source of news, distinctive features of form and content are used, which make CNN different from other traditional types of news. This is an attempt to analyze how the news writers in CNN use the reported speech in the news articles to pursue their ideologies and power. In other words, it attempts to investigate and examine how writers use the forms of reported speech (direct/indirect) to seek their ideological purposes. Examining the reported speech provides more information about the relationship between language, ideology and power in the News Websites of CNN.

The analysis sheds light in understanding the importance of textual features in the news articles of CNN. Analyzing of direct/indirect reported speech and scare quotes in the news articles is of vital importance which is frequently used by news writers either to enhance or distort facts by giving their own interpretation of reported events and issues.

The analysis of the news articles in CNN are divided in two parts. The first part focuses on the use of ‘reported speech’ in each article while the second part focuses on the reported ‘voices’ of the United Nations, Israel,
Palestinian and the voice of Palestinian authorities. The analysis examines how the voices are recontextualized (direct/indirect reporting) to find out if there is a link between the reported voices and the way writers reported the ‘original words’ quoted directly from the speakers. Moreover, the analysis also focuses the examination of voices included in relation to other’s voices and in relation to the news writers’ voice. The analysis also includes whose voices are included and whose voices are excluded.

The news articles cover three significant issues related to the Palestinian-Israeli conflict: The first two articles cover the Goldstone’s Report on War Crimes, while the second two articles cover the Israeli attack of the Turkish flotilla in the international water of the Mediterranean sea in May 2010 and the last two articles cover the ‘Palestinian Statehood Bid’ at the United Nations in September 2011. Such selected news articles for the analysis of textual features vary in length.

4.2 Critical discourse analysis of CNN distinctive features of form and content.

From the following critical discourse analysis there are distinctive features of form and content used, which make CNN different from other types of news. The differences that exist between direct and indirect reported speech and the way the writers quoted the words of others are given more emphasis in this study. By taking a simple analysis of the news text, it can be deliberately noticed how the voices of the Israeli officials were directly reported and indirectly reported as shown in table (4-1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Speech</th>
<th>Indirect Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CNN 1:</strong> &quot;They are not peace activists. They were not messengers of goodwill,&quot; Daniel</td>
<td><strong>CNN 2:</strong> But Israeli officials described the boat's passengers as the aggressors and said the soldiers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of direct speech is evident in CNN 1 as shown in Example 1 in which the news writer directly quoted the statement, "They are not peace activists. They were not messengers of goodwill." The reported speech was attributed to Daniel Carmon, Israel’s deputy ambassador at the United Nations. Obviously, the writer has placed quotation marks on the statement made by the Israeli ambassador and consequently signifies that the news writer quoted or reported the original words of the Israeli Ambassador. It can be said that situating the quotation marks over the reported speech of the Israel ambassador implies that the news writer has separated the voice of the Israeli ambassador from his own voice. Hence, situating the ‘quotation marks’ over the reported speech helps to figure out whether speech is directly or indirectly reported.

In CNN 2, the news writer indirectly reported the voice of the Israeli officials. The indirect reported voice of the Israeli officials provides the reader with a thorough description of the passengers of the flotilla. The given description of the flotilla was reported as it was the Israeli Officials own description. In CNN 2, the news writer has reformulated the words of the Israeli officials and reported them in the news article as they were theirs. Therefore, it is assumed in such case that the writer may have reported the speech of the Israeli officials in accordance to the way that he (news writer) sees that it pursues his own purpose or ideology.

In CNN 2, the news writer reported indirectly the voice of the Israeli officials that describes the passengers of the flotilla as ‘aggressors’. It
implies that the writer attempts to justify the Israeli attack of the passengers of the flotilla. Thus, in order to support the indirect reported voice of the Israeli officials, the news writer included directly the voice of the Israeli ambassador who also describes the passengers as "They are not peace activists. They were not messengers of goodwill," By including directly the Israeli ambassador’s statement, the news writer successfully supported his argument that attempts to justify the Israeli attack of the flotilla.

Apparently, what distinguishes an article from another is the number of voices that are incorporated in the news articles textual features. However, it does not mean that the more news writers used the ‘reported speech’ in the news articles the higher numbers of peripheral ‘voices’ can be found.. CNN news writers draw more attention to other voices. It is noticed that people and institutions incorporate different voices. There are four external sources in CNN’s news articles textual features represented in The United Nations Human Rights Council, Goldstone’s report, Palestinian Authority and Goldstone.

Table 2 shows the textual features of an ‘institution’ - United Nation Human Rights Council (Henceforth UNHEC) in the news articles on Goldstone’s report. The textual features of UNHEC were included in the news article of CNN’s as shown in table (4-2)

**United Nation Human Rights Council:**
The United Nations Council for Human Rights approved a controversial report Friday which accuses Israel and Hamas of "actions amount to war crimes, possibly crimes against humanity" during the December-January war in Gaza. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza ‘war crimes’ report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)

The table showstextual features in CNN news articles on Israeli attack of the Turkish flotilla in terms of the numbers of the people whose voices
are included in the news articles. The news article of CNN draws more attention on other voices. It is also noticed that the voices that are incorporated in the news articles of are different in terms of the people whose voices were incorporated in the news articles. However, there are four external sources in the news article of CNN represented in Israel, Israel Defence forces (IDF)/army/navy, Mahmoud Abbas and Free Gaza movement.

The table shows the voices of Israel in the news articles textual features on the Israeli attack of the Turkish Flotilla. The voices of Israel are included in the news articles textual features of CNN as shown in table (4-3)

| Israel: | But Israeli officials described the boat's passengers as the aggressors and said the soldiers from the Israel Defense Forces were simply defending themselves. (Israel assault on Gaza-bound Flotilla Leaves at Least 9 Dead, CNN, May 31, 2010). |

The table shows news articles textual features of CNN on Palestine Statehood Bid in terms of the numbers of the people whose voices are merged in the articles. CNN’s article draws more attention to other voices news article. It can be noticed that the voices in CNN news articles are different in terms of the people whose voices were merged in the articles. However, there are six external sources in the articles of CNN, represented in Ryad Mansour, Obama, Abbas, Netanyahu, Quartet and Israel. There are voices that appear in in CNN such as Lebanon, IDF, as well as another 6 voices in one article but not in another.

The following example shows the voice of US president Barak Obama in the news textual features on Palestine Statehood Bid at the United Nations. The voice of Obama was included in the news article textual features of CNN as shown in table (4-4)

| Obama: | U.S. President Barack Obama has said he supports Palestinian |
The first two articles from CNN on Goldstone Report on war crimes that issued by the United Nations in the wake of the Israeli war in Gaza in late December 2009. The report was prepared by the South African Judge, Goldstone who accuses of Israel of war crimes against humanity. The report consequently leads to regional and international controversial responses. The strong response comes from the Israel and the United States. Israel condemns the report and considers it an incitement to increase violence in the region (Middle East). The Palestinian Authority on the other side has welcomed the report and considered it a victory added to the Palestinian cause. The role of the news coverage of CNN has significantly appeared. There are four main voices are examined in this part, the voice of the United Nations, Goldstone’s report, Palestinian Authority and Goldstone himself.

The voice of the United Nations/ UNHRC is one of the prominent reported voices in both articles. This part examines the voice of the United Nations in order to see whether the voice informs of the genuine content of Goldstone’s report, on the grounds that the ‘report’ is essentially produced by an international institution of great resonance to the level of the world as shown in table (4-5)

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**CNN:** The United Nations Council for Human Rights approved a controversial report Friday which accuses Israel and Hamas of "actions amounting to war crimes, possibly crimes against humanity" during the December-January war in Gaza.(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)

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At the beginning of the news articles textual features, the news writers in CNN provide general information about the report and the accusation that the UNHRC directed against Israel and Hamas. The news writers open an
argument about the report and the accusation. CNN indirectly reports the voice of the United Nations that accuses Israel and Hamas of “actions amounting to war crimes, possibly crimes against humanity”; while indirectly reported the voice of the UNHRC “accuses the military of using disproportionate force as well as laying charges of war crimes on Israeli occupation forces and Hamas”. Thus, the voice of the UNHRC is indirectly reported in both articles textual features.

One that attracts the attention in this context is the way the news writers in CNN reported the voice of the UNHRC. CNN’s article textual features have described the report as ‘controversial’; it implies that the news writer gives skeptical impression about the content of the report. The description of the UNHRC report generates certain percentage of suspicion in the report which may not reflect the real scene of what exactly happens in the Israeli war in Gaza in 2009. On the other hand, AJE’s news writer gives the real name of the report that was endorsed by the UNHRC as in the statement ‘human rights council has endorsed the Goldstone report on Israel’s war in Gaza’. Consequently, it is assumed that giving the real name of the report in CNN’s attempts to establish credibility that may help the news writer in the arguments he is provided in the rest of the news article.

It is deliberately noticed that CNN’s news article textual features reported the voice of the United Nations as it accuses equally Israel and Hamas (Palestinian militant wing) of ‘possibly war crimes against humanity’, though the UNHRC’s report has given all the corrosive accusations to Israel as reported in AJE’s news article, ‘the report accused Israel of war crimes and crimes against humanity’. In another time the voice of the UNHRC in CNN’s news article textual features reported indirectly, ‘reserved most of its criticism for Israel’. Noticeably, the news writer in CNN’s article textual features uses the scare quotes to
degrade the accusation against Israel. Consequently, one of the strategies followed by CNN’s news writer in this regard is to eliminate or exclude the voice of the international community when it accuses the actions of Israel against the Palestinians. The inclusion of the voice of the UNHRC in CNN’s news article textual features appears to reprove all the corrosive accusation mainly to Israel, more specifically the Israel Defense forces (IDF), and ‘which accuses the military of using disproportionate force’. In spite of that, CNN reports indirectly that the Goldstone’s report accuses Hamas but not as much as it is directed in the CNN’s. In CNN, the news writer strikingly inserts the description of Israel as an ‘occupation force’ when reporting the voice of the UNHRC. This implies that the news writer in CNN attempts to provide initial image that ‘report’ has investigated inequitable war between the occupier (Israel) and the occupied (Palestinians). In addition, the news writer in CNN inserted the expression to draw a strong image of Palestinian as an occupied people and oppressed by Israel. Obviously, the description of Israel as an ‘occupier forces’ is not stated in the report. However, it is inserted by the news writer. The indirect reporting of voices is manipulated by the news writers. Thus, describing Israel as an ‘occupier forces’ implies that the Israeli war in Gaza is not justified, and in that way, the news writer in CNN attempts to criminalize Israel and at the same time legitimize the Palestinians actions against Israel. This is to say it is a natural self-defense. On the other hand, it is noticed that CNN’s articles reported directly the voice of the prime minister of Israel, Netanyahu who maintains that Israel justifies the war on Gaza which is also identified as a self defense shown in table (4-6)

CNN: "Israel will continue to exercise its right to self-defense, and take action to protect the lives of its citizens." (U.N. rights council backs Gaza
CNN depict the images of Palestinians and Israeli in the news articles through the use of indirect reporting. CNN favours the Israeli and attempts to criminalize the Palestinians.

The voice of the United Nations encompasses CNN’s articles through the inclusion of indirect reporting of the voice of the ‘Report’, ‘Goldstone’s Report’, ‘Resolution’. Thus, this signifies that the news writers in CNN draw their own explanation in reporting the Goldstone’s report on war crimes. This is to say that the news writers use the indirect reporting of the United Nations in the news articles to manipulate the original words that are appropriate to the news writers’ ideological purposes. Taking into considerations readers who encounters news about a report like this, produced by a high status international institution represented in the United Nations would probably assume that what is written is truthfully reported. It is clear how the news writers play an indirect reporting in this context. It becomes clear that the employment of intertextuality plays an essential role in news writing. Hence, in this regard, it is important to stress that the findings that aimed in this study attempt to replicate the direct/indirect reporting of speech/voices reproduce the ideology of CNN. This does not only to convey a sense of authenticity in the description of the event, but to whom the United Nations’ accusation of war crimes against humanity should be directed, whether to Hamas or Israel.

4.3 Critical discourse analysis of textual features that are used by CNN.
From the following critical discourse analysis there are many features in the context of news coverage of the Goldstone’s report, it is important to take into account the voice of the Palestinians and the Palestinian Authority as the case in the report favours the Palestinians. Many experts considered the Goldstone’s report a major shift in Palestinian-Israeli conflict. Particularly, the report strongly condemns and accuses the Israeli of the use of excessive force against the Palestinian civilians in Gaza in 2009.

The news articles textual features of CNN encompass of the voice of the Palestinians using different forms of reporting. However, there is a difference in CNN’s articles where the voice of the Palestinian Authority is included overwhelmingly. However, the inclusion of the voice of the Palestinian Authority in the news article of coincides with the inclusion of the voices that glorify and support the United Nations’ report. The news writers in CNN attempt to blame the Palestinian Authority for withdrawing the report. Therefore, the news writers include the voices which glorify the report and at the same times include the voices that condemn the Palestinian Authority for the withdrawal of the report. This includes the voice of CNN’s correspondent that comments on the UNHRC’s report saying that the report, ‘very strong victory’ for Palestinians. There is also an inclusion of the voice of Hamas who blames the Palestinian Authority for withdrawing the report.

Israel is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-7)

\[ CNN:"The adoption of this resolution by the UNHRC impairs both the \]
effort to protect human rights in accordance with international law, and the effort to promote peace in Middle East. This resolution provides encouragement for terrorist organizations worldwide and undermines global peace”. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza ‘war crimes’ report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)

The table shows through the inclusion of the voice of Hamas in the news article of CNN, the news writer attempts to give an international political legitimacy to Hamas. On the other hand, CNN’s news article obviously excludes the voice of Hamas fearing that including its voice would give Hamas an international legitimacy. Therefore, it is obvious that the news writer in CNN’s article includes the voice of the Palestinian Authority as it is the only internationally recognized and legitimate representative of Palestine. The news writer tends to exclude the voice of Hamas, although Hamas is considered a dominant Palestinian political party. Excluding the voice of Hamas also seemingly turns back to the unfavoured attitude of Hamas toward Israel as Hamas refuses in many occasions to recognize Israel as a state. It should be noted that from the outset of the article, CNN goes on dropping the rug out from under the report by describing the report as “a controversial”, in that way, it implies that CNN is questioning the report’s credibility

Israel is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-8)

**CNN:** The United Nations Council for Human Rights approved a controversial report Friday which accuses Israel and Hamas of "actions amounting to war crimes, possibly crimes against humanity" during the December-January war in Gaza. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).

The table shows CNN puts Hamas and Israel equally together in the same dock. However, it is noticed that the voice of Hamas is directly reported to welcome the report in the news articles of other channel while the voice of Israel is directly reported to condemn the report in CNN’s
articleIsrael is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-9)

**CNN: The Palestinian Authority government of Mahmoud Abbas supported the report.** That government does not rule Gaza, which is controlled by Hamas. *(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).*

CNN initially reported indirectly the voice of the Palestinian Authority that implies that the Palestinian accepted and supported the report as shown in table (4-10)

**CNN: The Human Rights Council received the report September 29, but took no action, after a request by the Palestinian Authority to defer discussion for six months.** *(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).*

The table shows the Palestinian Authority requested the United Nations to delay the voting and discussion of the report for six months.

The indirect reporting of the voice of Palestinian Authority in CNN’s news article implies that the news writer attempts to give an image of the Palestinians as uncertain and hesitant regarding the approval of the Goldstone’s report that condemns and accuses Israel of committing war crimes in Gaza. Thus, the news writer of CNN’s article tends to generate doubts in the credibility of the report by including the contradicted voice of Palestinian Authority.

The inclusion of the direct reporting of the voice of the Palestinian within the indirect reportingIt should be noted that from the outset of the article, CNN goes on dropping the rug out from under the report by describing the report as “a controversial”, in that way, it implies that CNN is questioning the report’s credibilityIsrael is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-11)

**CNN: Abbas reversed course this past week and, in a televised address, told Palestinians that he was seeking immediate debate within the council**
and vowed to work "to punish everyone who was responsible for the hideous crimes committed against our children, our men and women -- especially in our dear Gaza." (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).

The table shows that the news writer of CNN’s article elegantly merges the voice of the Palestinian president who calls for an investigation in the crimes committed in Gaza. The news writer does not specify who must be punished for the hideous crimes. The news writer inserts “especially in our dear Gaza” without showing whether the Palestinian president calls to punish Hamas who dominates Gaza or Israel. The news writer of CNN’s article attempts to give biased interpretations through the use of the direct and indirect reporting of the voice of the Palestinian president. This is to say that Palestinian president probably calls for punishing Hamas as Hamas controls Gaza, but not calling for punishment of Israel.

It is important to note that the news writer of CNN’s article goes far away from the issue which is discussed in the Goldstone’s report. The news writer reporting the voice directly and indirectly the voice of the report that sheds light on the accusations of Goldstone’s report against the Israeli actions in the Palestinian territories in West Bank. Instead it reflects the real issues discussed in the report such as accusations of Israel of committing war crimes in Gaza.

It should be noted that from the outset of the article, CNN goes on dropping the rug out from under the report by describing the report as “a controversial”, in that way, it implies that CNN is questioning the report’s credibility. Israel is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-12).

CNN: The Goldstone report goes beyond the Gaza conflict, "strongly condemns" measures taken by Israel limiting Palestinian access to their properties and holy sites "on the basis of national origin, religion, sex, age or any other discriminatory ground." It further condemns "Israeli
violations of human rights in Occupied East Jerusalem, particularly the confiscation of lands and properties, the demolishing of houses and private properties, the construction and expansion of settlements, the continuous construction of the separation wall, changing the demographic and geographic character of East Jerusalem, the restrictions on the freedom of movement of the Palestinian citizens of East Jerusalem, as well as the continuous digging and excavation works in and around Al-Aqsa mosque and its vicinity. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).

The news writer of CNN’s article put a lot on the voice of Israel which depicts the image of Israel as oppressed and that the international decisions against Israel can be deemed as biased and unfair. The news writer reporting indirectly the voice of Israel, ‘Israel rejected the resolution, calling it "one-sided,"’ as shown in table (4-13)

CNN: Israel rejected the resolution, calling it "one-sided," and noted there were fewer favorable votes Friday than when the council voted to set up the Goldstone mission. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)

Israel rejected the Goldstone’s report and the resolution that were issued by UNHRC and condemns Israel of war crimes against civilians in Gaza. Consequently, the ideology of the CNN’s news writer becomes obvious in this regard. The news writer tends to include the voice of Israel to show that Israel is an oppressed country, while excludes the voice of the Palestinians who are in reality held under the oppressions of Israeli occupation. Such depiction of images of Israeli as an oppressed and always the victims of others’ actions are pervasive in the news articles of CNN. On the other hand depictions of images of Palestinian as victims and oppressed tend to be pervasive in the news articles of other channel. CNN news writer tends to report directly the voice of the Israeli Prime Minster, Netanyahu who shows prejudice to the countries that favor the
resolution that condemns Israel of war crimes. The news writer attempts again to discredit the resolution by reporting indirectly the voice of Israeli Prime Minster. It should be noted that from the outset of the article, CNN goes on dropping the rug out from under the report by describing the report as “a controversial”, in that way, it implies that CNN is questioning the report’s credibility. Israel is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-14).

CNN: "The adoption of this resolution by the UNHRC impairs both the effort to protect human rights in accordance with international law, and the effort to promote peace in Middle East. This resolution provides encouragement for terrorist organizations worldwide and undermines global peace”. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)

The direct reporting of the voice of Israel in CNN’s article depicts the image of Israel as an oppressed state consequently the resolution urges and supports the acts of terrorism against Israel. The resolution it can a motive for terrorists to continue killing more Israelis. The news writer attempts through direct reporting to show that Israel is always in danger and it has the right to defend itself. The news of CNN writer tries to legitimize the Israeli actions against Palestinians in Gaza. The readers may interpret that what Israel did in Gaza was an exercise of self-defence as Israel claimed many times that it was attacked by militant groups from Gaza.

The voice of the UNHRC’ is reported indirectly in CNN’s articles textual features. The voice of the report in CNN considers the Israeli violations dramatically located only in the West Bank. Even reporting went far to explain exactly the violations in order to give the reader an impression that such violations are tantamount to a crime against
humanity as stated in the report. It should be noted that from the outset of the article, CNN goes on dropping the rug out from under the report by describing the report as “a controversial”, in that way, it implies that CNN is questioning the report’s credibility. Israel is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-15).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CNN: It &quot;strongly condemns&quot; measures taken by Israel limiting Palestinian access to their properties and holy sites &quot;on the basis of national origin, religion, sex, age or any other discriminatory ground.(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CNN: It further condemns &quot;Israeli violations of human rights in Occupied East Jerusalem, particularly the confiscation of lands and properties, the demolishing of houses and private properties, the construction and expansion of settlements, the continuous construction of the separation wall, changing the demographic and geographic character of East Jerusalem, the restrictions on the freedom of movement of the Palestinian citizens of East Jerusalem, as well as the continuous digging and excavation works in and around Al-Aqsa mosque and its vicinity.” (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CNN’s news writer attempts to delete and ignore the large part related to the Israeli war in Gaza, which is the center of the Goldstone’s report topic. The indirect reporting plays an important role in the news articles as it gives enough space and freedom to the news writer to manipulate distort and even delete the unwanted expressions which are not considered to go with writer’s ideological purposes.

The articles cover the Israeli attack on the Turkish Flotilla that carries humanitarian aids and heading to Gaza. The purpose of the flotilla as mentioned earlier is to break the Israeli siege imposed on the Gaza.

Israel imposes the siege on Gaza after Hamas took control of government in Gaza. The Hamas government in Gaza refused to recognize the state of Israel. The Gaza siege was followed by an Israeli war. During this period, international attempts to break the siege start to take place. The most significant attempts are represented in the Turkish flotilla that sails
toward Gaza. The attempt is faced by an Israeli attack which in turns aggravates the international situation and left strong impact on the regional situation in the Middle East especially after the tension between Israel and Turkey.

The news writers in CNN’s articles argue about the first performer of the attack on board the Turkish flotilla. The readers are not yet sure who must be accused of performing the first attack. Whether the Israelis or the humanitarian activists. The news writers of CNN’s article obliterates all the disputes that try to accuse the activists of performing the first attack, and argue through the use of direct and indirect reporting of the voices that Israel should be accused of performing the first attack on board the flotilla. On the other hand, the news writer of CNN’s article obliterates all the disputes that accuse Israel. Through the use of direct and indirect reporting of the voices, the news writer attempts propose his arguments which imply that the activist is the one who performed the first attack. Obviously, the news writers attain this via the clever disputes prototypes and the exploitation of ‘reporting verbs’ and through the use of different reported forms of reporting as mentioned earlier.

The Israelis’ voice is represented in the voice of the Israel Defence Forces (IDF), the Israeli officials and the Prime Minister of Israel is reported directly and indirectly in CNN. The excerpts extracted from the CNN’s article It should be noted that from the outset of the article, CNN goes on dropping the rug out from under the report by describing the report as “a controversial”, in that way, it implies that CNN is questioning the report’s credibilityIsrael is the one that is condemned as directly reported in CNN as shown in table (4-16)

**CNN:** "They are not peace activists. They were not messengers of goodwill," Daniel Carmon, Israel's deputy ambassador to the United Nations, told reporters in New York. "They cynically used the guise of humanitarian aid to send a message of hate and to implement violence."
From the outset of the news article of CNN, the news writer reported indirectly the voice of the Israeli officials describing the passengers of the flotilla as ‘aggressors’ as shown in table (4-17)

The indirect reporting of the voice of the Israelis, which gives descriptions of the passengers of the flotilla, signifies that the news writer of CNN attempts to justify the Israeli attack of the flotilla. The news writer includes the voice of the Israeli ambassador, Daniel Carmon at the United Nation’s who describes the passengers of the flotilla as not peace activists and not having goodwill, and “They are not peace activists. They were not messengers of goodwill," Throughout the CNN’s article, it can be said that the news writer reports directly the voice of the ambassador and other Israeli officials to strengthen his arguments that draw the accusations of the attack on the activists but not on the Israelis as shown in table (4-18)
The news writer of CNN’s article attempts to use direct reporting of the voice of the Israelis to give a horrific image of the people whom the Israeli navy dealt with on board the flotilla. Thus, the news writer attempts to justify the Israeli attack on the flotilla, though in reality, the flotilla was still sailing in the international water.

The ideology that the CNN’s news writer attempts to pursue in terms of the exposure and stereotyping that the Israelis are innocent and that their actions against others should be explained under the excuse of self-defence. CNN’s news article reports indirectly, “Israel Defence Forces were simply defending themselves”. The reported voices describe the peace activists as stated by the Israeli Defense forces as shown in the excerptas shown in table (4-19)

| CNN: But the Israel Defense Forces said its troops "were met with premeditated violence, evident by the activists' use of clubs, metal rods, and knives, as well as the firing of two weapons stolen from the soldiers." It said troops responded with "defensive action on behalf of the forces who felt their lives were endangered," and seven were wounded. (Israel assault on Gaza-bound Flotilla Leaves at Least 9 Dead, CNN, May 31, 2010). |


The following articles cover the Palestinian statehood bid at the United Nations. Israel and America reject the step and the U.S government has promised the Palestinian bid to be faced with a veto. America and the ‘quartet’ called the Israeli and the Palestinians to go back for face to face negotiations. The Palestinian insists on having a membership in the United Nations claiming that they have already got recognition of Palestine as an independent state from 139 countries. The Palestinians statehood bid leaves strong impact on the situation in the Palestinian territories and the international relations.

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4.4 CNN modifies textual features and presentation according to the audience it addresses.

The analysis shows textual features and presentation in the CNN’s article as shown in table (4-20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CNN: Though the debate is expected to be largely symbolic in the face of a promised American veto, the permanent observer of the Palestinian Authority to the United Nations, Riyad Mansour, held out hope prior to Monday's Security Council meeting that the bid would be accepted. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011)</th>
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In CNN’s article, the news writer attempts to give an image of the situation which signifies that the Palestinians embark a grave mistake by attempting to requesting for a membership in the United Nations, “Though the debate is expected to be largely symbolic in the face of a promised American veto”. The news writer attempts to underestimate the Palestinian statehood bid as he argues it would be faced by an American veto in the Security Council. In addition, the news writer attempts to give a stereotype prevailed image that the Palestinians refuse to have peace talks with Israel and that the Palestinian statehood bid is one-sided attempt. It also implies an image that the Palestinians are undoing the chances for peace with the Israel.
CNN’s news writer reporting directly the voice of the ambassador of Palestine at the United Nations, “We hope…” in which it gives an image of the Palestinians as defeated and that the position of the Palestine statehood is weak. The Palestinian statehood bid depicts as symbolic because it is promised to be faced with a U.S. veto. Reporting directly the voice of the Palestinian ambassador saying, "We are ready to govern ourselves", implies that the CNN’s news writer gives impressions that cast doubt on the ability of Palestinians to build their own state. This demonstrates that the news writer of the CNN’s article undermine the rights of Palestinian to establish their independent state.

On the other hand, what attracts the attention in other channel’s news article and contradicts the images that were convoyed in the CNN’s news article textual features, is the indirect reporting of the ambassador of Palestine at the United Nations, whose voice was reported directly in CNN. The ambassador’s voice is included in CNN’s news article to depict the images of Palestinian position (statehood bid) as weak despite the large number of countries that recognize the Palestine as independent state.

Consequently the writer gives a great importance to the application submitted by the Palestinians as shown in table (4-21)

| CNN: The time has come for a "Palestinian Spring" to join the Arab Spring in reshaping the Middle East, he said. "My people desire to exercise their right to enjoy a normal life the rest of humanity." But Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu, later taking his turn to address the General Assembly, said Palestinians are looking for a "state without peace," ignoring security concerns important to Israel. (UN Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011) |

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CNN: Palestinian Authority President Mahmoud Abbas made the bid for the United Nations to recognize an independent state of Palestine on Friday; a move Israel says is premature without direct talks that address its longstanding security concerns. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011)

On the contrary, CNN article textual features have to deal with negatively by trying to marginalize the issue on the Israeli’s needs for peace. Through indirect reporting, the voice of Israel describing the move that the Palestinian president, Abbas made in the United Nations, a move threatens the security of Israel, “a move Israel says is premature without direct talks that address its longstanding security concerns.” Thus, this gives the stereotype image that the news coverage of CNN always gives emphasis on rights of the Israeli above all Palestinians’ rights. The writer tries to confirm that all the attempts that Palestinian make should initially take inconsideration the security of Israel.

CNN writer gives unclear and a narrow space to the voice of the Palestinian president, Abbas. Reporting the voice from Abbas, quoted from the speech he delivered in the United Nations that calls the Palestinians for an ‘Arab spring’ in Palestine. “The time has come for a Palestinian Spring…" neutralizes that the CNN writer tries to avoid mentioning the real issue represented in the calling for Palestinian statehood membership in the United Nation. Hence, it manipulates the truth, it diverts from the real issue represented in the statehood bid. Consequently, the writer gives an image that Palestinians are mainly calling for a revolution, a “Palestinian spring”, but not a state. Furthermore, CNN reported directly the voice of the Palestinian president saying "My people desire to exercise their right to enjoy a normal life like the rest of humanity” demonstrates that Palestinians only want to live a
decent life. However, the producer of the text does not specify what revolution Palestinians are calling for. Again the writer excludes the real voices which imply the real needs of the Palestinians. Throughout the raised issues in this regard, the writer is designed to push the reader away from the main Palestinian demands and needs the application for membership of independent Palestinian state in the United Nations as shown in table (4-22)

CNN: But Israeli Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu, later taking his turn to address the General Assembly, said Palestinians are looking for a "state without peace," ignoring security concerns important to Israel. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011).
CNN: He said Palestinians are armed not only with their "hopes and dreams," a phrase Abbas had used in his speech, but with "10,000 missiles, and Grad rockets supplied by Iran, not to mention the river of lethal weapons flowing into Gaza." (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011).
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CNN: If that occurs, Israel "will be the first" to recognize Palestinian statehood, the prime minister said. Abbas' move prompted a call from the Middle East "Quartet" for new peace talks intended to come up with a breakthrough by the end of next year. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011).

CNN’s reports the voice of the Israeli Prime Minister, who gives harsh words for the Palestinians “Palestinians are looking for a state without peace,” ignoring security concerns to Israel”. He described that the Palestinian step is on the right track and accuses the Palestinians of putting Israel’s security at risk. “Palestinians are armed not only with
their "hopes and dreams," a phrase Abbas had used in his speech, but with "10,000 missiles, and Grad rockets supplied by Iran, not to mention the river of lethal weapons flowing into Gaza." The writer wants to give the reader a contradictory image to that described by the Palestinian ambassador in the United Nations. He shows that Palestinians are not actually ready to govern themselves, and thus the writer tries to reduce the assumptions that the Palestinians are able to establish their own independent state lives in peace with Israel.

CNN’s article also included the voice of the Prime Minister of Israel as a representation of power. It is evident in that "Palestinians should first make peace with Israel and then get their state”. The power of Israel implies that Israel steers the issues on the ground, and thus it gives an image that the Palestinian statehood bid is fruitless unless given an approve from Israel. It won’t serve the Palestinians as Israel decides in this matter. In this case, the writer hits two birds with one stone: first when he reports directly the voice of the Prime Minister of Israel pledging a state for Palestinian with peace for Israel. In that way Israel compromises the Palestinian state with peace which gives an image that Palestinians refuse peace talks with Israel. CNN writer continues by including the voice of the Prime Minister who continues compromising Palestinians to recognize the state of Israel as ‘a Jewish state’ in order to be given a Palestinian state adding that peace must arrive through a two-state solution that recognizes Israel as a Jewish state which gives an impression that Palestinians are dragging their heels in giving the right of Israelis and therefore the writer wants to confirm the Israelis’ power and at the same time it implies that that Israeli is always the victims in spite of the fact that Israel is occupying Palestine. The writer continues to include the voice of the Israeli’s Prime Minster that Israel "will be the first" to recognize Palestinian statehood to impose and confirm the conditions that
Israel put for Palestinians in order to get their independent Palestinian State. The voice reports indirectly through the use of scare quotes. This intends to impose power on the Palestinians and give them a clear image that any attempt of this would be a failure unless it passed through ‘us’, Israeli. CNN writer warns the Palestinian that to go an extra mile with any applications will fail unless they agree on conditions made by Israel. Following the inclusion of the Israeli voice, CNNs follows by using indirect reporting of the voice of the “quartet” that calls for the Palestinian president to start peace talks with the Israeli. Abbas' move prompted a call from the Middle East "Quartet" for new peace talks to come up. This gives an impression that the international community condemns the Palestinian move towards having a seat in the United Nations. This implies that the Palestinians always call for peace though the international community which directed the accusation to Israel always put the obstacle in front of any attempts to go for peace talk with Palestinians. What is also striking here is that the writer has given a free space for including the voice of the Prime Minister of Israel as shown in table (4-23)

<table>
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<th>CNN: On Friday, a Palestinian was killed and 17 were wounded in clashes with Israeli settlers and Israeli forces in the village of Qusra, Palestinian officials reported. The Israel Defense Forces said they had gone to the village after receiving a report that settlers and Palestinians were hurling stones at each other; when they arrived, about 300 Palestinians began attacking the IDF soldiers, who responded with riot-control methods and live fire. The IDF said it was investigating the incident. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26,2011).</th>
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their car drove off the road near the settlement of Kiryat Arba. The Israeli police and IDF initially treated the incident as a routine road accident, but an examination of the body has led them to reassess that view. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011)

The writer describes the image of the Palestinian as violent and still not ready for peace with the Israelis. The Israeli Prime Minister distorts the Palestinians image and which demonstrates that the Palestinians are not ready for having an independent state to live in peace side by side with Israel as shown in table (4-24).

CNN: "We confirmed he had been injured as a result of being struck in the head, which probably caused him to lose control of the car; this indicates to us the strong possibility that he was struck by Palestinian stone throwers in an act of terrorism," police spokesman Micky Rosenfeld said. The Palestinian Authority's Ministry of State, which records violent acts by settlers against Palestinians, said the number of violent incidents raised between September 18 and 24. The ministry cited an incident in Qusra, where olive trees were set afire and stones thrown at cars carrying Palestinians. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011)

CNN: U.S. President Barack Obama has said he supports Palestinian statehood but reiterated a longstanding U.S. position that Israel must be part of the discussions. (U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26, 2011)

The voice of the U.S. President is included indirectly in CNN’s article which stresses that the Palestinian and Israeli must get involve. However, the writer wants to confirm that the biggest country of the world is
standing side by side with Israel. On the other hand, in other channel, the writer gives bad impression of the United States. other channel reported indirectly the voice of the USA that threatens the Palestinians of a veto “although a vote on the historic bid is not expected for weeks or even months, the use has threatened to veto move”. It is clear that the United States stands with Israel. President Obama stresses that the Palestinian move would not serve the interest of both parties, Palestinians and Israeli. It gives obviously a different image of the one given by that indirect report about Obama in CNN’s article favours the Israel. CNN’s article reports the voice of Obama who oppose the Palestinian statehood bid because it may lead to the creation of instability in the Israeli security. This gives also a stereotype that CNN is not neutral in the news coverage of the Palestinian-Israeli conflict. It is also interesting to see other channel’s article which gives an image that the United States claims that the world must look democracy and calling for the right of people to self determination is standing as a stumbling block for the Palestinians.

But what is striking here is that the writer gives an impossible hope for Palestinian to achieve what they want. The writer includes directly the voice of the spokesperson of Hamas, who describes that the steps undertaken by the Authority cannot give the Palestinians what they want as shown in table (4-25).

<table>
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<th>CNN: Hamas, the dominant of two Palestinian political groups, has maintained that neither a U.N. application nor direct negotiations with Israel would provide the Palestinian people &quot;with what they're looking for.&quot;(U.N Security Council to send Palestinian Statehood bid to admission committee, CNN, Sep 26,2011)</th>
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However, the writer does not clearly show the meaning. Therefore, we notice that the absence of a critical vision in the readers leads them to understand that the Palestinian statehood bid is opposed from the overwhelming majority of Palestinians, especially when it is mentioned that Hamas controls the two political parties. In fact Hamas stated that, as "Abbas' emotional speech succeeded in moving people's feelings, but his description of Palestinian suffering is different from reality.". Hamas voice is included in the CNN while excluded in the other channels for ideological reasons. Where believes other channels that it excludes Hamas’s voice as Hamas claims that statehood bid does not help Palestinian and that in turns go against the ideology of other channels that the Palestinian statehood bid is a big issue for Palestinians. On the other hand, CNN excludes Hamas for the reason that to show that the majority of the Palestinians oppose the idea of a Palestinian independent state. At the same time CNN’s writer tries to confirm the image that the majority of Palestinians oppose the Palestinian Authority dialogue’s with Israel. It reflects therefore that a large number of Palestinians do not support to have peace with the Israelis. It therefore the writer turns back by including the voices of others to confirm the same stereotype images that the Palestinians refuse to negotiate and always oppose to the peace process with Israel.

4.5 Verification of the Study Hypotheses

4.5.1 Hypothesis one
As the CNN has actually become an important source of news, distinctive features of form and content are used, which make CNN different from other traditional types of news. The study shows textual features in the news discourse of CNN more specifically, on the use of direct, indirect speeches. And this is clear that hypothesis agree with researcher views

**4.5.2 Hypothesis two**

CNN as a news producer modify textual features and presentation according to the audience it addresses. According to the analysis the hypothesis agree with researcher views.

**4.5.3 Hypothesis three**

There are many textual features that are used by CNN. The study shows textual features in the news discourse of CNN represented in scare quotes in the news text. The hypothesis agrees with researcher views.

**4.6 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter presented and analyzed the study. The first part of the analysis focused on the occurrence of textual features in the news discourse of CNN more specifically, on the use of direct, indirect speeches and scare quotes in the news text. Prior to the analysis of the voices in the news text through intertextuality, background information on the occurrence of direct speech, indirect speech and scare quotes in the news text was provided to foreground the use of intertextuality. The second part of the analysis focused on the analysis of various texts in the news articles.

Chapter Five

**Summary, Findings, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies**
5.0. Introduction:

This chapter is provides a summary of the whole study; it presents findings of the study and recommendations. The chapter finally offers some suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The study aims at investigating textual features in American news media that is used by Cable News Network (CNN) and to examine a corpus of online news articles. The study adopted critical discourse analysis as a method of this study. The primary data for this study are top stories collected from CNN website. The main findings of this study is CNN has actually become an important source of news, distinctive features of form and content are used, which make it different from other traditional types of news.

5.2 Findings of the Study

Based on the results, the study has reached the following findings:

1. The study finding shows that textual features in the news discourse of CNN on the use of direct and indirect speeches.
2. The study indicates that CNN as a news producer modifies the wording and presentation of news according to the audience it addresses.
3. The study demonstrates that CNN includes a large number of Israeli voices which do not give the same space to the voice of the Palestinians.
4. The study finding that CNN has included and excluded the voices of others in the news articles to suit their own ideological purpose.
5. This study finding also the types of reporting (direct, indirect and scare quotes) used in CNN’s news article which play a dynamic and important role in drafting the news articles.

6. The study shows that effectiveness of intertextuality in the news articles of CNN reproducing certain political ideologies.

7. The study shows there is a relationship between the state political, cultural and economical ideologies and the media coverage. As a result, the findings of the study show that the media is a tool in the hands of the politicians.

### 5.3 Recommendations of the Study

Based on the study findings, the study recommends the following points:

1. Language teachers at universities should plan instructions to create positive attitudes towards using media language in academic writing.

2. Language teachers at universities should be made aware of the significance of media language when teaching discourse analysis.

3. Students should be trained in using media language in academic writing.

4. Students should be trained in public and political discourse.

5. Students should attend a course in audiovisual media such as Aljazeera Media Institute.

6. Students should practice intensive exercises in the use of media textual features.

7. Students should familiarize themselves with political discourse.

### 5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies
Based on the study findings, the study suggests the following points:
1. Further studies should be held in CNN to apply other field of linguistics.
2. A similar study should be applied in other channels such as BBC and Aljazeera English.
3. The present study opens horizons for further future CDA research on the media coverage of news.
4. Further, it would be helpful to expand this investigation to include other text types.
5. There is also a need for further study to investigate the content and quality of the texts in a more systematic way.

References


- Weimann, & S. Pingree (Eds.), *Advancing Communication Science: Merging mass and interpersonal processes*. Newbury Park, Cal.: Sage. Weiss,
## Appendices

### Table (4-1)

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**United Nation Human Rights Council:**

The United Nations Council for Human Rights approved a controversial report Friday which accuses Israel and Hamas of "actions amount to war crimes, possibly crimes against humanity" during the December-January war in Gaza. *(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)*

### Table (4-3)

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### Table (4-4)

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**CNN:** "Israel will continue to exercise its right to self-defense, and take action to protect the lives of its citizens." *(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)*

### Table (4-7)

**CNN:** "The adoption of this resolution by the UNHRC impairs both the effort to protect human rights in accordance with international law, and the effort to promote peace in Middle East. This resolution provides encouragement for terrorist organizations worldwide and undermines global peace". *(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)*

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**CNN:** The Palestinian Authority government of Mahmoud Abbas supported the report. That government does not rule Gaza, which is controlled by Hamas. *(U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)*
Table (4-10)

**CNN:** The Human Rights Council received the report September 29, but took no action, *after a request by the Palestinian Authority to defer discussion for six months.* (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).

Table (4-11)

**CNN:** Abbas reversed course this past week and, in a televised address, told Palestinians that he was seeking immediate debate within the council and vowed to work "*to punish everyone who was responsible for the hideous crimes committed against our children, our men and women -- especially in our dear Gaza.*" (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).

Table (4-12)

**CNN:** The Goldstone report goes beyond the Gaza conflict, "*strongly condemns*" measures taken by Israel limiting Palestinian access to their properties and holy sites "*on the basis of national origin, religion, sex, age or any other discriminatory ground.*" It further condemns "*Israeli violations of human rights in Occupied East Jerusalem, particularly the confiscation of lands and properties, the demolishing of houses and private properties, the construction and expansion of settlements, the continuous construction of the separation wall, changing the demographic and geographic character of East Jerusalem, the restrictions on the freedom of movement of the Palestinian citizens of East Jerusalem, as well as the continuous digging and excavation works in and around Al-Aqsa mosque and its vicinity.*" (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009).

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**CNN:** Israel rejected the resolution, calling it "*one-sided,*" and noted there were fewer favorable votes Friday than when the council voted to set up the Goldstone mission. (U.N. rights council backs Gaza 'war crimes' report, CNN, Oct 16, 2009)
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