Political life: one's relative position in hierarchies of power in society

Quality of life: in terms of physical and psychological comfort and health

Type of neighbourhood: a working class neighbourhood, a middle class neighbourhood, an area in the process of gentrification

5. Spatial conditions

Mobility: physical movement (from highly local to global) Proximity to other people during a range of day-to-day activities

Dimensions and size of space occupied: layout of dwelling or place of work, size of bedroom, size of office, etc.

Type of dwelling: trailer, house, flat (studio, small, large), etc.

This working model can help us understand how class and class relations are constituted and indexed in different societies. In particular, it is worth bearing in mind, at all times, the way in which class intersects with a range of identity dimensions, such as race, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, religion, nationality, age and dis/ability (Block and Corona 2014).

Topic-140: Class and CDA research

Class has not been a central focus among CDA researchers. This may be because of the way that class, understood in relational terms, is about being in the world and is therefore taken up by those researchers (usually called 'sociolinguists') who wish to examine activity (e.g. communication) in a situation (e.g., Rampton 2006). Still, in the past several years, there has been an emerging body of research around the analysis of how public policy talk, the media and public declarations by politicians – just to cite three domains of discourse – construct class and class relations. Turgeon, Taylor and Niehaus (2014) provide a good example of how public policy talk can construct class and class relations, as they critically analyse how welfare-to-work programme managers in the United States talk about welfare recipients, using what they call 'classtalk'. The 'classtalk', may invoke a 'culture of poverty' ideology and ignores structural conditions and causes of poverty" (Turgeon et al. 2014). In other words, it is the talk which positions individuals in terms of vague and superficial folk theories, focusing on the surface-

level appearance of the class as opposed to the how and why of its existence. Elsewhere, in an article about how the media construct class and class relations, Eriksson (2015) examines how *Ullared*, a Swedish reality show which focuses primarily on working-class shoppers at a low-budget outlet store, demonises and ridicules the less successful in society. Eriksson adopts two key constructs to help him understand how *Ullared* positions working class people as unworthy. First, there is Skegg's notion of "inscription", as "the way value is transferred onto bodies and read off them, and the mechanisms by which it is retained, accumulated, lost or appropriated" (Skeggs 2004: 13). Second, there is Lyle's notion of the middle class gaze, as a mode of production (symbolic as well as material) which is underpinned by an anxiety about the working classes that has historically entailed the (mis)recognition of the working class as being of lesser value, as particularly suited to specific forms of labour *(Lyle 2008: 320)*.

Topic-141: Class struggles and public discourse

Class warfare may be pursued materially; as in the dispossession and accumulation. But it can also be carried out through the media, as Eriksson (2015) makes clear, and it is a reality in the domain of political speeches and other communications. This is clearly the case in Spain where from the year 2013 onwards a very public discursive conflict, class-based to be sure, arose between the governing party (the conservative *Partido Popular* - PP), a faithful backer of the banks and all banking activity, and the PAH (*Plataforma de Afectados por la Hipoteca*; 'Platform for those Affected by Mortgages'). The PAH is a grass-root organisation which campaigns on behalf of individuals and families who because of unemployment, personal tragedy (e.g., death of a breadwinner) or other events are unable to make mortgage or rent payments and therefore are either threatened with eviction from their homes or are actually evicted. On the organisation's website (PAH 2015), one finds a mission statement in which the class-based nature of the struggle facing evictees is made clear around a contrast between 'they' (in reference to representatives of the capitalist class) and 'we' (the general population and the PAH). The PAH campaigns for 'the recovery of the right to housing in response to a generalized state of housing emergency generated artificially and intentionally by banks and the government'. Evictions normally occur with little or no provision of alternative accommodation and they can be traumatic experiences, at times leading to suicides. In 2013, as it became clear that the government was not going to reform this, the PAH decided to add a new form of protest

to its repertoire. Until this time the organisation's activity had consisted of three primary modalities: Assemblies, which served to provide information as well as legal, practical and emotional support; A webpage, which served as a means of disseminating information; A presence at home evictions, with a view to protesting against them and, where and when possible, preventing them. This is a good example of class warfare as there is an attack on the material well-being of citizens via the actions of the state apparatuses (Althusser 2008), with the political class, the banks, the legal system and the police all playing their respective parts. It is worth noting how, via processes of semiosis (meaning-making), we see a flow of events and phenomena in the realm of the economic base and the sociopolitical superstructure moving into the symbolic realm, where they are created and recreated, presented and represented.

Topic-142: Conclusions

Need for a more class-centred CDA, or in any case for class to be brought to the fore in CDA research which is concerned with materially based inequalities in society. Such a move would mean a fuller embrace of Fairclough's 'radical view' of CDA, and a firmer base in political economy. More of this kind of work than is currently the case. Of course, one big issue is whether or not CDA, given how it has been carried out to date, is actually appropriate to the exploration of constructs such as class, which are emergent in the flux and flow of ongoing social events and activity. In a discussion of the interface of CDA with ethnography, Krzyżanowski (2011: 231) writes of a move towards CDS – critical discourse studies. Stating that while still drawing on some of the CDA's original ideas, CDS clearly reaches beyond the traditional 'schools' or 'trends' of the movement towards more contextually oriented and actor-related types of analysis. A move in this direction seems consistent with Monica Heller's calls for a 'critical ethnographic' approach to the study of language and society issues (Heller 2011). Perhaps a fusion of Krzyżanowski and Heller is what is needed if we are to move towards a more political economy and class-based CDA (or CDS). We also need words that broaden what it means to be a social citizen, beyond the demands of the contemporary Western capitalist economy and the requirement for 'flexible' and 'mobile' labour. Homelessness and chronic health problems cannot be wished away by pronouncements about the need for greater 'self-reliance' and 'self-sufficiency'. A 'work-centred' social order has costs that can only be measured as significant if we acknowledge that the assumption of personal responsibility is

unable to explain all injustices and inequalities. At the very least, it seems unfair to expect individuals to resolve what governments refuse to acknowledge in their framing of the problem. Discourse analysis will remain an important resource in thinking clearly about what is at stake in policy change because it is in the discursive realm that the politics of welfare reform are given meaning and effect.

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Lecture-32

CDA and Educational Discourse

Topic-143: Introduction to CDA and Educational Discourse

Critical Discourse Analysis has gained much popularity in Educational Research in the recent years. According to Rogers (2005), there were only 46 articles published between 1983 and 2005. But in the last 8 years, total 257 articles were published on CDA and Education (Rogers and Schaenen, 2014). Most remarkable is the accelerated publication rate of CDA-inspired educational research. There has been a great trend of conferences, a wide range of publications in books and educational research using CDA published in 140 different journals around the world. **CDA research in education** is presented at the international conference Critical Approaches to Discourse Analysis across the Disciplines alongside of scholarship from **political science**, **sociology** and **legal studies**. Educational researchers from different regions of the world are turning to **CDA** to describe, interpret and explain the relationships between educational practices, institutional structures and societal narratives. For example, from Australia (Kettle 2011), Europe (Martín Rojo 2010), Latin America (Costa and Saraiva 2012). Researchers are studying **formal** and **informal** classroom interactions, educational policies, textbooks and children's literature, and the representation of education in the media. Frequently referenced CDA frameworks are those associated with Gee (2005 [1999]), Fairclough (1995, 2003), van Dijk (1993). According to Rogers (2018), the majority of CDA work in education in the past decade has focused on the **bottom-up** forces of teachers and learners across educational sites making room for transformational practices rather than on **top-down** forces associated with oppression and injustice. The researchers have also highlighted that how racism and anti-racism in educational practices can be studied under the light of CDA. For example, the analysis of an inter-racial alliance between teacher education students contributes to a broadened view of **CDA**, one in which critique is constructive and power is generative.

Topic-144: De/re constructive orientation toward CDA Inquiry

Scholars of CDA have concerned themselves, by and large, with a critique of domination and oppression rather than **the construction of liberation and freedom** (Martin 2004). Understanding the ways in which more just social relations can be constructed through discourse

is vitally important (Kress 2003; Luke 2004; Martin 2004). Foucault (1980) pointed out that **power** is everywhere and is neither inherently good nor bad. He believed that **power** "traverses and produces things, it induces pleasure, forms knowledge, produces discourse. It needs to be considered as a productive network which runs through the whole social body". Fairclough (1995) also understood power as **operating** behind, through and within **discourses**. Yet a large body of scholarship associated with the founding members of **CDA** focused on **deconstructing** how power was wielded over people (e.g., media, politics, neoliberal governments). According to Van Dijk (2005), CDA focuses on the way social power, abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by texts and talk in social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit positions, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality. However, Luke (1995) emphasized on the potential of CDA to operate both **de-constructively** and **constructively**. In their **deconstructive turn**, analysts illustrate how systematic asymmetries of power and resources between speakers and listeners can be linked to the production and reproduction of political and economic interests. In its **constructive turn**, CDA sets out to "generate agency among students, teachers and others by giving them the tools to see how texts position them and generate the very relations of institutional power at work in classrooms, staff rooms and policy". Similarly, Bloome and Talwalker (1997) criticized the top-down understandings of power that predominated much of the early CDA work. They challenged analysts to broaden the conception of power without "diminishing a research and practice agenda that addresses inequitable power relations and the pain and suffering they cause". By 2004, a number of scholars from around the globe were visibly calling for a reconstructive agenda. Martin (2004) referred to this approach as positive discourse analysis which can provide a focus on how people get together and make room for themselves in the world in ways that redistribute power without necessarily struggling against it. The term positive discourse analysis (PDA) was used to signal a shift in analytic focus to the study of constructive forces. Bartlett (2012) wrote that PDA might be viewed as a critical approach to discourse analysis that focuses on solutions rather than problems.

Topic-145: CDA in educational research

Rogers (2016) with her colleagues conducted a review of CDA in educational research from **2004-2012** to study patterns in the field over time. The researchers followed up on an earlier review, which taken together, synthesize almost 30 years of CDA research in education.

They searched five electronic databases from the **years 2004 2012**: ERIC (EBSCO), Article First (OCLC), PsycINFO (American Psychological Association), MLA International Bibliography (Modern Language Association) and Web of Science (Thompson Reuters). One of the striking findings was the tendency of educational researchers to take a **reconstructive orientation** in their CDA work. 66 percent of the studies included some element of **reconstruction** or attention to discourses of learning or transformation. 34 percent of the 242 empirical studies (N = 83) focused their analysis on discourses that sustain inequalities, or took a deconstructive approach. These authors pull apart texts to show how inequity is reproduced. Young (2009) examined a children's periodical. Children and youth positive and inspirational educational material. Her approach to CDA merged insights from Foucault (1972), van Dijk (1993) and Huckin (1995) and examined the "**counter-narratives** or folk literacies that seek to educate within a cultural context". Her findings revealed how historical discourses of race, social class and politics were infused throughout the periodical in the words, images and layout of the text. She showed how **counter-narratives** within the text focus on the development of racial pride, language and culture among the learners. About CDA, some researchers call on van Dijk (1993) and argued that CDA can help to examine how the "interplay between knowledge and structure reveals how people make sense of race; how opinions and memory are biased, and how discourse reproduces domination and thus, white privilege". Ayers (2005) conducted a research on a community college in USA and claimed that the college is a site for reproducing class inequalities that structure life in late capitalism. Concluding that, there have been several researches in recent era which connected Critical Discourse Analysis with education.

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Lecture-33

CDA and Textbooks

Topic-146: Introduction to CDA and textbook studies

Researchers from a wide range of disciplines consider **school textbooks** a unique resource to explore that: which knowledge, or whose knowledge, is of most worth in any given place and time? **Textbooks** are one of the few media which are explicitly oriented to shaping the values, knowledges and subjectivities of the future generation. According to Macgilchrist, **textbooks** result from a complex production process involving various institutions and individuals. Involves multiple compromises among sometimes very different perspectives. **Textbooks** reflect and co-constitute what is collectively accepted as **say-able** in a given time/space. Critical approaches to textbook discourse have helped reconceptualize textbooks as **cultural** and **political practices** (cf. Apple 2000; Provenzo, Shaver and Bello 2011). Within the broad interdisciplinary field of textbook studies, critical approaches foreground the cultural politics of education and of knowledge production. **Textbooks** are **conceptualized** as part of complex processes of addressing the young generation with an understanding of how the world works, what is important, and which ways of living/being are desirable, legible and unquestioned. Two strengths of critical discourse analyses of textbooks are: **first**, their insistence on a research aesthetic of 'smallness' and 'slowness' (cf. Silverman 1999). Semantic, argumentation and lexicogrammatical patterns construct knowledges and address readers as particular student-subjects. **Second**, they draw on textbook discourse to trouble core conceptual issues such as the politics of visibility, the role of individual human agency in combating environmental destruction, or the apparent closure of (dominant) discourse. *Macgilchrist* has mentioned some important points regarding textbooks, for example: To which extent, **textbook design** helps or hinders teaching and learning processes. The history and theory of the material artefact of the **'textbook'**, help to explore the ideology of textbooks in more details. For *Macgilchrist,* there are many ways to map critical approaches to textbook discourse, i.e. looking deeply into racism, nationalism, immigration and other topics in textbooks. Secondly, by focusing on systemic functional linguistics - SFL, social semiotics or Critical Discourse Analysis. *Macgilchrist* has highlighted that how the findings of different researches speak to the

construction of knowledge, the theory of knowledge and the fragility of knowledge constituted in and by textbooks.

Topic-147: Constructing textbook discourse

The core sociological categories of **exclusion** and **marginalization** are important which have been discussed in the following studies: Textbook analyses identify gender inequality (Barton and Sakwa, 2012), consumerist discourse (Taki, 2008), nationalist discourse (Bolick et al., 2013) and the denial of racism (Binnenkade, 2015). Historical discourse analyses highlight, e.g., authoritarian Fascist discourse in Franco's Spain (Pinto 2004). According to Rogers & Stanton (2014), in the USA, history textbooks frame indigenous peoples as passive. The findings of Chu (2015) show that the dominant HAN GROUP dominates primary-level textbooks, and portrays the text in stereotypical way against **minority groups**. Similarly, in Spain, Muslims are essentialized within the category of immigrant, in particular within the history of immigration (Arqué, Luque and Rasero, 2012). Taking these cases together, the critical discourse analysis of textbooks illustrates how in various contexts, the **dominant societal** group marginalizes a **minority group**. Metro (2011) shows how different ethnic groups in Burma fuel inter-ethnic animosity, and how one group produces books that devalue the other ethnic group. Agiro's (2012) analysis of **American Literature textbooks** used in Christian education points to discriminations along a range of categorizations: 'race, ethnicity, gender, social class, and physical and mental ability'. In Spain, during Franco's regime, civics textbooks included the topics such as etiquette, gender, religious and class hierarchies (Pinto, 2013). Overall, these studies connect various aspects of social diversity, arguing that **textbooks** maintain the dominant social order, inviting readers to support the social, economic and political status quo. Xiong's (2014) eco critical discourse analysis of English language textbooks in China finds a prevailing 'shallow environmentalism'. The books do address environmental topics to raise awareness of ecological destruction, they do not reflect on the underlying economic, cultural and political issues, nor do they encourage students to actively participate in transformative ecological practice. In Sweden, 'eco-certified' citizens are trained through educational-content that how to maintain sustainable development in order to keep the community and planet healthy. And their educational content contains technological-development and mathematical operations. Overall, the studies focus on the semantic content of textbooks, While often **contextualizing** the content

in curriculum and policy debates, and embedding the textbooks within broader cultural discourse or classroom practice. These **critical analyses** are motivated by the goal of finding out whether this kind of discourse is (still) being produced and offered to the young generation, And what kind of impact that could have on shaping society by, e.g., **maintaining power hierarchies** and supporting marginalizing or discriminatory practices.

Topic-148: Theories of knowledge in textbook discourse

Macgilchrist has foregrounded fine grained linguistic analyses of some studies that show how writing in the disciplines construes particular **epistemologies**. Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and **multimodal analysis** are the central points for this approach. **SFL** highlights the role of naturalization, nominalization, authorial voice and cause-and effect relations in history textbooks (Achugar and Schleppegrell 2005; Gu 2015); and explores a range of genres in medicine (Macdonald 2002) and the sciences. **Multimodal meaning making practices** have been explored in, for instance, history, math, the sciences and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Bezemer and Kress 2010; Derewianka and Coffin 2009; Guo 2004; Liu and Qu 2014). Against this backdrop, explicitly critical analyses have taken particular issue with the language of history education. In the analysis of **grammatical metaphor** and **transitivity** in a history textbook in Colombia, Moss (2010) argues that the textbook presents 'a deterministic view of history which precludes the possibility of change as a result of human intervention' (2010). Martin, Maton and Matruglio (2010) explore the function of '-isms' (e.g., colonialism, nationalism, socialism) in history textbooks. They argued that when it comes to the mediation of '-isms' in educational settings, 'both epistemology (definitions and oppositions) and axiology (values and attitudes) matter' (2010). Adopting the 'right' values is what measures one's legitimacy (or lack thereof) as a 'knower' in the field of history. Oteíza and Pinto (2008) focus on how contemporary textbooks engage with Allende's socialist government in Chile and the military coup in 1973 that led to Pinochet's dictatorship. She finds that, through their explicitly objective language, Chilean textbooks offer explicit and implicit evaluative judgements throughout the texts. By naturalizing history, for instance, and describing events as if 'things just happened', they imply that the coup was a necessary solution to the instability of Allende's government. Overall, the textbooks produce a **'conciliatory discourse'**, emphasizing consensus and social stability. These analyses foreground not only the content of how politics are

represented, but also the epistemological issue of how disciplinary discourse constructs particular ways of knowing as legitimate. For history, this includes ways of conceptualizing time and causation, subtle forms of evaluation, the *anthro-pomorphisation* of countries, and attributions of agency and passivity.

Topic-149: Ethnographic discourse analysis

Macgilchrist considers ethnography as a 'way of seeing'. Furthermore, it is an onto-epistemological approach that highlights human interactions which occur on daily basis (Wolcott, 2008) that can give a set of methods for tracing the tangles and messiness of our daily doings. It is also a way of constructing narratives which the ethnographer hopes will resonate with other situations. This may be a way of seeing to explore specific discourse analytical questions, such as the construction and fissuring of hegemonic formations. Macgilchrist prefers to speak about **'ethnographic discourse analysis'** (Macgilchrist and van Hout 2011). In order to conduct his research, Macgilchrist has drawn on 18 months of fieldwork from 2009 to 2011. Fieldwork included interviews, informal chats, discourse-based interviews and participant observation in production meetings in which author teams discussed manuscripts for **textbooks** and other **educational media**. The latter led to over 200 hours of recorded meeting talk. For a deep critical analysis, Macgilchrist followed some textbooks from conception to publication.

Topic-150: Textbook production practices

Macgilchrist has taken an example from Germany to make the concept of Textbook Production and CDA clear. According to him, **Textbook Production Practices** includes the following specifics:

1. Curriculum: Each of the 16 federal states in Germany has its own education system, including its own curricula. His research shows that content is being controlled while textbook production. Because curricula in Germany are currently, as in much of the world, orienting away from required content and towards required competencies.

2. Secondly, most federal states in Germany require textbooks for politics to go through a **formal approval process**, including anonymized reviews from teachers and a final review from the federal state's Ministry of Education.

3. Thirdly, publishing houses follow previous versions of the books during textbook production, i.e. in the production of **Politics I,** 70% of the material was to be taken from previous versions. For the remaining 30% they could write their own texts and select their own materials. The authors' task was primarily to select content from other books and adapt it for their state curricular guidelines, i.e., to put the pages in a new order to meet the curriculum topics, reformulate tasks and headings, update out-of-date information, etc.

4. Fourth step in the textbook production is: Out-sourcing which means the book's editor was self employed. He was not paid for his hours, but received a fixed sum for finalizing Politics I. Outsourcing editing goes hand in hand with other cost-cutting initiatives and expectations of increased efficiency.

According to *Macgilchrist,* meetings of the authors are also important in these steps in order to their overall approach and to decide who would write each chapter, twice to discuss manuscript drafts. Each author can read all chapters and give feedback during production meetings. If there are different authors of one book, there is a possibility they may have different political opinions which can be a hurdle in textbook production. For this, the political opinions voiced by both authors could be described as liberal/conservative, matching the politics of the state government as the book was being produced. Overall, this list highlights several entangled practices, giving the authors a certain amount of authorial freedom, and also tying them tightly to federal curricula, corporate economies and local politics.

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Lecture-34

CDA and Media Studies

Topic-151: Introduction

According to *Phelan* (2014), **media scholars** had already been doing a kind of critical discourse analysis before "CDA" became an established identity. In one of his studies, Fairclough (2004) has focused on the importance of the concept of **discourse** to the emergence of media studies in the 1970s and 1980s. According to *Phelan's* the discussion of CDA and media can come under the guise of mass communication, communications or communication studies. **Media studies** examines the political, social, economic and cultural implications of individual mediums like newspapers, television and radio, and their combined power and authority as "the media". Yet, on the other hand, the boundaries and location of media studies is not so straightforward; consider, for instance, how different nominal entities – politics, economy, identity and so on – are increasingly conceptualized as **"mediated"** or **"mediatized"** objects (Livingstone 2008). The salient point here – one at the heart of the relationship between **critical discourse analysis** and **media studies** – is that we cannot understand the discursive constitution of society independently of the structural, and structuring, dynamics of large-scale and micro-scale media. *Phelan* has organized his discussion into four sections. He first reflects on the **emergence of CDA** as a distinct approach in the 1980s and 1990s, especially as it resonated with the theoretical division between political economy and cultural studies in **media studies**. Then he considers how CDA has been applied and critiqued in **media research**. In the third section, he discusses **future possibilities** of media discourse studies, in ways that go beyond the notion of a prescriptive **CDA paradigm**. In the last section, he ends with an empirical illustration that, informed by his own work on neoliberalism (Phelan 2014), explores how we might reimagine ideology critique of media discourses**.**

Topic-152: Media studies and historical emergence of CDA

In media domain, Fairclough (1995) thinks that the influence of cultural studies is discernible more generally in **CDA research** – in affirmations of the importance of critical media literacy, the politics of knowledge, and the concepts of hegemony and ideology, and in the

desire to critically intervene beyond the academy. Yet, with some exceptions, the links to **cultural studies** have not been especially prominent in CDA and, sociologically, **"cultural studies"** and **"CDA"** exist as quite separate scholarly universes (Allan, 1998). This divergence of traditions can, in one sense, be prosaically explained. CDA **emerged** through the work of linguists based at linguistics department, who, whatever their interdisciplinary ambitions, still needed to publish their work in journals with credibility among linguists. Their scholarly habitus was attuned primarily to the **theoretical** and **analytical concerns** of their home discipline. However, the demarcation of CDA and cultural studies invites a more speculative explanation, especially if we privilege a media studies assessment of CDA. Fairclough's desire to combine **post-structuralist** and **Marxist political economy** insights necessitated constructing a theoretical identity that had to avoid seeming too close to either. One of the plausible reasons for the popularity of CDA among media scholars in the 2000s was its currency as an **"analytical toolkit"** that promised neophytes (this author included) an immediate answer to the question of "what method or methodology are you using?" Conversely, given the negative stereotypes associated with the concept of discourse, we might say **CDA researchers** needed to proactively establish credibility among political economy researchers. Cultural studies scholars would have needed little convincing about the importance of discourse. However, political economy scholars represented a more skeptical audience. Fairclough's valorization of the Marxist concept of **"the dialectic"** was therefore rhetorically significant, because it signaled a desire to avoid the charge of discursive reductionism. His subsequent embrace of the term **"cultural political economy"** (Fairclough 2006) was similarly telling. Those who assert the label in **media studies** tend to be political economy scholars and, in some cases, proponents of a "critical realist" approach (Deacon et al. 2007). The work of Richardson (2007) is important in giving Fairclough's (2002) "language of new capitalism" research programme a stronger "materialist" identity. Richardson articulated a version of CDA more palatable to **political economy scholars**, because it anticipated their basic anxieties about discourse approaches and terminologies. The point of the foregoing discussion has not been to re-inscribe a theoretical division between **cultural studies** and **political economy**, a debate that sometimes did little to satisfactorily clarify the relationship between discourse and materiality. *Phelan* has suggested that we cannot properly understand **CDA's founding rationale** independently of its proponents' wish to formulate an analysis of

language and social life that went beyond the controversies about the status of discourse in different fields.

Topic-153: Articulating CDA in media studies

Critical Discourse Analysis has usually been deployed to analyze **discrete media texts** and the **intertextual relationship** between thematically linked media content. We can identify at least three levels of analysis that often come together in the same research project. One strand of research – the one closest to linguistics – **highlights** the structural conventions of media texts and language (Banda and Mawadza 2015; Teo 2000). Researchers explicate the semantic and grammatical properties of different media genres (reportage, editorials, interviews, etc.) and the ideological function of particular text types such as headlines and leads. In second strand, Craig (2013); Kelsey (2013) try to explore how certain ways of representing the world, performing identity and constructing social belonging are normalized in media spaces; questions of who gets to speak, what discourses are privileged and what discourses are absent are foregrounded. A third strand focuses on the sociological implications of media discourses (Mendes 2012; Olausson 2014). Analysts examine how **media representations** inflect the discursive constitution of different social phenomena: for example, capitalism, neoliberalism, racism, climate change and feminism. Digitization has allowed scholars to integrate CDA into the analysis of large corpora of media texts (Gabrielatos and Baker 2008), as a supplement or alternative to analyses of small samples. Some of the most innovative recent research has focused on the different modalities of media discourse (Machin 2013). Researchers have analyzed semiotic forms that were relatively marginalized – if not invisible – in linguistically based analysis, such as the **visual design** and **branding** of texts (Machin and Niblock 2008), the interplay of audio and visual communication (Eriksson 2015) and the discursive relationships between human and non-human actors (Roderick 2013). Scholars have also examined the different forms of individual and collective identity enabled in internet based media (Chiluwa 2012). CDA researchers continually emphasize on the dialectical relationship between text and social context; we might call it the governing theoretical assumption of the paradigm. Yet, media sociologists have criticized CDA for its narrow textual focus, in a fashion that recalls **political economy critiques** of cultural studies. Textual analysis of media is useful, but it needs to be connected to contextual analysis of how media texts are materially produced and circulated.

Topic-154: Future of possibilities of research

Critical Discourse Studies should be able to focus on all four analytical tiers of the media studies totality of production, representation, distribution and reception, and extends its analysis to **entertainment media** and **popular culture**. For example, **the text** of interviews and news stories including sources of journalists, can be analyzed. Such work would highlight what social and institutional agents do with texts and discourses (Erjavec and Kovačič, 2013). Conversely, it would also illuminate what discursive regimes do to social agents, in moulding the subjectivities and affective dispositions they bring to the **production of media**. According to Fairclough (1995), there has not been given importance to **audience analysis** in CDA research. As a thought experiment, perhaps we can imagine the emergence of **audience-based discourse studies** where, instead of starting with given media texts, researchers begin with an analysis of how media audiences have been discursively constituted. This work will highlight how audience is being affected through **media text**; and how their behavior keeps on changing by media discourse. Such work would be particularly well suited to illuminating the dynamics of digital media cultures, where audiences are simultaneously consumers, distributors and producers of texts. **Media Discourse Studies** would also be able to challenge existing divisions between **quantitative** and **qualitative** methods, and trouble the default positioning of discourse analysis as a **qualitative approach**. **Media researchers** need to develop forms of critical discourse studies that fret less about applying the codified protocol of linguistic analysis. Different linguistic concepts can be applied here, but in a relatively unobtrusive way; what centers the analysis is a sophisticated study of the power dynamics and political motivations that shape what appears in the media. Media discourse researchers also need to reinvigorate our commitment to ideology critique by reengaging with the concept of ideology in media studies (Phelan 2016) and the status of the "critical" in critical discourse studies (van Dijk 2015). Media universalize particular understandings of the social world that are contestable, but which conceal or belittle their contestability behind the impression of a naturalized, common sense order.

Lecture-35

Framework for the Analysis of Media Texts (I)

Topic-155: Media(ted) discourse and society

The analysis of journalistic discourse and its social embeddedness has known significant advances in the last two decades, especially due to the emergence and development of Critical Discourse Analysis. However, three important aspects remain under-researched: the time plane in discourse analysis, the discursive strategies of social actors, and the extra- and supra-textual effects of mediated discourse. Firstly, understanding the biography of public matters requires a longitudinal examination of mediated texts and their social contexts but most forms of analysis of journalistic discourse do not account for the time sequence of texts and its implications. Secondly, as the media representation of social issues is, to a large extent, a function of the discursive construction of events, problems and positions by social actors, the discursive strategies that they employ in a variety of arenas and channels ‘‘before’’ and ‘‘after’’ journalistic texts need to be examined. Given the centrality of language to journalism, understanding how it is used in the construction of meaning has for a long time been a natural concern among media scholars. Several research traditions can be identified while talking about the studies on media language. Fowler (1991) examined linguistic aspects of news language, such as transitivity in syntax, lexical structure, modality and speech acts. Fairclough (1995) proposed some of the most systematic analyses of journalistic discourse (or language use). These Studies advanced a research programme that involves questioning the role of discourse in the production and transformation of social representations of reality, as well as social relations. CDA has set itself the goal of looking beyond texts and taking into account institutional and sociocultural contexts. In the analysis of journalistic practices, this task is particularly challenging given the fact that journalism intersects with all fields of society. Developing a research programme that encompasses all the moments in the ‘‘life’’ of a particular news text as well as the wider picture of the media discourse produced on a given topic is therefore a key but unaccomplished goal of the CDA research community.

Topic-156: Revisiting critical discourse analysis

CDA is the single most authoritative line of research regarding the study of media discourse. van Dijk (e.g., 2005), Norman Fairclough (e.g. 1995, 1998, 2003) and Ruth Wodak (e.g. Wodak, 1996; Wodak et al., 1999; Wodak and Chilton, 2005) are the most prominent representatives of this branch of discourse analysis, with media discourse having been thoroughly examined by the first two. Western Marxism, as represented by Gramsci (1971), Althusser (1971) and the Frankfurt school, is an important backdrop of CDA. It adjoins a certain epistemology of critique brought by ‘‘critical social theory’’. Fowler (1991) was one of the pioneers of the ‘‘critical’’ approach to language in the news. Attempting to go beyond a traditionally ‘‘descriptive’’ discipline of linguistics he brought in issues of power and ideology to the analysis of news reports. CDA scholars share a distinctive concern with the relations between texts and social processes, as well as with the relations between analysis and the practices analysed. Discourse is viewed as a type of social practice. Each discursive event is dialectically tied to society insofar as it both constitutes and is constituted by social phenomena. CDA often involves a search for aspects or dimensions of reality that are obscured by an apparently natural and transparent use of language. CDA is then a reflexive and engaged form of social theory, which is wary of its potential implications for social and political formations (Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999). While being a fertile and stimulating field, CDA is not universally or entirely applauded. Amongst its critics, some have claimed that it is flawed or ideologically committed (Tyrwhitt-Drake, 1999); while others have suggested that its methodological diversity should be overcome (Toolan, 1997). Widdowson (e.g. 1995) and Stubbs (1997) have accused CDA of doing interpretation, not analysis. To which Fairclough (1996; also Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999) has contended that the kind of interpretive work that CDA offers is closer to explanation than subjective understanding. Most of these criticisms do not diminish the theoretical and analytical value of CDA. Methodological pluralism, for instance, can be seen as a strength rather than a weakness, and ideological commitment is an explicit agenda of CDA and does not equal analytical distortion. Philo (2007) has recently argued in favour of an integrated analysis of content and processes of production, reception and circulation, and claimed that CDA has not been able to account for the full cycle of news discourse. There is a need to look for a comprehensive revisiting of CDA for news discourse.

Topic-157: The time plane in the analysis of journalistic texts

Until recently, time had largely been unaccounted for in the existing literature on discourse analysis of journalistic texts. Most forms of analysis do not express awareness of the time sequence of texts nor do they clearly explain the implications of previous discursive positions on subsequent ones. Hyatt (2005) has also argued for an analysis of temporal context in critical discourse analysis. Van Dijk (2004) also argued that an ‘‘explicit theory of context’’ is still missing and acknowledged the difficulties of contextual analysis. The historical nature of discourse is one of its most fundamental characteristics. Texts always build on previous ones, taking up or challenging former discourses. Fairclough (1995) and others have conceptualized these relations as intertextuality. Intertextuality is an important contribution but does not give a full account of the time plane, or of the historicity of discourse (Blommaert and Bulcaen, 2000). Similarly, van Dijk (1988) offers a biography of the text. But the relation between that text and others throughout a period of time is not addressed in his conceptualization. The most significant contribution to the study of time in discourse processes has been advanced by Ruth Wodak and colleagues. Their ‘‘discourse-historical’’ approach attempts to account for the historical background of discursive events and explore changes in discourse throughout time (Wodak, 1999). However, media discourse has not yet been examined in detail in this way. Besides tracing the history of public issues (the sequence of texts appearing in the media and the evolution of their meaning), a time-sensitive discourse analysis also means considering the particular context of a given period, from specific events and developments related to the issue under examination to wider aspects of the social environment. Time also matters along the synchronic axis and researchers should take simultaneous discourses into account as comparison contributes to critical analysis. Both the historical-diachronic and the comparative-synchronic perspectives may be considered for a detailed critical analysis of news discourse.

Topic-158: Discursive strategies of social actors

Journalism is typically a discursive re-construction of reality. Rarely do journalists witness events or get to know reality in a way that does not involve the mediation of others. A variety of social actors serve as sources of information for media professionals, in a direct or indirect way (e.g. Ericson et al., 1989). The media representation of social issues seems to be a function of the initiative of social actors to organize their claims and to project attention to

‘‘happenings’’ and problems (e.g. Anderson, 1997). The media’s depictions of social problems will obviously depend largely on the preferences and options of media professionals, including the news values in operation (e.g. Gans, 1979), but necessarily build on the ways other social actors construct issues in their multifarious discourses. A good method of discourse analysis should account for those two levels of discursive intervention over a certain ‘‘object’’ - the sources’ or social actors’ intervention, and the journalists’ intervention. In war situations, for example, a systematic analysis of the discourse of conflicting parties, as well as of social actors opposing the war, would help understanding and making explicit the alignment of news media with a given side and increase awareness of the plurality of views, as well as of the biases both in the media and in social actors’ discourses. Van Dijk (e.g. 1988) focuses on the journalist’s cognitive processes and on the journalistic text but does not examine the previous discourses of other social actors. Although Fairclough (e.g. 1995) accounts for intertextuality and the progressive transformations of texts along discursive chains, the analysis of the strategies that social actors adopt to construct issues for the media is missing in his work. There should be a renewed attention to be paid to the role of actors’ discursive strategies in media discourse. It is important to study the ways they and their standings are represented in the media and in order to do that we must analyse their own discursive strategies in the construction of reality.

Topic-159: Extra-and Supra-Textual Effects of Discourse

What consequences do texts have for the whole of a discursive field? How does discourse impact on and shape the evolution of social and political issues? For example, how have George W. Bush’s speeches on the ‘‘war on terror’’ influenced media discourses on terrorism and expectations of ensuing action? How did this impact on institutional mechanisms and material practices in the United States and other countries? Wodak and Meyer (2001, p. 66) have argued that there is a ‘‘dialectical relationship between particular discursive practices and the specific fields of action in which they are embedded’’. A constitutive view of discourse has to encompass the analysis of discourse’s concrete means of effect. While discourse analysts have concentrated attention on the text, many of discourse’s modes of operation are extra- or supra-textual, i.e. they are realized beyond or independently of a given text. Media discourse is an especially important arena for social and political action; yet, studies of media discourse have not spelt out the ways the media shape social realities extra- or supra-textually as explicitly as they

could have done. To address this, Carvalho (2008) proposed the category of 'discursive effects'. Discursive effects are processes that are linked to texts, but occur outside the text or ''above'' it. Moreover, these are not the direct consequence of one actor's discursive interventions but are often dependent on a variety of (discursive) causes and circumstances and show the constraining force of discourse. Examples of 'discursive effects' are discourse structuration, discourse institutionalization and closure. Discourse structuration refers to the process of domination of the terms of the debate. This may be intended but does not only depend on an actor's construction of an issue and its realization involves more than one text. E.g. the discourse of the American administration clearly had an effect of structuration of the discourse of many media outlets after 9/11. Discourse institutionalization is the transformation of institutional structures and/or practices in a way that embodies a certain discourse. Although the process of discourse institutionalization may result from, and originate in certain texts, it usually also has an extra-textual dimension. One example is the adoption of legal instruments such as the US Patriot Act as a result of certain securitarian discourses on terrorism. Closure is the resolution or termination of some form of controversy, for instance, in a scientific or policy debate. It is a supra-textual process.

EN0524_Bitcoin by Maha Malik

Lecture-36

Framework for the Analysis of Media Texts (II)

Topic-160: Developing an Analytical Framework for Media Discourse

Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) argue that CDA begins from the perception of a problem in society. Many social problems, such as a war or public resistance to genetically modified organisms, have temporal markers and identifying them is the first step to start collecting media(ted) texts on such issues. The constitution of a corpus of news texts depends on a variety of factors and on research goals. Once this is done, starting with an open-ended reading of texts without very specific questions or hypotheses constraining the analysis. Critical thinking is crucial at this phase. A ‘‘spirit of scepticism’’ should be adopted, leading to the ‘‘suspension of belief in the taken for granted’’ and ‘‘render[ing] the familiar strange’’ (Gill, 2000, p. 178). Some of the questions that may come to mind are: Why do some things get said and others do not? How are things said and what are the possible implications of that? What is absent from a text (factual data, arguments, points of view, etc.)? The first reading of the data will help identify significant debates, controversies, and silences. From there, a set of texts can be selected by a multi-stage and stratified random sampling process: articles may be sampled within each news outlet and re-sampled in the peak periods of coverage. In projects that involve large amounts of data, the second step is to circumscribe the number of texts to be subjected to discourse analysis. Formula for re-selection needs to be designed. The combination of comprehensive (exhaustive) analysis in selected periods with analysis of ‘‘critical discourse moments’’ (Chilton, 1987; Gamson, 1992) is a potentially fruitful option. These moments involve specific happenings, which may challenge the ‘‘established’’ discursive positions. Various factors define these key moments: political activity, scientific findings or other socially relevant events. The construction of a chronology of events relevant to the issue being analysed can be a useful guideline for identifying critical discourse moments. Questions to be asked about critical discourse moments include: Did arguments change? Did new/alternative views arise? Framework for Analysis of Media Discourse (**Carvalho, 2008)**

I. Textual analysis Layout and structural organization Objects and Actors Language, grammar and rhetoric Discursive strategies Ideological standpoints

II. Contextual analysis Comparative-synchronic analysis Historical-diachronic analysis

Topic-161: Textual Analysis -I

Focuses on the dimensions of the text that matter the most in the construction of meaning and that should be analysed. Layout and Structural Organization The structural organization of the text plays a key role in the definition of what is at stake, as well as in the overall interpretation of an issue. ‘‘Surface’’ elements of the newspaper and of the text itself, such as the section in which the article was published, the page number, the size of the article, and whether it was accompanied by visual elements (photographs, graphics or others), say something about the valuation and categorization of the issue by a given news outlet, with implications for the audience’s perception. The headline marks the preferred reading of the whole article and should therefore be carefully examined. The lead and the first few paragraphs of the article also deserve close attention (van Dijk, 1988).

Objects

Which objects does the text construct? The notion of ‘‘objects’’ is close to topics or themes. However, the term ‘‘object’’ has the advantage of enhancing the idea that discourse constitutes rather than just ‘‘refers to’’ the realities at stake. Objects of discourse are not always obvious. Clearly identifying them is an important step towards deconstructing and understanding the role of discourses. E.g., In the case of climate change, the broader objects to be constructed may be economics, government or nature. More specific ones may be, for instance, how climate change impacts on agriculture.

Actors

Who does the article mention? How are those actors represented? Individuals or institutions that are either quoted or referred to in the text. Actors mean both social agents (someone who has the capacity of doing something) and characters in a (staged) story (which is ultimately what news reports are). Actors are then both subjects - they do things - and objects -they are talked about. Texts play a major role in constructing the image of social actors, as well as in defining their

relations and identities. An essential aspect in the study of actors in texts is their perceived influence in shaping the overall meaning of the text. Whose perspective seems to dominate? What is the ‘‘framing power’’ of social actors in relation to the media? Framing power may be defined as the capacity of one actor to convey her/his views and positions through the media, by having them re - presented by journalists either in the form of quotes or regular text.

Topic-162: Textual Analysis -II

Language, Grammar and Rhetoric The focus of this framework and the analysis of language is limited to the aspects: concepts, vocabulary/ lexical choices and style). The vocabulary used for representing a certain reality (e.g. verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and the writing style (e.g. formal/informal, technical, conversational) are important dimensions of the constitution of meanings. The study of a text’s grammar can reveal many of its underlying (ideological) presuppositions. Nominalizations and active/passive sentences are among the most important syntactic features in news discourse. In addition, metaphors, other rhetorical figures and persuasive devices may be investigated. An emotionally charged discourse, with an appeal to readers’ emotions, for instance, is often found in the press, and can have an important rhetorical role. In the analysis we look, on the one hand, at the formulations advanced by social actors, and on the other hand, at the discourse of journalists.

Discursive Strategies: Discursive strategies are forms of discursive manipulation/ Intervention of reality by social actors, including journalists, in order to achieve a certain effect or goal. This intervention and the procured aim can be more or less conscious. The notion of discursive strategies helps us perceive the link between ‘‘source strategies’’ and media representations.

Important Discursive Strategies

Framing: the selection of an angle of the (complex) reality. Framing is to organize discourse according to a certain point of view or perspective. In the production of texts, framing involves selection and composition. Selection is an exercise of inclusion and exclusion of facts, opinions, value judgements, etc. Composition is the arrangement of these elements in order to produce a certain meaning.

Positioning: involves constructing social actors into a certain relationship with others, that may entitle them to do certain things. Positioning can also be viewed as a wider process of constitution of the identity of the subject through discourse.

Legitimation: consists in justifying and sanctioning a certain action or power, on the basis of normative or other reasons.

Politicization: attribution of a political nature or status to a certain reality, such as climate change.

Ideological Standpoints The notion that ideologies are embedded in discourses is a central claim of discourse studies, especially ‘‘critical’’ versions like CDA. Relating ideologies to social and political values associated with stances towards a certain reality. It calls for a mutually constitutive view of ideology and media(ted) discourses. A broader view of the discursive realization of ideology is necessary. Ideology is an overarching aspect and is embedded in the selection and representation of objects and actors, and in the language and discursive strategies employed in a text. However, one should expect the ideological standpoints of an author not to be always explicit. It is important to make ideologies manifest because they involve fundamental motivations and justifications for keeping or changing a certain status quo. The analysis of both discursive strategies and ideological standpoints in journalistic texts is not independent from the analysis of the other elements. Ideological positions have to be inferred from all the other elements, as well as from discursive strategies.

Topic-163: Contextual Analysis

It looks beyond the text to the overall coverage of an event or issue in one news outlet and examine the wider social context. Two time-related dimensions of analysis are considered at this stage - synchronic and diachronic. This is achieved by two main means of inquiry, respectively, comparison and historical analysis. Hence, we pursue a comparative-synchronic analysis and a historical- diachronic analysis.

1. Comparative-synchronic analysis

A comparative- synchronic analysis means looking at various representations of an issue at the time of the writing of one specific news text. More specifically, we compare one text with other

representations of the issue: texts published on the same day (or another time unit) by different authors, both in the same news outlet and in others. The comparison of different media depictions of reality involves attempting to reconstitute the original events (discursive or non-discursive). By cross-referencing news outlets and checking original documents, such as reports or policy documents, researchers can form their own image of reality, which is hopefully more accurate and/or complete than each individual media representation. It allows for a better assessment of the intervention of journalists (or other authors of news texts) in that reality, and of their reconstruction of the discursive strategies of social actors. It is a confrontation of alternative depictions of reality that mainly aims to enhance the critical reading of news discourse and help identify the specific discursive traits of a given news outlet.

2. Historical-diachronic Analysis

The historical-diachronic analysis takes place at two levels. At the first level, the historical approach involves examining the course of social matters and their wider political, social and economic context (Wodak et al., 1999). The historical conditions and the context of production of mediated discourse have to be accounted for. Bringing the contributions of disciplines such as political science, sociology and psychology to the analysis of media(ted) discourses on Islamophobia, for example, may be very productive. At a second level, it is important to examine the temporal evolution of media(ted) discourses and to produce a history of media constructions of a given social issue. Involves looking at the sequence of discursive constructions of an issue and assessing its significance. The ‘‘biographical’’ study of social and political matters can therefore help make sense of the arrangements that govern us. The identification of discursive effects is also a helpful analytical procedure, and an important part of a historical-diachronic discourse analysis.

Lecture-37

Social Media and Critical Discourse Analysis

Topic-164: Social media as a communicative paradigm

According to KhosraviNik (2014), the nature, location, and dynamics of discursive power in **Social Media**, or broadly speaking the participatory web, is fluid, changeable, and non-static. Social Media refers to the use of web-based and mobile technologies to turn communication into an interactive dialogue. *KhosraviNik* defines **Social Media** by the communicative affordance they provide at the intersection of mass and interpersonal communication. Social Media Communication is viewed as electronically mediated communication across any platforms, spaces, sites, and technologies in which users can: (a) work together in producing and compiling content; (b) perform interpersonal communication and mass communication simultaneously or separately – sometimes mass performance of interpersonal communication and; (c) have access to see and respond to institutionally (e.g., newspaper articles) and user-generated content/texts. **Social Networking Sites (SNSs)** include Facebook, Instagram, Tumblr, Twitter; and Instant Messaging Apps with the possibility of creating group communication such as WhatsApp and Telegram. The essence of Social Media therefore is their focus on facilitating 'participation and interaction' (Seargeant and Tagg 2014). The new communication protocol breaks away from the traditional clear-cut separation between **producers** and **consumers** of texts. The traditional unidirectional, one-to many interface of mass media is replaced with what appears to be a (potential for) many-to-many dynamic of **discursive practice**. In order to maintain **discursive power**, most of the content has been replaced by a new form of participatory communication, i.e. social media communication. For example, reconnection with politics among the youth in the West, the changes in dynamics of discursive power cannot be ignored (Morris and Ogan 2002). This creates a space for Social Media Critical Discourse Studies (SM-CDS).

Topic-165: Social media and critique

According to the definition of oxford dictionary, Web 2.0 is the second stage of development of the Internet, characterized especially by the change from static web pages to dynamic or user-generated content and the growth of social media. The dynamic of

communicative power has changed for the benefit of ordinary text/content producers. Macro critique of Web 2.0 practices at the industry level casts doubts on the postulation that **Social Media** would facilitate a democratized bottom-up discourse formation. From a Marxist perspective, this is based on 'exploitation of users' unpaid labour' (Fuchs 2014). Through value for profit created through the content production (including sharing of personal information) but also in that the prosumers fill the labour for distribution processes. In addition to that users' engagement on SNSs platforms brings about the profit for the platform owner both because of the value of the content produced/distributed as well as increasing the ratio of online presence of users during which targeted adverts are presented to them. This is also a fact that there is no absolute control over Web 2.0 resources at the service of and by corporations, i.e., capitalism faces resistance in harnessing all the presumption processes. A variety of Social Media spaces and affordances are occupied by anti-capitalist and liberal movements or serve a non-profit purpose (Ritzer and Jurgenson 2010). '**Prosumers** seem to enjoy what they are doing and are willing to devote long hours to it for no pay' (Ritzer and Jurgenson 2010); a phenomenon Fuchs (2014) calls playbour. However, an overall critique of SM holds that spaces of democratic civil engagement are in one way or another influenced by vices of 'old' corporatization processes (Street 2011, Holly 2008). For example, a vast majority of the virtual spaces follow commercial media funding models where audiences (consumers / users / prosumers) are sold to advertisers albeit in a more complicated, consensual, and participatory manner. **Trading users' information** for advertising purposes is the most common practice which has helped the rise of individually targeted advertising strategies through mechanisms. To optimize this aim, Social Media architecture constantly works to increase the degree (in terms of amount of time, space, and types of activities) and intensity (more details, more multimodal, more releases of personal information) of ordinary **users' engagement** with the platforms. This leads to creation of: (a) more audience for various advertising strategies – users as consumers and (b.) higher potential for, and precision of, targeted personalized advertising and algorithms – users as text co-producers; hence the more(potential for) accumulation of wealth for the corporations. Overall, as compared to electronic or print media, **Social Media** can and have provided new spaces of power for citizenry engagement, grass-root access, and use of symbolic resources – albeit differently in different socio-political contexts (Kelsey and Bennett 2014, KhosraviNik and Zia 2014).

Topic-166: Social media critical discourse studies (SM-CDS)

According to KhosraviNik (2014), initially, Computer Mediated Communication (CMC), e.g., emails and Instant Messaging protocols, was largely ignored by mass media scholars as it resembled interpersonal communication, While linguists took an interest in analyzing such data by bringing in their traditions of analyzing interactions. It is not a surprise that many studies on CMC have tried to adopt and adapt research methods of Conversation Analysis and interactional sociolinguistics. However, there is an emerging literature which foregrounds discursive practice as the central focus of discourse analysis in Social Media (Jones, Chik, and Hafner 2015, Barton and Lee 2013, Norris and Jones 2005). The approach distinguishes the notion of discursive practice from a Faircloughian understanding of the term, which includes scrutiny of processes of production and consumption of discourses in terms of its genre and distribution. The focus may be on 'concrete, situated actions people perform with particular mediational means (such as written texts, mobile phones) in order to enact membership in particular social groups' (Jones, 2015) . Although, in one way or another a **CDS** understanding of meaning making process would have to account for the context of data, the argument here is that an observational / communicative practice based approach would fit more efficiently for discourse analysis on Social Media. Barton and Lee (2013) argue, 'we need to both closely look at the texts and to observe "users" lives and beliefs about what they do with their online writing'. An emerging trend of research in CMC has started to move away from this mainstream calling for a shift of focus to the social as the point of explication, i.e., foregrounding society over technology in explications. Such socially oriented approach to Social Media discourse analysis would elaborate on 'characteristics and circumstances of society in the way that new affordances such as online public spheres are used and contextualized within different societies, communities, and demographic fractions' (KhosraviNik 2014).

Topic-167: SM-CDS Demarcations

KhosraviNik thinks that CDS should be defined as a socially committed, problem oriented, textually based, critical analysis of discourse (manifested in communicative content/practices). SM-CDS deals with discourse, not technology, as its central object of analysis. We are not only interested in what happens in media, but in how it may shape and influence social and political spheres. Furthermore, by considering discourse as an independent unit of analysis, we go where discourse concentration goes. In doing that we are not postulating

that there is an essential distinction between online and offline worlds but that there are **intertextual** and **interdiscursive** relations between these two levels of discursive practice. Discourses stretch **across media industries** and communication practices rather than being specific to an outlet or form. Even though we may decide to analyze texts and communication practices in a single outlet, **SM-CDS** needs to view the findings within a wider context. Discourse formations and perceptions occur within a mix of mediatized and social practices. According to Krzyżanowski (2011), conducting interviews and focus groups as classic audience studies methods can be incorporated in SM-CDS but application of such methods should only be justified within the specific scope and aims of every study. **Audience methods**, could enrich and be part of social contextualization for the analysis of communicative content in SM-CDS. **Multimodal Analysis** can also be important to analyze non-verbal communication such as tagging, likes, annotation, sharing, hyperlinks, etc. that need to be accounted for. KhosraviNik (2014) has used a term bottom-up language, that how social media is used to manipulate the audience in order to influence their minds. Another term in Media Studies is used as 'one-way flow of mass media' that means information goes directly from media to audience. There's a debate on it whether the research should progress from context to texts or the other way around. Either way, the central point remains that meanings are negotiated and that meanings reside within the society and social context, rather than the language (KhosraviNik 2009). Current popular topics in CDS such as various forms of identity, nationalism, racism, and Right-wing populism (Wodak and KhosraviNik 2013) are still relevant within the communicative dynamic of participatory web.

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Lecture-38

CDA of Reality Television and Films

Topic-168: Introduction to reality television

Reality TV is 'the most exorbitantly **"noticed"** form of programming in television history' (Turner, 2010). It has faced massive criticism from media commentators who associate reality TV with humiliation and bullying and who see it as morally degrading. Reality TV has been discussed as **low-culture**, a form of cheap, trivial and empty entertainment. Despite all the criticism, reality TV has attracted huge audiences and become a natural part of today's television schedules (Hill 2015). Although reality TV is difficult to define, a key characteristic is its link to ordinariness. It often involves what are conceived of as 'ordinary' people (cf. Bonner 2003; Turner 2010), i.e., participants who appear to be themselves and not to be following a script. Reality shows are generally structured around mundane matters or domestic life, and do not hesitate to expose more private and intimate aspects of participants' lives. Another, and closely related, key feature of reality TV is **its capacity to provoke emotions** (Kavka 2008; Skeggs and Wood 2012). Emotions may appear banal but, as Sayer (2005) points out, they should be viewed as 'evaluative judgements'. Emotions suggest an understanding of one's own position or identity in relation to the object provoking the feelings; they seem to be crucial to processes of **otherness** because they can create and preserve **distinctions between groups of people**. Even if the genre appears to be a playful, rather trivial form of entertainment, it involves ideas about how to value and understand participants and the activities they involve. Reality TV can legitimate or de-legitimate social practices and their participants and thereby do ideological work. Lischinsky has presented an approach useful for critically examining reality TV and how it can provoke feelings. This methodology is based on the collections of methods called **Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis (MCDA)** theorizing on discourse as recontextualized social practice. A basic assumption is to view **actions and artefacts** used in communication as semiotic resources. This approach focuses on how **reality TV** can reproduce **ideologies** detailed analyses of how all the involved semiotic resources (talk, music, audio effects, graphics, camera work, editing, etc.) are combined to portray participants and their actions is necessary.

Topic-169: The approaches to reality television

Reality TV has attracted massive research interest. For instance, scholars have focused on the industrial and commercial contexts of its advent (Raphael, 2009) and discussed the changing business strategies connected to reality TV (Magder 2009); Researchers have studied how audiences deal with the factuality of reality TV; how they evaluate the truth claims of different programmes and what they think they learn from them (Hill 2007). While, others, like Andrejevic (2004), have discussed the exploitative dimension of reality TV and how value can be extracted from the commodification of surveillance. A number of studies focusing on particular programmes have been published in journals and edited volumes (e.g. Heller 2007; Lorenzo-Dus and Garcés-Conejos Blitvich 2013). Journals have also dedicated special issues to particular programmes such as **Big Brother** (Hill and Palmer 2002); genres like **makeover programmes** (Lewis 2008b); and themes like **race and reality TV** (Orbe 2008) and **gender and reality TV** (Negra, Pike and Radley 2013). There are, however, two more distinctive perspectives that take a more critical interest in reality TV and discuss it in relation to its societal and political consequences and the spread of neoliberal ideology. Lischinsky has present these two in more detail. With a starting point in Foucault's theorising on governmentality, the first sees reality TV as a cultural technology. This aims at fostering people to be good citizens - the aim of transforming them into better and happier versions of themselves; involve learning how to be more open-minded, flexible and prepared to collaborate with others. Explores the ways these programmes foster **'good'** self-enterprising citizens - a means for supporting discourses in line with neoliberal policies- as e.g. mechanisms for individualization. The other is based on post-Marxist theories and focuses on reality TV and how it can legitimate class differences. One class is shown as superior over another, i.e. upper class prefers particular food or products - exclude others preserve their own advantages. More research needs to be done on how reality TV works to evaluate personhood more generally.

Topic-170: CDA of Reality TV

Lischinsky suggests that MCDA-approach can be helpful to analyze actions and artefacts in communication as resources critically. What he has proposed can be seen as a form of **social actor analysis**, implying a focus on the representational strategies used to depict participants and their actions. According to van Leeuwen (2008), the center-point of **this approach** is to see

discourse as recontextualization of social practice. This means that this approach concentrates on how '**social practices** (including discursive practices) are turned into discourse (into representations of social practices) in the context of specific discursive practices'. A particular programme represents what can be identified as specific social practices, but like all forms of recontextualization, the production process necessarily entails making choices about how to represent the practice in question. In such processes, fundamental transformations take place. Van Leeuwen (2008) conceptualises these as follows: substitutions (some semiotic elements are replaced by others) deletions (some elements are deleted) rearrangements (the order of elements is changed) additions (new elements are added) reactions (participants' subjective reactions to activities are represented) purposes (which are added to activities). Van Leeuwen (2008) also points out that recontextualizations involve **legitimations** and **evaluations of social practices**. These discourses constitute a form of knowledge or **'script'** about what goes on in the social practice being represented and involve ideas about how to value and understand these activities (Machin and Mayr 2013). When analyzing a multimodal medium like television, it is important to keep in mind that such scripts consist of complex combinations of semiotic resources: Such as, spoken discourse (voice-overs, interactions between participants), audio (music, sound effects), visuals (camera work), graphics (written texts, other figures) and editing (cuts, how sequences are ordered).

Topic-171: CDA of Films

Wodak and Meyer (2015) have focused on other part of CDA, i.e., analysis of 'nonverbal (semiotic, multimodal, visual) aspects of interaction and communication: Such as gesture, images, film, the internet and multimedia' as appropriate targets. For **film analysis**, both written and spoken language are focused. Even apparently spontaneous spoken language, with all its **'paraverbal'** dimensions of performance and social, regional and ethnic variation, becomes in the context of film just another representational resource. Such **language choices** can then naturally be seen as targets of CDA. According to Androutsopoulos (2012), the employment of code switching in films depicting ethnically diverse situations and several similar phenomena have all received critical consideration. The 'filmic' construction of a broad range of **social groups** has been addressed, for example, extending significantly beyond the more traditional sociological variables of race, class and gender. The ideological and sociocultural import of

images, even static images, has a considerable tradition of study of its own pre-dating CDA. For film, the potentially misleading or misdirecting role of (audio-) visual representations has received particularly close attention in work on documentaries. In documentaries, there are always (by definition) **'truth claims'** of various kinds being made – even though the precise scope of such claims may not always be clear (Rosenthal 1999; Nichols 2001; Kahana 2015). Important techniques of **qualitative** and **quantitative** analysis have been established, subsequently drawing on theoretical positions on the interrelationships between power, ideology and media founded on Foucault and Frankfurt School criticism, equally well known in the context of CDA. Moreover, just as concern with the analysis of verbal media messages subsequently combined with emerging linguistic techniques for textual analysis to give rise to traditional CDA, similar developments occurred with respect to visual analysis in media studies. It is, therefore, now not uncommon to hear of the **need for *critical* visual analysis** (Rose 2012). So, both that films and their depictions of society are appropriate targets of critical analysis and that, sometimes, films may attempt to be actively critical themselves. This raises many opportunities for beneficial combinations of CDA questions and methods and the sociocultural analysis of film, even though this potential has hardly been tapped to date.

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Lecture-39

Research in CDA: Pakistani Perspective (1)

Topic-172: Power and Media: A Critical Discourse Analysis of Pro-Government and Independent Press in Pakistan

The study aims to explore how powerful groups in a society may control the policies and discourse of media. It critically evaluates the discourse of pro-government and independent press in Pakistan focusing on a popular news event of the restoration of the former Chief Justice (March 2009). It compares and analyzes the presentation of the event by two broadsheet Pakistani newspapers Daily Times and The News. The collected data was analyzed qualitatively in terms of textual and contextual analyses using the tools of framing, transitivity, referential strategies and highlighting the comparative-synchronic and historical-diachronic details of the news items. The findings reveal that the media discourse may not necessarily present public opinion and certain pro-government newspapers exploit news report to support the government perspective. It further shows that the referential strategies, framing, word choice and other linguistic tools used by such newspapers may be biased in the favour of government and its hidden agenda. It is concluded that powerful individuals and institutions affect the production of newspapers' discourse in Pakistan. This also highlights a strong nexus between politics and media discourse in the country. The analysis of Daily Times report shows that the newspaper presented a biased version of the story in order to further the cause its powerful aide - then government of Pakistan. The report seemed to conceal important details and deliberately downplay the roles and contributions of important actors of the news event, for example, lawyers, opposition parties and the common people of Pakistan. On the contrary, the other news report appeared to provide its readers a balanced view of the news item analyzed in this study as it highlighted all major actors and events of the happening. The news coverage of international newspaper 'The Guardian' and 'New York Times' also confirmed the presentation of the News report and, therefore, it may expose partiality in Daily Times report. As biased reporting may have serious socio-psychological effects on readers, there is a need to analyze media discourse critically, especially, in the developing countries where people can be easily misled.

Topic-173: Persuasion & Political Discourse: A Critical Discourse Analysis of Imran Khan's Election Speech (2013)

This paper critically analyzes the speech of Imran Khan - Chairman of Pakistan Tehreek-e- Insaaf (PTI), a major political party in Pakistan - which he delivered from Shoukat Khanam hospital two days prior to the general elections (2013) in Pakistan.

Aim of the Research

To explore how a political leader can propagate his ideology through the tactful use of language. The researchers have attempted to uncover the ideologies which worked behind the given speech. Investigated how different linguistic tools have been used to project or achieve political power/objectives. The selected speech was primarily analyzed qualitatively using the analytical framework of Fairclough (1995) And also with the help of other tools, e.g. referential strategies, repetition, word choice, positive self-representation and negative other representation, to study how specific words and phrases carry power to transform the perception and political views of the people.

Findings

It was found that political discourse is often deliberately crafted to project specific ideologies, which are always located in the discourse in an implicit way. Moreover, politicians employ certain linguistic strategies to persuade people to follow their hidden agendas The analysis of Khan's speech shows that he uses ideologically loaded discourse in order to change the perceptions of the people not only about himself, but also about others (his political opponents) and the prevailing political system in the country.Through a tactful use of persuasive linguistic strategies, he attempts to project positive self-representation and negative other representation. Khan's discourse about the ideology of "change" and "new Pakistan" aims at changing the political views of people and persuading them to support him in his political struggle. He intends to lead people towards his own specific ideological direction.

Topic-174: Screen Image of Muslim Women in the Popular Post-9/11 Films on War on Terror

Bitcoin by Maha Malik

The study is an affirmative deconstruction (Derrida's phrase) of strategies that filmmakers have been applying to persuade the oppressed Muslim women to enact power. To investigate not only the image of oppressed Muslim women but also to bring to surface the successful struggles of educated and professional women (henceforth 'new women') who are observed resisting the misogynist discourse. The data was drawn from four popular films (i.e., *American Sniper*-2014, *Jarhead 2: Field of Fire*-2014, *Zero Dark Thirty*-2012 and *Body of Lies*-2008) depicting the post 9/11 American war on terror in the Muslim countries such as Afghanistan, Iraq, Jordan, Pakistan, Oman, and Syria (henceforth 'the Muslim society'). The study built its theoretical foundation by drawing from discourse analysis, critical theory and deconstruction. It was observed that social reality projected in the selected films hinges on different discursive practices manifested through linguistic styles, actions, objects, settings, graphic illustrations and sound tracks. In addition to the identification of the Muslim women in the oppressive discourses, the study unlocks some hidden meanings by acknowledging their professional contributions in the social institutions. The Western Caucasian women, usually empowered to exercise their rights, present a huge contrast to the Muslim women who are dangerously marginalized mostly if not always. Findings revealed that the Muslim women, in these movies, are seen as slaves, victims, helpless, ignorant and duped caricatures in the public and private spheres. Themes such as abrogation of women rights, suppression, lack of democracy, education and corruption in Afghanistan, Iraq, Jordan, Pakistan, Oman, and Syria are being recycled in the films on war on terror. The images which are readily acceptable are usually repeated by the filmmakers. The strategy, though popular and successful, obscures the capacity of viewers to formulate a genuine perspective about educated and professional Muslim women who live mostly in the urbanized settings and are capable of resisting and rejecting oppressive ideologies.

Topic-175: Critical Discourse Analysis of Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah's (11th August, 1947) speech in the first Constituent Assembly of Pakistan

To analyze Quaid-e-Azam's speech in the First Constituent Assembly of Pakistan through Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). It attempts to ascertain the hidden ideological meanings of his words for the newly born state of Pakistan. Qualitative methodology was used for the study. Fairclough's model in combination with content analysis approach were used to

analyze the data. The results drawn from the current study reveal that Jinnah wanted to make Pakistan a liberal, democratic, just and impartial state. It also seems that he was fully aware of the social problems like law and order situation, corruption, bribery, black-marketing, nepotism and jobbery, so he persuaded the members of Constituent Assembly of Pakistan vividly to initiate a war against these evils. The study has its theoretical and practical implications. The results reveal that the text of Jinnah's speech is very rich so far as CDA is concerned. The textual analysis shows that vocabulary items which include wording, re-wording, hyponymy etc. represent Jinnah's stance regarding ethnicity and prevalent social evils in Pakistan. His vocabulary suggests that he wanted to preach justice, equality and impartiality for the whole nation. The analysis of the grammatical features of the speech suggests that he was very loud and clear in his stance. He uttered such sentences as fix the responsibilities on agents and patients unlike the present politicians who are ambiguous. The analysis of the discourse practice throws light on the fact that formal links, contextual links, logical connectors have been used to make the text cohesive and coherent. The social analysis of the speech tells that it was Quaid's first formal address and through this address he wanted to take the whole nation into confidence. He also wanted to provide a roadmap for the newly created state.

Topic-176: A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Editorials of "Dawn" and "The New York Times" in the aftermath of Army Public School attack. The "Us" versus "Them" ideology

This paper attempts to critically analyze the editorials of two renowned newspapers, namely the Dawn of Pakistan and The New York Times of America for the portrayal of the Army Public School, Peshawar attack. The aim of this work is to analyze the construction, reproduction and perpetuation of ideology through language used by the two newspapers. This objective was accomplished drawing on the use of lexical choices and syntactic structures employed in the editorials. It was also seen whether a particular text deals with the issue in an overt and explicit manner or express things in a more implicit and covert way. The editorials selected for analysis were published the next day after the Army Public School attack. Selection of Newspapers The daily Dawn of Pakistan was selected because it was believed to be more neutral and unbiased in the expression of even controversial matters. On the other hand, The New York Times is a prominent newspaper in American settings. Qualitative research design was adopted for this paper to explore: How the editorials construct and portray the actors? E.g.

Taliban vs. those killed and injured. How the same issue has been taken up by two different papers in two different cultural settings? The ideological square model of Van Dijk was employed as the theoretical framework for the study. The schema of "Us versus them" was used to identify how the Taliban are depicted as 'them' and the victims as 'us'. This was done through the examination of the lexical choices and syntactic structures. Results reveal that The New York Times has dealt with the issue in a more impartial manner than Dawn. The attackers are clearly identified as Taliban and the 'us' sentiment is as clear as the 'them' sentiment. Dawn on the other hand hardly mentions the attackers as Taliban but often terms them as militants. The 'us' sentiment is more prominent here in comparison to 'them'.

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Lecture-40

Research in CDA: Pakistani Perspective (II)

Topic-177: Textual and Rhetoric Analysis of News Headlines of Urdu and English Newspapers

Introduction of the Study

Newspapers report the same event in different ways by manipulating headlines. The headlines used in newspapers increase or decrease news worthiness of any incident or event. This study is an attempt to find out the textual and contextual differences by using different aspects of Critical Discourse Analysis.

Objectives of the Study

To find out the significance of headlines in perspective of discourse and society. To investigate the role of headlines in representations of same event in different ways. To find out the impact of headlines in construction and propagation of ideologies. To find out linguistic similarities / differences in the headlines of various newspapers.

Design of the study

The study adopted an exploratory design. The sample of study consisted of headlines published in Urdu and English newspapers in year 2016 (From January 2016 to August 2016). The analysis of newspaper text has been done by adopting Fairclough & Wodak model (1997) and Van Dijk model (1995). The reason of selecting these models was that both these models are considered best to analyze media text (Keller, 2008; Lagerwerf, 2002).

Findings of the Study

Findings divulge that there is a significant difference of linguistic and discursive markers among headlines of different newspapers. Certain variations in ideology, power and hegemony factors were also found in the news of different newspapers. The apparent reason for using different linguistic and contextual techniques is to create entertainment, sympathy, embarrassment or amusement in the minds of the readers.

Topic-178: A Critical Discourse Analysis ofPakistani and Indian Budget Speeches

Introduction

This study is a critical discourse analysis (CDA) of Pakistani and Indian budget speeches. Two specialized corpora; Pakistani Budget Speeches (PBS) and Indian Budget Speeches (IBS), from 2009 to 2012, were compiled. This research explored the hidden meanings through the study of Parts of Speech (POS) which were used in budget speeches. These POS were limited to nouns (singular and plural), pronouns, adjectives (general), and verbs (present/past/modal).

Methodology

The corpus driven methodology was used for the critical discourse analysis of Pakistani and Indian budget speeches. Four budget speeches from 2009 to 2013 were combined into one complete text file. Corpus of Pakistani budget speeches has 4607 types and 30098 tokens. Types and tokens of Indian budget speeches are 5569 and 46147 respectively. The corpora have been syntactically tagged using CLAWS Tagger C7 Tagset. Antconc 3.2.1 has been used to study the concordance lines, to extract parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, verbs and pronouns) and to measure the frequencies. Lists of keywords of both corpora were prepared. This study develops the insight that budget is declared having multiple meanings behind the statement. The study tells that government declares the budget having some similarities and differences with other countries but hidden meanings behind the declaration is a fixed phenomenon of budget discourse.

Topic-179: Language Media, and Ideology: Critical Discourse Analysis of Pakistani News Bulletin Headlines and Its Impact on Viewers

Television is a penetrating medium, capable of creating false consciousness among the viewers. This study examines the ideological constructions in Pakistani news bulletin headlines and their impact on the viewers. The purpose of this exploratory study is to advance the research on Pakistani electronic media's news headlines, their framing, and examination of the role of ideology in their news constructions. This research has explicated the ideological constructions through Fairclough's framework for critical discourse analysis (CDA). Compared three different Pakistani news channels. Extensive text as well as selective intertextual and sociocultural analyses have been carried out along with the assessment of the impact of news headlines on

viewers through a questionnaire. The analysis of the news headlines reveal that Pakistani news headlines are infused with varying ideologies and power relations. The responses of the viewers reveal their dislike for entertainment-oriented, exaggerated, unfair, and moderately informative headlines of news channels.

Topic-180: Language and Power Nexus: A Critical Study of Pakistani Political Discourse

The study presents a critical view of the speech delivered by the prime-minister of Pakistan, Yousuf Raza Gillani on May 09, 2011. This study is an analysis of the speech to see how certain linguistic features have been used to take people in confidence with the help of the most important political position. The present study is qualitative in nature. A critical approach has been used to analyze this speech and some features of critical discourse model presented by Norman Fairclough were selected to look closely into the text. The three-dimensional (Fairclough) model of the analysis of the text. The speech was delivered in the parliament house in front of the speaker. However, the analysis revealed that, the speech was meant for both the addressee present at the time of the speech, and the assumed masses. It was found out the pronouns *we, our,* were constantly used to shift the responsibility on some external factors/groups. whereas "I" was used to show assertion and authority and also in order to digress the discussion from the topic. The pronouns and the vocabulary together establish the in-group or out-group category. The solidarity is shown towards the masses to get their support and defense is shown towards the allies who are accusing the government of fraud and nefarious ploy. Mystification was performed at a number of places to hide the truth or to claim the truth alternatively.

Topic-181: CDA of Rhetorical Devices used in the Advertisement of Beauty Products in Pakistani Print Media

The purpose of the study was to find the role of rhetoric devices and their use in beauty products advertisements. It also discusses why the representation of gender is necessary to sell the products or to persuade viewers. For this purpose, the study used Critical Discourse Analysis as a research tool. The research was qualitative in nature. Data was collected from beauty products advertisements, which were taken from print media. The advertisements were collected from 3 Dawn English magazines and 3 Mag English magazines over a period of three months

(April to June 2018). The data was analyzed through Rhetorical Structure Theory proposed by Mann and Thompson (1988). The findings reveal that hyperbole is the most used rhetorical device. Moreover, alliteration and analogy also frequently used in beauty products advertisements. It was also observed that the representation of gender in beauty products is more persuasive and tactical. The advertisers used the representation of celebrities in order to motivate the viewers and to sell their products. The study also concluded that the frequently used relations from subject matter relations are: Elaboration and Explanation and from presentational relations are: Motivation and Evidence.

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