Chapter 7  Intertextual analysis

7.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the findings of the rhetorical analysis of this study, including three aspects of the analyses. The first was an examination of the micro-genre that occurred in each text and a description of the generic structure and rhetorical structure of each text. The second part was an examination of the main participants in each text. The third part was an interpersonal rhetorical analysis which examined the use of appraisal resources in the texts.

This chapter addresses another part of the study – intertextuality. This chapter describes the purpose of the intertextual analysis and the theoretical framework adopted in this part of the study. Drawing on Bazerman’s (2004) analytical framework on intertextuality and White’s (1998, 2002a) framework for analysing ‘attribution’, a framework for analysing intertextuality is presented for carrying out in-depth analysis of the sample texts in this study. In addition, ideas and concepts on intertextuality drawn from Fairclough (1992b, c, 1995b), Goffman (1974, 1981) and Scollon (2004) are incorporated into the intertextual analysis of this study. Detailed analyses of sample texts from the two sets of texts are presented. Then, the basic patterns of intertextual practice in the Chinese and Australian data are compared and contrasted in the later part of this chapter.

7.2. Intertextuality and this study

According to Bazerman (2004), there are many reasons for doing an intertextual analysis. For instance, to identify which realm of sources a writer relies on and how they do this as well as to understand how a writer attempts to characterise, rely on, and advance prior work in their related fields of study. In this study, the major purpose for conducting the intertextual analysis was to examine how writers draw on other sources for the writing of their texts. That is, the analysis aimed to explore how the
writers include other sources in their texts, what types of sources the writers used, what the writers used these sources for, and how the writers positioned themselves in relation to other sources to make their own statements.

In the previous chapter, the 50 texts in this study were categorized into six micro-genres: media explanatory exposition, argumentative exposition, hortatory exposition, problem/solution, media challenge and media discussion. Whenever possible, from each type of text, one in Chinese and one in English were chosen as sample texts for detailed intertextual analysis. That is, a total of nine texts was analysed in depth to examine the intertextual practices of these two sets of texts. For other texts, a broader analysis was carried out to identify similarities and differences with the set of sample texts. Table 7.1 indicates the texts chosen for the detailed intertextual analysis. The detailed intertextual analysis of these texts can be found in Appendix II-3 in the CD-Rom attached at the back of the thesis.

Table 7.1. The sample texts for the intertextual analysis according to micro-genres

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Micro-genre</th>
<th>Media exposition</th>
<th>Problem/solution</th>
<th>Media challenge</th>
<th>Media discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample texts</td>
<td>Explanatory exposition</td>
<td>Argumenative exposition</td>
<td>Hortatory exposition</td>
<td>CN 09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese sample text</td>
<td>EN 04</td>
<td>EN 02</td>
<td>ER 01</td>
<td>EN 09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(NB: CN = Chinese national newspaper, CR = Chinese provincial newspaper; EN = Australian national newspaper, ER = Australian state newspaper)

In the 25 pieces of writing in the Chinese set of texts, four main micro-genres were identified. These were ‘Explanatory exposition’ (20 texts), Hortatory exposition (2 texts), ‘Problem/Solution’ (2 texts), and ‘Media challenge’ (1 text). One text was selected from each micro-genre for carrying out an intertextual analysis. This produced four detailed intertextual analyses of Chinese texts. From the 25 pieces of texts in the Australian set of texts, five types of text were identified. These were
Argumentative expositions’ (18 texts), ‘Hortatory exposition’ (1 text), ‘Problem/Solution’ (2 texts), ‘Media challenge’ (3 texts) and ‘Media discussion’ (1 text). Five texts were selected from this set of texts for conducting the intertextual analysis. There was a striking difference in micro-genres between these two corpora. In the Chinese set of texts, the most widely found micro-genre was ‘explanatory exposition’ (20 out of 25 texts), in which the writers mainly attempted to explain what ‘terrorism’ is, what ‘terrorist organizations’ are and how to deal with them. No argumentative exposition was found in the Chinese set of texts. In the Australian set of texts, however, the most widely found micro-genre was ‘argumentative exposition’ (18 out of 25 texts), in which the writers argued for or against some points, such as the ‘US should now take careful aim’, ‘Punishing bin Laden won’t stop extremists’, and ‘Bush needs to be tough’. No explanatory exposition was identified in the Australian set of texts.

In this study, Bazerman’s (2004) perspective on intertextuality is employed as the point of departure to analyse the intertextual practices of each sample text. For the purposes of analysis, Bazerman distinguishes the different levels at which a text invokes another text and relies on the other text as a resource. He identifies six levels of intertextuality that emerge in a text. These are ‘prior text as a source of meaning to be used at face value’, ‘explicit social dramas of prior texts engaged in discussion’, ‘background, support, and contrast’, ‘beliefs, issues, ideas, statements generally circulated’, ‘recognizable kinds of language, phrasing and genre’, and ‘resources of language’.

These levels of intertextuality can be recognised through certain techniques that represent the words and utterances of others. These techniques start with the most explicit – ‘direct quotation’ and ‘indirect quotation’; to ‘mentioning of a person, document, or statements’ and ‘comment or evaluation on a statement, text, or otherwise invoked voice’; to more implicit ‘using recognizable phrasing, terminology associated with specific people or groups of people or particular document’ and ‘using
language and forms that seem to echo certain ways of communicating, discussions among other people, types of documents’.

Bazerman (2004) proposes the following procedures for analysing intertextuality.

1. Create a list of all instances of intertextuality in the text, that is, to evaluate the material as relevant;
2. List how the instance is expressed, that is, to evaluate the degree of textual integration (i.e. whether it is through a direct quotation, indirect quotation, paraphrase or description);
3. Identify whether it is attributed to some person or source;
4. Interpret the intertextuality, that is, make comments on how or for what purpose the intertextual element is being used in the text.

For a linguistic analysis of intertextual resource, White’s (2002a, b) framework for analysing ‘engagement’ is especially relevant to explore this question. ‘Engagement’ “is concerned with the sourcing of attitude and acknowledgement of alternative voices”(Martin, 2002, p.58) in a text. Within ‘engagement’, White (2002a) distinguishes two broad categories of resources. They are ‘intra-vocalisation’ and ‘extra-vocalisation’. ‘Intra-vocalisation’ is concerned with the internal voice of the writer or speaker which proclaims, disclaims or probabilises, while ‘extra-vocalisation’ is concerned with resources which involve the inclusion in the text of some explicitly external voice. White (2002a) generally considers extra-vocalisation under the resources of ‘attribution’. Attribution involves quoting or referencing the statement or points of view of external sources. In other words, it is concerned with identifying linguistic resources for including outside sources and looking closely at the choices available for evaluating these sources (Droga & Humphrey, 2002). This extra-vocalisation contrasts with intra-vocalisation in which the voice is involved in an internal voice; that is to say, the voice of the speaker or author or writer. White (2002a) considers intra-vocalisation under the resources of ‘modality, proclaims and disclaims’. For the purpose of the intertextual analysis in
this study, the framework developed by White (2002a) to analyse ‘attribution’ (that is concerned with extra-vocalisation) is incorporated into Bazerman’s framework for developing an analytical framework for the study.

Figure 7.1 is an overview of the key options for variation in attribution, which is concerned with ‘attributed proposition’ (White, 2002a). This framework only covers the explicit intertextual sources in Bazerman’s term. In Figure 7.1, the left-most bracket indicates that when attributing, an analyst should simultaneously consider the outside source in terms of endorsement and source type and textual integration. ‘Endorsement’ indicates various degrees of support for material; ‘source type’ refers to the source in more or less personalised, named, specific or authoritative ways; and ‘textual integration’ indicates the degree of integrating the material by the use of paraphrase or by direct quoting (White, 2002a; Droga and Humphrey, 2002).
Figure 7.1. An overview of intertextual positioning (White, 2002a)

Endorsement
- Endorsement neutral (responsibility delegated) $X$ says
- Endorsed (responsibility reclaimed/shared) $X$ has demonstrated
- Dis-Endorsed (responsibility delegated) $X$ claims

Personalisation
- Personal
  - My uncle says...
  - Australians believe...
- Impersonal
  - The study of Australian attitudes indicates...
  - The evidence suggests...
- Institutional
  - The City Council holds that

Identification
- Identified
  - My uncle holds that...
- Unidentified
  - A prominent backbencher told us that...
  - It's generally believed that...

Specification
- Specific
  - The Australians I met on the trip held that...
  - The staff at my school believe that...
- Generic
  - Australians believe...
  - Others say...
- Singular (Individual)
  - The Australian next door says...
  - The City Council holds...

Grouping
- Aggregation
  - 40 percent of Australians believe that.
- Plural
  - Collective
    - Australians say that...
  - Association
    - Australians and New Zealanders believe that...

Status
- Status Neutral
  - The Australians I met on the trip held that...
- Higher/Lower Status
  - The Australian Prime Ministers has declared that...

Textual integration
- Inserted
  - $X$ stated that
    - "Shakespeare in Chinese worked well"
- Assimilated
  - $X$ intimated that
    - Shakespeare in Chinese would be a real crowd pleaser
The research aim of this chapter was to examine how writers draw on other sources for the writing of their own texts, how the writers include other sources in their texts, what types of sources the writers use, what the writers use these sources for, and how the writers position themselves as writers in relation to other sources to make their own statements. This framework, shown Figure 7.2, is adapted from Bazerman’s (2004) framework on intertextuality and White’s (2002a) framework on analysing ‘attribution’ in ‘engagement system’. The framework was used to analyse the intertextual practices of the two sets of texts in this study.

Figure 7.2. An Analytical framework of intertextuality [Adapted from White (2002a) and Bazerman (2004)]

**Purpose** — to examine how writers draw on outside sources for the writing of their own texts

1. **Intertextual representation** (How writers include outside sources in a text) –
   - Direct quotation
   - Indirect quotation
   - Paraphrasing
   - Description

2. **Source type** (What types of sources writers use) --
   - Attributed
     - Personal or impersonal
     - Identified or unidentified
     - Specific or generic
     - Singular or plural
     - Status neutral or high/low status
   - Unattributed
     - Mentioning of a person, document, or statements
     - Comment or evaluation on a statement, text, or otherwise invoked voice
     - Implicitly recognizable language and forms

3. **Source function** (What writers use outside sources for) --
   - Background information
   - Evidence
   - Beliefs, ideas, issue circulated
   - Others

4. **Endorsement** (How the writers position themselves as writers in relation to outside sources) --
   - Non-endorsement (neutral) (responsibility delegated)
   - Endorsement (positive) (responsibility reclaimed/shared)
   - Dis-endorsement (negative) (responsibility delegated)
To further consider intertextual practices in the two sets of texts, Fairclough’s (1992b, c, 1995b) ideas and concepts on intertextuality, especially ‘discourse representation’, Goffman’s (1974, 1981) classification of the positions that writers may take in relationship to texts and Scollon’s (2004) arguments on intertextuality in journalism are also incorporated into the study.

According to Fairclough (1992b, c, 1995b), intertextuality “points to how texts can transform prior texts and restructure existing conventions (genres, discourses) to generate new ones” (Fairclough, 1992b, p.270). Intertextuality is concerned with how texts are produced in relation to prior texts and how texts help to construct the existing conventions in producing new texts. In his 1995 book *Media Discourse*, Fairclough puts forward a three-dimensional framework for analysing intertextuality: the analysis of ‘discourse representation’, generic analysis of discourse types, and analysis of discourses in texts (Fairclough, 1995b). For Fairclough (1992b, c, 1995b), discourse representation is a form of intertextuality in which parts of previously encountered texts are incorporated into a new text and are usually, but not always, explicitly marked with devices such as quotation marks and reporting clauses. He argues that linguistic means such as quotation and verbs of reporting are on a continuum with presupposition, hedging, metaphor and perhaps an ultimately infinite number of ways of representing discourses with discourse. All of this representation of previously encountered discourse is called discourse representation. In media discourse, discourse representation accounts for a major part of what news is: representations of what newsworthy people have said.

In understanding the positions writers may take in relation to text Goffman (1974, 1981) points out that there are at least three different positions that a writer could take up. The first is as author, the person who crafts the text. The second is as animator, the person who produces the physical instance of the text. Last is as principal, the person who is responsible for the text. These three roles can either be taken by the same person, or not. This classification helps to differentiate the different roles that writers
take in relation to text production.

In his discussion of intertextuality in journalism, Scollon (2004) argues that journalists can take roles as orchestrators or presenters of discourses of public life. In this case, journalists may shape, guide, and colour public discourse. What they are doing here is positioning themselves outside this public discourse as its moderators, facilitators, but not as participants within it. Scollon further argues that journalists may also take up roles as public commentators in editorials, in panel discussions, and the like. In these instances, journalists are not working as presenters of public discourse but working within the broader public discourse. These arguments are drawn on in the present study to examine the distance writers attempt to keep from intertextual sources and whether the writers in this study work mainly as presenters of public discourses or work within the broad public discourses as public commentators.

Each of the theoretical frameworks and ideas described above contribute in different ways to answering the questions set for the intertextual analysis of this study. Starting with a comparison of intertextual practices in the media expositions in Chinese and English, the following sections indicate the differences and similarities of intertextual practices in each micro-genre examined in the study.

7.3. Intertextuality of the ‘media exposition’ type texts

In this section, the intertextual practices in the most common micro-genre – media expositions in Chinese and Australian newspaper commentaries – are compared and contrasted. As outlined above, one explanatory exposition and one hortatory exposition in Chinese are used as sample texts of the Chinese exposition micro-genre for the intertextual analysis. One argumentative exposition and one hortatory exposition in English are used as the Australian samples.
7.3.1. The Chinese expositions

This section provides an intertextual analysis of the Chinese media expositions. From the most commonly used micro-genre, explanatory expositions in the Chinese set of texts, CN09 – ‘International terrorism: “The dark power that shakes the international strategic situation”’ (*The China Youth Daily, 22/09/2001*) was selected as a sample text for the intertextual analysis (see details in Appendix II-3-1). This Chinese text used no direct or indirect quotations but quite a few descriptions to illustrate the situation. Here for instance are the sentences 4, 17, and 35 of the text.

- (4) 有关资料表明, 世界范围内有组织的恐怖主义活动最早始于 20 世纪 30 年代末 40 年代初。[Some relevant data show that the earliest international organized terrorist activities began in the late 1930s and early 1940s.] (5) 首例恐怖主义事件发生在英国统治下的巴勒斯坦。[The first case of terrorist attack occurred in British governed Palestine.] 当时的民族军、斯特恩帮和哈加纳等一些犹太复国主义恐怖集团袭击了英国和巴勒斯坦的目标。[Zionist terrorists organizations such as the National Army, Stan Group and Hagala attacked British and Palestinian targets.]
- (17) 另有统计表明, 半个世纪以来, 已有超过 20 名总统、总理一级的人物死于恐怖性暗杀。[Other statistics show that more than 20 presidents and premiers have been assassinated by terrorists in the second half of the 20th century.]
- (35) 据悉, 1988 年本·拉登组织成立的“阿尔-伊达”组织, 在其领导机构协商委员会下面, 设有军事、财政、宗教、媒体 4 个委员会, 分别担负不同的职能, 俨然是一支完善的跨国力量。[It is reported that in 1988 bin Laden established the Al Qaida organization with the leading organ ‘consultation committee’, and four sub-committees with different functions, namely, military, financial, religion and media. This organization is definitely a well-arranged interstate power.]

(Thereafter, all the numbers in the brackets indicate the sentence number in the texts.)

In this text, the writer mainly assimilated external sources to fit into the text rather than inserted them as direct quotes. These external sources are all attributed, but from unidentified sources. The writer seems to attribute these sources generally to some impersonal and generic agencies. They are used as evidence to show what terrorism is and what terrorists have done. In addition, the writer does not strongly indicate endorsement from the external sources. The effect of including such sources is to set
some distance between the writer and the text he/she produces, and to avoid any personal responsibility for what is written.

Some unattributed information (implicit intertextual sources) was also used in the text to establish the background to the argument. For instance, in sentences 43-46 of this text, it reads,

- **(43)** 早在 30 年前, 联合国已经开始为消除恐怖主义而努力。[30 years ago, the UN began to make efforts to eradicate terrorism.]  **(44)** 在联合国及其机构的主持下,于 1963、1970、1971 年先后起草制定了 3 个有关空中劫机的国际公约: 东京公约、海牙公约、蒙特利尔公约。[Under the guidance of the UN and its organizations, three international pacts against hijacking were constituted respectively in 1963, 1970 and 1971. They are the Tokyo Pact, the Hague Pact and the Montreal Pact.] **(45)** 联合国大会多次通过决议, 呼吁各国共同防止、消除恐怖主义, 明确地把任何地点所从事的恐怖主义活动谴责为犯罪, 并要求所有国家采取有效而果断的措施, 加快最终彻底消除国际恐怖主义的步伐。[The UN General Assembly has passed resolutions several times to call for a joint effort to prevent and eradicate terrorism together, and to classify terrorist activities as crimes and accuse terrorist activities occurring anywhere as crimes, and request all countries to take effective and decisive measures for speeding up the pace for eliminating terrorism.]  **(46)** 1988 年 3 月 10 日, 23 个国家在罗马签署了一项条约, 要求签约国起诉或引渡那些在公海实施暴力行径的恐怖分子。[On 10 March 1988, 23 countries signed a treaty in Rome to bring accusations against, and extradite all the terrorists conducting terrorist activities in high seas.]

These sources are not attributed to any specific agency, but are taken as widely circulated information to establish the background of the argument of the text. At the end of the text, the writer concludes the text by providing a strong proposition, following the text structure of an inductive argumentation.

- **(49)** 但是, 任何国家力量, 不论其多么强大, 都难以在一场无规则的游戏中占上风, 与恐怖主义的斗争将是一场异常残酷的非常规的战争, 它要求各国摒弃彼此间的嫌隙, 通力合作; 要求各国改变传统的国家安全观, 建立多元化的国家安全战略; 要求全世界共同努力, 减少恐怖活动产生的根源, 从源头上消灭恐怖主义。[However, no matter how strong it is, any country would find it difficult to get the upper hand in a game without regulations. The anti-terrorism war will be an extraordinarily cruel and unconventional war. It requests all countries to get rid of ill will between each other and cooperate closely. It requests all countries to change conventional views on country security and establish a multi-dimensional country security...]

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strategy. It requests the world to make a joint effort to eradicate terrorist activities from their roots.]

(50) This is a real and long-term common problem faced by the international community.

In this text (CN09), the writer tries to avoid direct comments on the US and its actions, using ‘any country power, no matter how strong it is’ to implicitly refer to the US, the victim of 9/11 and supposed to take action under the UN agreement and with cooperation from other countries. Following this, the writer put forward the view that the anti-terrorist battle requires international cooperation. By doing this, the writer fulfils the social purpose of a newspaper commentary that needs to make a proposition to convince its readers. However, these statements can hardly be regarded as the natural outcome of the sources drawn upon beforehand.

In short, this Chinese text uses a number of external sources to establish a kind of public discourse, from which the writer attempts to keep a distance. The writer positions himself or herself outside this public discourse as its presenter, not as a participant within it. In this text, the writer seems to be ‘the author’ or ‘the animator’ of the text rather than ‘the principal’ of the text. The writer introduces topics by drawing on various sources and makes propositions at the end, fulfilling the social purpose of expositions in the particular social context. Few arguments or stances taken by the writer were identified in the text. This is also typical of the other Chinese explanatory expositions examined in the study (e.g. CN 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, CS 01, 02, 03).

For Chinese hortatory expositions, CN 02 (Hortatory exposition) – ‘The United Nations should play the key role in the global anti-terrorism battle’ (People’s Daily--Overseas Edition, 03/11/2001) was selected for intertextual analysis (see details in Appendix II-3-2). In this text, intertextual sources were explicitly and implicitly drawn on to support the writer’s claim that ‘the UN should take the leading role in the anti-terrorist battle’. For instance, here are sentences 10, 11 and 23 of this text.
本届联大主席韩升洙说，这是一次出席率最高的联大单一议题会议，表明了国际社会联手打击恐怖主义的决心。 [The UN chairman for this month Shenzu Han said that this was the UN conference on the single topic with the highest attendance and it showed the determination of the international community to combat terrorism.]

联合国负责政治事务的秘书长助理丹尼诺·蒂尔克在接受记者专访时表示：“联合国将在打击恐怖主义领域继续发挥独特的作用，制定普遍适用的国际性法律准则。在这一方面，联合国是唯一具有合法地位的国际组织。” [When being interviewed by reporters, Daniel Dirk, the UN assistant Secretary-in-General in charge of political affairs, stated, “The UN will continue to play the unique role of combating terrorism, and it will stipulate some international legislation for common use. In this regard, the UN is the only legal international organization.”]

联合国秘书长安南近日指出，“从长远来看，军事手段只是国际反恐怖主义斗争中一个很小的组成部分”。 [The Secretary-in-General Annan pointed out recently, “in the long run military measures will just take a minor part in the international anti-terrorism battle.”]

Here the writer has clearly attributed his/her sources to key people in the UN such as the Secretary-in-General, the UN chairman at that time and the UN assistant Secretary-in-General to illustrate that the UN has played, is playing and will be playing important roles in the anti-terrorist battle. These sources are mainly attributed. They are personal, identified, and specific. They refer to sources with high status. At the same time, implicit intertextual sources are used to support the theme as well. For example, in sentences 16-20, it reads,

(16)联合国始终密切关注着反对恐怖主义的斗争。 [The UN is always highly concerned about the anti-terrorism battle.]

(17)联合国大会自1972年以来，每年都要讨论打击恐怖主义的措施。 [Since 1972, the General Assembly of UN has discussed the anti-terrorism measures every year.]

(18)迄今为止，联合国已先后制定12项打击恐怖主义的国际公约，为国际社会打击恐怖主义提供了法律依据。 [Up to now the UN has stipulated 12 international pacts on combating terrorism, which have provided legal bases for the international community to combat terrorism.]

(19)联合国在处理恐怖主义问题方面不乏成功的先例。 [There is no lack of successful precedents in dealing with terrorism issues for the UN.]

(20)联合国及其秘书长安南共同获得今年的诺贝尔和平奖，表明联合国在包括反恐斗争在内的维护世界和平与安全方面所发挥的重要作用得到了肯定。 [The UN and its Secretary-in-General Annan won the Nobel Prize for Peace this year. That shows the affirmation that the UN has played a very important role in keeping the world peaceful and secure including the battle against terrorism.]
These external sources are sometimes assimilated and sometimes inserted as direct or indirect quotations, and are mainly endorsed. This shows how the writer works closely with his source and establishes his opinions from them. That is that ‘the UN should play the key role in the global anti-terrorist battle’. Here the writer is playing the role not only of a presenter of public discourse but also a public commentator who works with the public discourse to put forward an opinion. That is, the writer works as ‘an author’, ‘an animator’ and ‘a principal’ as the one and the same person.

In the examination of the media exposition in Chinese newspaper commentaries, it was found that the Chinese writers seemed to shift between their roles as presenters of public discourse from which they always attempt to keep a distance, and as commentators on public discourses in which they only form their opinions or comments when they think these opinions are in line with the government’s voices. The decision of which role to take is highly dependent on the thesis that a writer plans to put forward and the government’s point of view on this topic. If the thesis is aligned with the government’s thinking, for example, as in text CN 02 ‘The UN should take the leading role in anti-terrorist battle’, the writer employs explicit intertextual sources to illustrate the opinion. Otherwise, the Chinese writers are highly conscious of what they are writing about and avoid revealing their personal views on the issue concerned as in CN 09 and most of the ‘explanatory expositions’ examined in the study.

7.3.2. The Australian expositions

The text selected in Australian expositions for the intertextual analysis was EN 04 – ‘Led astray in despair of common humanity’ (The Australian, 19/09/2001) (see details in Appendix II-3-3). This is one of the argumentative expositions that comprise 18 out of 25 Australian texts. This text attempts to argue that ‘recognising terrorists as humans will help reduce their power over us.’ In this text no direct or indirect quotation was found. Most of the sources used in this text were unattributed. For instance, in the first part of the text, sentences 1-16, the author writes,
(1) Terrorist movements in the Middle East partly emerged from the crisis of post-colonial nationalist regimes such as those in Algeria, Iran and Egypt. (2) In the 1950s and ‘60s, secular nationalist leaders strove to modernise their countries, investing heavily in education and infrastructure. (3) In the ‘60s and ‘70s, those countries found themselves unable to respond to economic globalisation and technological revolutions.

(4) Increasing numbers of frustrated but educated young people and dispossessed rural populations converged in large cities.

(5) Terrorist movements are led by educated young people, often trained in elite universities in the US. (6) They use the dispossessed, such as the Taliban in Afghanistan, as their shock troops. (7) Political Islam does not come from traditional religion. (8) It is a relatively recent ideology that emerged in the late 1800s, about the same time as nationalism. (9) But as nationalism has failed, political Islam has increasingly taken its place, nurtured by the crises of modernising nationalist regimes, military defeat, cultural humiliation and destruction of traditional ways of life.

(10) (These movements are political, not religious.) (11) Their first victims were nationalists – Egyptian President Anwar Sadat was killed by Islamic terrorists – and democrats, such as with the assassination of tens of thousands of people in Algeria.

(12) (These movements are similar to sects.) (13) (They see the world in terms of the pure and the contaminated, a cataclysmic battle between good and evil.) (14) Terrorist groups destroy the personal identity of their members and the social institutions of communities, then rebuild in ways we also see in totalitarian societies. (15) They feed on the destruction of traditional ways of life, and on humiliation and a sense that there is no path but destruction. (16) They flourish among cultures that celebrate death through martyrdom and through the increasing importance of honour killings inside the family structure.

Here the writer takes the sources they draw on as something that is widely circulated or accepted as support for the ideas and arguments put forward in the text. At the beginning of the text, the writer introduces the history of terrorism, to orientate readers to the arguments that he/she wishes to make. Later on, the writer describes the ‘terrorist movement’ from a more ‘factual’ kind of argument (i.e. ‘Terrorist movements are led by educated young...’) to more controversial ones (i.e. ‘These movements are similar to sects’; and ‘wars serve to increase the importance of these groups.’). It seems that all the arguments drawn on in the text came from ideas and
issues that are commonly circulated and widely presented in the particular socio-cultural setting. The writer, thus, establishes many of the arguments out of the discourse of public life.

The writer often does not attribute sources, taking them as widely accepted discourses, and based on these, indicates endorsement, establishing arguments such as ‘when people are subjected to violence, they are robbed of their humanity’ (Sentence 22), and ‘part of overcoming the experience of being a victim involves recognising the humanity of the person who committed the crime’ (Sentence 25). Further on, the writer establishes the thesis that ‘recognising terrorists as humans will help reduce their power over us’. In this case, the writer takes up a role as public commentator. He/she is not working as a reporter or a presenter of public discourse but working with the broader public discourse for putting forward his/her own arguments. These kinds of practices were found widely across the Australian texts in this study (e.g. EN 01, 03, 05, 07, ES 01, 02, 03).

EN 02 – ‘Don’t let terrorists recruit us to their cause’ (The Australian, 17/09/2001) is another piece of exposition that was chosen from the Australian set of texts for intertextual analysis (see details in Appendix II-3-4). As a hortatory exposition, EN 02 uses ‘the voice of the demon’ to symbolise the opposite voice that the writer attempts to argue against. For example, in sentences 4-8, the writer states,

- (4) I have already heard the voice of the demon who beckons us to enter this foul place. (5) His voice can be heard on talkback radio. (6) His opinions are alive on the street, in the bus, trickling through the veins of society. (7) He cloaks himself in the mantle of righteous outrage while poisoning our spirit. He twists the nobility of compassion into a lust for vengeance. (8) He does all of this with virtue on his lips and ice in his heart.

This text could be seen as a debate between ‘the demon’ and ‘us’. The writer uses direct and indirect quotations to introduce ideas and opinions of ‘the demon’. For instance, it reads in the following sentences,

- (10) What does he say? (11) He asserts that we should meekly sacrifice our
liberty on the altar of increased security. (12) He suggests that people will have to choose between being a good Muslim and being a good Australian. (13) He insinuates that asylum-seekers carry the plague of terrorism and that those who would uphold the rule of law and the ancient liberties of the people are undermining democracy.

- (18) The demon says: "If you're not for us, you're against us." (19) He asks: "Dare you risk allowing the barbarians within your gates?"

No other sources are used in the text. The writer summarises the opinions that he/she attempts to argue against and symbolises these opinions as a demon. In this way, the arguments are centred on how terrible and incredible the demon’s ideas are. By symbolising opposite opinions as a demon’s voice, the writer puts his/her rival (the demon) into a disadvantaged position. In this text, the writer positions himself/herself on the ethical and righteous side of the debate, and plays the role not only as a commentator of public discourse, but also as an ethical evaluator and teacher.

7.3.3. Intertextuality in Chinese and Australian media expositions

The previous analysis showed that the most striking differences in this type of text between the two countries was that in the Chinese explanatory expositions, the most widely found micro-genre in the Chinese commentaries, writers often draw on attributed but unidentified, generic sources, which they do not attempt to endorse. In other words, the writers tend to be the presenters of public discourses who attempt to keep a distance from the external sources. In this case, the Chinese writers seemingly work as presenters of public discourses, or I would argue, work mainly as ‘the authors’ or ‘the animators’ of the texts. In the Australian argumentative expositions, the most widely found micro-genre in Australian commentaries, the writers do not usually attribute the sources to any agencies. They take them as widely circulated ideas or information in the particular social context for establishing their own arguments. They either directly or indirectly indicate support for or against these sources. Thus, the writers usually work with these sources closely and distinguish their own voices from the public discourse. In this way, the Australian writers attempt to work as commentators of public discourses, not only ‘authors’ or ‘animators’, but
also as ‘principals’ of the texts.

In the hortatory expositions, there is much more complication in the writers’ use of intertextual references. In the Chinese text, the writer argues for something, ‘The UN should take the leading role in the anti-terrorism battle’, which could be understood as something that is in line with the government’s opinions. In this text, the writer draws on various intertextual references and makes full use of them in various ways, such as ‘direct quotations’, ‘indirect quotations’, ‘paraphrasing’, or ‘descriptions’, and also attributes them to some identified, specific, individuals with high status for supporting the arguments. It could be argued, then, that the Chinese writers are more ‘topic-sensitive’ in how they construct their arguments. They understand how to use intertextual references to support their ideas, but sometimes they position themselves as presenters of public discourses, as in the explanatory expositions, rather than take roles as commentators. In the Australian hortatory exposition, the writer is not only a commentator on public discourse, but also takes the role as an ethical teacher telling the public how to do things. In this case, the writer manipulates intertextual sources by symbolising opposite voices as a ‘demon’s voice’ and exploits the intertextual resources fully for his/her own use.

7.4. Intertextuality of the ‘problem/solution’ type texts

7.4.1. The Chinese problem/solution texts

Problem/solution type texts were found in the Chinese and Australian data. In this micro-genre, writers usually state the problem in the beginning and propose some sort of solution to the problem after that. In the Chinese text, CN01 (Problem/Solution), ‘Common awareness: to combat terrorism jointly’ (*The People’s Daily-- Overseas Edition, 03/11/2001*) (see details in Appendix II-3-5), most of the sources drawn on were found to be unattributed. For instance, in the beginning of this text (Sentences 1-13), it reads,
(1) 9月11日发生在美国的一连串恐怖袭击事件所造成的灾难性后果，引起了全世界震惊。[The whole world was shocked by the series of terrorist attacks that happened on Sept. 11 in the U.S., and which caused catastrophic results.]

(2) 恐怖主义者迷信暴力，播种仇恨。[The terrorists made a fetish of violence and disseminated hatred.]

(3) 他们通过暴力手段滥杀无辜以达自已的某种目的——政治的、宗教的、团体的或个人的。[They massacred the innocent wantonly by violent means in order to reach their own purposes——political, religious, organizational and personal.]

(4) 在如爆炸、绑架、劫机、杀害人质等恐怖活动中，无辜的平民成了恐怖分子手中的筹码和牺牲品。[In terrorist activities such as explosions, kidnappings, hijackings and killing hostages, innocent civilians become the tokens and victims of the terrorists.]

(5) 1998年6月，在阿尔及利亚，恐怖分子为发泄对政府不满，竟然在一周内割断了100多名村民的喉管。[In June, 1998, in Algeria, terrorists even cut over 100 villagers' throats in one week as a way of venting their discontent with the government.]

(6) 1999年8月，车臣恐怖分子炸毁了俄罗斯境内莫斯科、伏尔加顿斯克等地4座居民大楼，导致近300名平民丧生。[In August 1999, Chechen terrorists destroyed four residential buildings in Moscow and in the Volgadonsk area. These attacks claimed nearly 300 civilians' lives.]

(7) 民族分裂主义和宗教极端主义是引发恐怖活动的重要因素。[Ethnic separatists and religious extremists are the important groups which cause terrorist activities.]

(8) 冷战结束后，被两极对立格局掩盖的民族分裂主义、宗教极端主义进一步抬头，由此引发的恐怖活动日益增多。[After the Cold War, ethnic separatism and religious extremism concealed by the two polar fronts in the Cold War gained ground and brought about increased terrorist activities.]

(9) 在俄罗斯车臣地区，民族分裂主义势力为达到使车臣脱离俄罗斯的目的，发动大规模武装袭击，形成局部性内战。[In Chechen, Russia, aiming to separate Chechen from Russia, ethnic separatists force launched large-scale armed attacks, which became a regional civil war.]

(10) 在中亚地区，1999年2月，宗教极端势力曾连续制造6起企图暗杀乌兹别克斯坦总理卡里莫夫的爆炸事件。[In Mid Asia, in Feb. 1999, religious extremists carried out six explosions in their attempt to assassinate Premier Karlimof of Uzbekistan.]

(11) 极端思想也是引发国际恐怖活动的重要因素之一。[Extremists’ thoughts are also one of the factors causing international terrorist activities.]

(12) 1995年4月19日美国俄克拉荷马联邦政府大厦爆炸事件的主犯麦克维，是一个极端的白人种族主义者。[The prime culprit of the Oklahoma Federal government building explosion on April 19, 1995, McVeigh was an extreme White racist.]

(13) 1995年11月4日，为中东和平进程的发展作出过重大贡献的以色列总理拉宾，在一次演说后被暗杀。[On Nov. 4th 1995, the Israeli Premier Rabin, who has made a great contribution to the development of Middle East Peace progress, was assassinated after a speech.]

(14) 凶手是以色列国内的极右分子。[The assassin was an extreme rightist in Israel.]
The writer uses these sources for establishing basic background and support for the claims he/she makes. The writer works with the sources to establish the argument that ‘the anti-terrorist battle needs wide international cooperation’. The sources in Sentences 5-6 are used to support the claim ‘the terrorists made a fetish of violence and disseminated hatred’ (Sentence2-4). Sentences 9-10 are used to support the claim that ‘ethnic separatists and religious extremists are the important groups which cause terrorist activities’. Sentences 12-14 are used to support the claim that ‘Extremists’ thoughts are also one of the factors causing international terrorist activities.’ In addition, the source from the US Department of Defence is used to support that the US has been the prime target of terrorist attacks. It reads in sentence 19 of the text.

- (19) 据美国防部统计，从 1968 年到 1985 年，在 72 个国家的美国人和设施遭到过恐怖袭击。[Based on the statistics of the U. S. Department of Defense, from 1968 to 1985, Americans and their facilities in 72 countries have sustained terrorists attacks.]

In this text, the writer attempts to work with his/her sources to show ‘what is terrorism and what have terrorists done’. In other words, he/she tries to show the problem of terrorism by drawing on support from published sources.

Later, the writer makes proposals for solving the problem. In this part, ‘experts’ voices (Sentence 27) are drawn on to support the argument that combating terrorism needs to have the guidance of the UN and the cooperation of many countries.

- (27) 已有专家提出建议，在联合国框架内建立专门的反恐怖机构，统一协调各国的反恐怖行动，及时掌握恐怖分子的动向，预先化解可能的行动，避免或减少损失。[Some experts already suggest establishing an anti-terrorism organization within the structure of the U. N. which will aim to coordinate every country’s anti-terrorism actions, understand the terrorists action promptly, dissolve possible actions in advance, and avoid or reduce loss.]

At the end of the text, the voice of the Chinese government is expressed explicitly. It states,

- (29) 中国政府一贯旗帜鲜明地反对任何形式的恐怖主义活动，近年来还与中亚邻国为共同对付恐怖主义活动建立了密切合作的机制，为国际社会协调防止与对付恐
This shows how the writer is attempting to establish a kind of government voice through this text. The writer regards himself/herself as a representative of the Chinese government and plays the role as a government spokesperson rather than a public commentator who puts forward personal opinions on how to combat terrorism. If we consider the socio-cultural context of contemporary China and the political role played by the *People’s Daily* as a government mouthpiece, it can be no surprise that although the writer is working with sources to establish some claims, he/she is actually playing the role as a government representative, putting forward the government’s voice or comment on the issue concerned.

Another interesting point in this text is the by-line of the article -- 天日 (Tianri), meaning ‘the sky and the sun-light’. This is obviously a pseudonym in which the writer attempts to suggest that he/she is the one who reveals the darkness of the issues and brings the ‘sun-light’ of ‘how to solve the problem’. Since no detailed information regarding the writer has been given in this text, it can also be assumed that ‘the author’ of this text may be a writer or a group of writers, who are serving the government and craft this text, using this pen name as a by-line.

7.4.2. The Australian problem/solution texts

In the Australian set of texts, ER 01 – ‘US declares war of Western democracies against terrorism’ (*The Sydney Morning Herald, 14/09/2001*) is an example of a problem/solution text (see details in Appendix II-3-6). In this text, no direct or indirect quotation was found, and no sources were attributed to any specific agency. The writer describes and summarizes public opinion, and takes this as something well known in that socio-cultural context for supporting the ideas and arguments that he/she puts forward. At the beginning of the text (in Sentence 5), the writer
summarizes two options for the US after 9/11. The first is ‘a one-off massive military response’, and the second is ‘systematic, low-intensity, protracted warfare’. It reads,

- (5) With the evidence in place, the initial options will fall into two categories: 1) A one-off massive military response most likely involving extensive use of air power to bomb the organisational strongholds of the terrorists and their supporters, or 2) Systematic, low-intensity, protracted warfare involving strategically targeted air raids, specialist elite forces undertaking “slash and burn” raids, counter-intelligence operations, economic sanctions, diplomatic isolation and employment of the full range of resources of the Western allies.

It could be argued that these two options are from the writer’s readings and understanding of public opinion after 9/11. However, the writer does not take them by using direct or indirect quotation, but synthesizes public opinion and puts it into two categories. Throughout the text, the writer does not use any attributed sources, but only describes the opinions of different groups as shown in the following sentences. They are Sentence 9 about ‘international opinion’; Sentence 17 about the opinion of President Bush, Secretary of State Powell and Secretary of Defence Rumsfeld; and Sentence 21 about the opinions of many countries.

- (9) For a start, the US will be constrained in its choice of weapons, with international opinion insisting on a proportional military response that precludes the use of strategic and theatre nuclear weapons. (10) Conventional air raids will thus be the only viable option.
- (17) This is why President George Bush, Secretary of State Colin Powell, and Secretary of Defence Donald Rumsfeld are all tending towards the second option: systematic, protracted, low-intensity warfare. This would achieve a better outcome by depriving the terrorists of material support they need to operate effectively.
- (21) The British, Germans, Australians, Canadians, Japanese, Italians, Russians, Chinese and even the French have indicated a commitment to a multilateral effort spearheaded by the US. (22) This gives the US greater latitude to manoeuvre militarily and logistical support for its military operations.

In this way, the writer analyses the possible options that the US is likely to take. To conclude, the writer indicates that the US is more likely to take the second option; that is, declare a war of western democracies against terrorism. In this case, the writer takes up a role as public commentator. He/she is not working as a reporter or a
presenter of public discourse but working with the broader public discourse for putting forward his/her own arguments. In this case, the writer is also ‘the principal’ of the text, claiming responsibility for the text produced.

7.4.3. Intertextuality in Chinese and Australian problem/solution texts

In the Chinese text, the writer positions himself/herself as a government representative for putting forward solutions for combating terrorism. Here, I would argue, the writer is ‘the author’ and ‘the animator’ of the text. ‘The principal’ of the text is the Chinese government. However, in the Australian text the writer takes himself/herself as part of the public discourse and actively participates within it by contributing his/her own voice. ‘The author’, ‘the animator’ and ‘the principal’ of the text in this case are one and the same person.

7.5. Intertextuality of the ‘media challenge’ type texts

7.5.1. The Chinese media challenge text

CR08 – ‘Terrorism has nothing to do with poverty’ (Huaxia Times, 29/10/2001) is the only media challenge type of text found in the 25 Chinese texts (see detailed analysis in Appendix II-3-7). There is always a widely circulated view in China (e.g. in CN 01) that suggests that there is some relation between poverty and terrorism. In this text, the writer uses various explicit and implicit intertextual sources (attributed or unattributed) in various ways (from asserted to assimilated) to challenge this view and establish his/her argument that ‘terrorism has nothing to do with poverty’. It states in sentences 2 and 4 as follows,

- (2) 有人得出结论说，要根除恐怖主义，必须减少贫穷；有人说，应该减少国际秩序中的不公正。[To eradicate terrorism, some people concluded that poverty should be reduced, while some people said that the injustice in the world order should be reduced.]
- (4) 中国古人早就说过“仓廪实而知礼节”，一个人如果过上体面、富足的生活，那么多，他在做坏事、在犯罪的时候可能会有比较多的顾虑，因为他要顾虑机会成本可能会比较高。[The Chinese ancients told us “people know etiquette after they
become well off”. If a man lived a decent and wealthy life, when doing something evil or guilty, he would take more things into consideration and worry about the possible higher opportunity cost.

Here the writer has used paraphrasing, indirect and direct quotations to indicate opposite positions that he/she attempts to argue against. All these sources are attributed, but unidentified.

Then, in sentences 12 and 13, the author writes,

- (12) 事实上，世界上最著名的恐怖分子，无一例外都是富人，都是有“理想”、有“思想”的大学生和知识分子，比如仍躲在或已离开阿富汗的拉登、爱尔兰共和军、胡狼卡罗斯等等。[In fact, the most famous terrorists in the world are all rich people. They are college graduates and intellectuals with ‘ideals and thoughts’, such as bin Laden, who are hiding in or have left Afghanistan, the Irish Republican Army, and Carlos, etc.] (13) 同样，恐怖行动高发的国家，反倒都是富裕的国家，而不是贫穷的国家。[In addition, the countries in which terrorism most often occurs are all rich countries, not poor countries.]

Here the writer used description to include some unattributed sources as evidence to support his/her argument. As the only instance of media challenge type text found in the Chinese texts, the writer puts forward his/her opinion clearly that ‘terrorism has nothing to do with poverty’, which is different from the other articles in which arguments or propositions put forward are mostly related to the government’s views on the issue. In this text, the writer works closely with the references that he/she could draw on to establish his/her opinion. It is clear that the writer attempts to engage with the topic under discussion rather than keep a distance from it. Moreover, the writer takes full responsibility for what he/she is writing. For example, the writer states,

- (5) 不过,在我看来,有些人鼓吹通过帮助穷人来铲除恐怖主义,未免文不对题,而且是对穷人的侮辱,似乎穷人就会搞恐怖主义,就会容易犯罪。[However, from my point of view, it is irrelevant to the subject that some people advocate helping the poor for eradicating terrorism. Moreover, it is an insult to the poor. It assumes that the poor tend to be more involved in terrorism and crimes.]
- (8) 我的看法是,人们之所以搞恐怖主义,绝不是因为贫穷,某些人支持恐怖分子,也不是因为贫穷。[In my opinion, the people who commit terrorism do so not because of poverty, and the people who support terrorism do so not because of poverty either.]
Here the writer uses, for example, ‘in my opinion’, ‘my conclusion is that…’, to claim authorial responsibility and presence (Clark & Ivanic, 1997). This is not commonly seen in the Chinese newspaper commentaries in this study. The writer in this text clearly takes the role as a commentator of the public discourse by drawing on various references for working out the personal views on the issues under discussion. It could be argued that in this text ‘the author’, ‘the animator’ and ‘the principal’ of the text is the same person.

Although this text was published in a provincial newspaper (Huaxia Times), this could be seen as a sign that Chinese writers are beginning to have an awareness of establishing their personal opinions or views out of the public discourses and playing the role of commentator on public issues as individuals.

7.5.2. The Australian media challenge text

The Australian ‘media challenge’ identified for intertextual analysis, EN 09 – ‘Let the eagle strike free’ (The Australian, 02/10/2001), shows more complications for using other voices to establish the writer’s argument (see detailed analysis in Appendix II-3-8). The writer uses external sources in various ways from direct and indirect quotations to paraphrasing and description, and from attributed or unattributed. These sources have been used for many functions, such as providing background information, and evidence to support the writer’s arguments. At the beginning of the text (sentences 1-6), the writer uses several indirect quotations of ‘people of goodwill’ to illustrate the conventional ideas of the public.

- Conventional wisdom now says that the US ought to form as wide a coalition as possible as it prepares to do battle against terrorist forces around the world. (2) It also praises the Bush administration for having the forbearance to wait until the culprits for the attacks on Washington and New York are identified before firing the first retaliatory missile. (3) Above all, continues received wisdom, let’s not hit
the innocent and let's do something to correct the causes of terrorism. (4) (And, for God's sake, don't single out Islam.)

- (5) These are all sensible propositions put forward by people of goodwill. (6) (They also couldn't be more wrong.)

Here the writer summarises public opinion as ‘sensible propositions put forward by people of goodwill’, and strongly dis-endorses these sources (Sentence 6). The external sources are attributed to some unidentified and generic agency. Later in Sentence 11-13, the voices of other governments are described to provide targets to be argued against.

- (11) Already, even before the dead are buried, voices are heard saying that the main assignment is to prevent the US from acting hastily and indiscriminately. (12) Keep a cool head, advises German Foreign Minister Joschka Fischer. (13) Reaction should be proportionate, say others.

The external sources are attributed to a specific person with high status (e.g. German Foreign Minister) or some unidentified ones. Then, the writer described the ideas and thinking of some Muslim governments if they are drawn into the US’s coalition of anti-terrorism.

- (26) Some Muslim governments abhor terrorists, no doubt, but they fear public opinion even more. (27) They assume that if they were to co-operate with the West against the terrorists, there would be violent demonstrations and they might be toppled. (28) They remember the fate of King Abdullah of Jordan, of Anwar Sadat and many other Arab and Muslim leaders. (29) They know that other governments that sympathise with the fundamentalists are prepared to help their overthrow.

At the end of the text, bin Laden’s voice and a saying from Accius are used to support the writer’s opinions.

- (63) It is perfectly true, as bin Laden says, that if he is eliminated others will continue his jihad against the “Great Satan” and various other small Satans.
- (74) There is more than a grain of truth in Accius’s Oderint, dum metuant (“Let them hate, so long as they fear”).

These are attributed specific identified sources that were used to further support the
writer’s opinion that the US should be allowed the freedom to wage the war against terrorism. In this text, the writer makes full use of intertextual sources to illustrate opposite viewpoints that he/she attempts to challenge, and to establish his/her own voice. In this text, the writer plays the role of commentator of public discourse and works his/her own views out of these public discourses.

7.5.3. Intertextuality in Chinese and Australian media challenge texts

From the analysis above, we can see that in this micro-genre both the Chinese and Australian writers use intertextual sources actively and position themselves as controllers of other sources and make use of them in whatever ways they like for illustrating others’ points of view or supporting their own statements. It can be seen clearly that both the Chinese and Australian writers in this micro-genre are writers who are in full control of putting other intertextual sources to their own use. In these cases, these writers can be considered as ‘the authors’, ‘the animators’ and ‘the principals’ of the texts at the same time.

7.6. Intertextuality of the Australian ‘discussion’ type text

EN 06 ‘Only thing to fear is fear itself’ (The Australian, 21/09/2001) is the only discussion type found in this study (see detailed analysis in Appendix II-3-9). This text illustrates both sides of the argumentation and shows more complexity in employing other sources for establishing the writer’s own statements than other texts in this study. In this text, the writer discusses the positions he/she tries to challenge and also elaborates on the positions he/she attempts to argue for. The writer uses both unattributed sources and attributed sources and attempts to indicate endorsement (either positively endorses or negatively dis-endorses the sources) of the sources used. For instance, Sentences 1-13 of the text read,

- (1) We all know truth is the first casualty in every war. (2) But the war against terrorism declared last week by President George W. Bush has given an unfamiliar and potentially dangerous twist to this cliché.
(3) During the past 10 days, emotion, hysteria and misinformation have pushed facts, figures and calm calculations almost completely out of the newspapers and airwaves. (4) This outbreak of irrationality was to be expected, not only in the normal pattern of warfare but because of the psychological trauma so many of us suffered in watching the living nightmare of September 11.

(5) More surprising is the direction in which the world’s collective unconscious has begun to move. (6) Instead of the boastful overconfidence and defiant patriotism that would normally distort political language in this early stage of a serious military confrontation, most news and analysis about the looming conflict has been twisting public opinion the opposite way, with defeatist misinformation, morally dubious self-flagellation, exaggerations of the enemy’s invincibility and glamorised accounts of their methods and goals.

(7) I have been increasingly reminded of the strange mental pathology known as Stockholm syndrome, whose most famous victim was American heiress Patty Hearst. (8) This is the chilling psychological reversal whereby victims of brutality and hostages of murderous gangsters become fanatical supporters of the people who terrorised them. (9) How else can one explain what has become the standard analysis of the confrontation ahead?

(10) Consider how the standard argument goes: First, the enemy in this war is said to be invisible and therefore impossible to defeat. (11) Second, the sinister invisibility of the terrorist threat is said to have filled the US with a paranoid fury. (12) Since it cannot get the terrorists, the country is bent on a racist, anti-Islamic retribution that will kill thousands of poor and defenceless people.

(13) This irrational lashing out will inevitably breed more terror and will therefore advance the terrorists’ evil goals.

At the beginning of the text, the writer describes the declaration of war against terrorism by President Bush (Sentence1). Then the writer summarizes the situation of mass media coverage after 9/11 (Sentence3-4). After this, the writer describes public opinions (Sentence 5-6) and categorizes them (Sentence 10-13) to set the positions to be argued against. The writer mainly describes public discourses with his/her own words rather than using ‘direct’ or ‘indirect quotations’ to illustrate them. Here the writer takes a stance towards the sources and works closely with them.

Later, other sources such as Hitler’s claims and Stalin’s belief are used in comparison with contemporary opinions.
But there was also a grain of truth in Hitler’s claims that Jewish bankers had enriched themselves at the expense of German workers and in Stalin’s belief that kulak peasants were hoarding bread. None of this justified the extermination of Jews or slaughter and starvation of millions of Ukrainian peasants.

Moreover, a remark by the US Deputy Defence Secretary is commented on.

It appears to have set two positive and precise goals: to capture or kill bin Laden and other known terrorists; and to “end states” known to sponsor or support terrorists.

The phrase “ending states”, deliberately used on Monday by Paul Wolfowitz, the US Deputy Defence Secretary, may inspire apocalyptic fears of Dresden-style carpet bombing.

It can be seen that this writer is working with public opinion in a close way. Out of this, he/she attempts to establish his/her own idea that no matter how complicated or difficult it will be, ‘toppling the Taliban would send the right message to other terrorist regimes’. He/she describes, summarises and even synthesizes the public arguments and identifies the arguments that he/she attempts to argue against. By choosing different discourse representations that could support his/her ideas, the writer establishes his/her arguments.

No discussion type text was found in the Chinese set of texts. So no comparison could be made of the use of this micro-genre in the two languages.

7.7. Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the intertextual analysis of the study. An analytical model adapted from Bazerman (2004) and White (2002) was used to carry out detailed analysis on nine sample texts, four in Chinese and five in English. It was found that in the Chinese texts intertextual practices of the writers differ greatly while in the Australian texts the writers mostly work closely with intertextual sources for supporting their views.

In the most common Chinese micro-genre, explanatory exposition, the writers attempt
to take the role of presenters of public opinion, in which they try to keep a distance from their intertextual sources (see e.g. CN 09, 03, 04, 05). The Chinese writers tend to avoid becoming ‘the principal’ of their texts and evade responsibility for what has been written by quoting other sources as in ‘it is reported…’, ‘it is said…’ or ‘from other sources…’, categorised as ‘attributed, unidentified’ sources in the study. It was also found that the Chinese writers do not often indicate endorsement of intertextual sources. In other words, they do not indicate their stance towards their intertextual sources. At the end of the texts, however, the writer usually puts forward propositions for dealing with terrorism, which do not seem to be relevant to the intertextual sources. Some of the Chinese texts could be seen clearly as mouthpieces of the Chinese government (see e.g. CN 01). In these texts the government voices have been expressed explicitly. It seems that the Chinese writers in this study are very cautious of what they write, and how they position themselves in relation to other sources. It seems that the writers try to create homogeneous voices rather than attempting to let their individual voices be heard completing with other voices in the particular social context. In these cases, the writers are only ‘the authors’ or ‘the animators’ of the texts rather than attempting to be ‘the principals’. However, in some Chinese texts (see e.g. in Hortatory exposition CN 02, Media challenge CR 08), the writers also make full use of the intertextual sources to construct their own arguments. In these texts the writers take the role as commentators of public discourses and work out their own opinions from the public discourses. In these cases, ‘the author’, ‘the animator’ and ‘the principals’ of the texts produced become the same persons.

For the Australian texts, intertextual sources were widely used and the writers attempted to exploit intertextual sources in various ways to support their positions. The Australian writers usually took widely circulated ideas as sources and orientated readers to follow their thinking, and, thus, to follow their position. Quite often, these sources were found assimilated into the Australian texts. The Australian writers did not often attribute these sources to any specific agency, but endorsed them in various ways. That is, they either directly or indirectly indicated support for or against their
sources. At the same time, the Australian writers were found to put forward their own opinions, which could be quite contradictory to what other writers had said. For instance, in EN 01 the writer argues that ‘US should now take careful aims’, but in EN 09 the writer argues ‘let the eagle strike free’. The writers work closely with their intertextual sources and take the role of commentators of public discourses. These opinions compete with each other for appealing to the readers’ attention in the particular social context. It seems that the Australian writers in this study are generally working as ‘the author’, ‘the animator’ and ‘the principal’ of the texts, as one and the same person.

It could be argued that the differences and similarities in the intertextual practices between these two sets of texts are related to the particular socio-cultural contexts in which these texts are produced. This aspect will be further explored in the following chapter where a contextual analysis will be carried out of the texts under investigation.