Critical Discourse Analysis of American Ideology Towards Qatar Isolation in Selected USA Editorials

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ABSTRACT:

This study investigates the representation of Qatar isolation by Arab Quartet in selected USA editorials, i.e., it is represented positively or negatively. Those editorials involve The New York Times, The Washington Post and The Wall Street Journal. It explores the role of editorials in moulding, shaping and reshaping of ideology. It tries to find out the hidden ideologies in discourse of these editorials. The study follows a multidisciplinary approach of CDA starting with an overview of CDA shedding light on its roots, critical meaning, It focuses on the theory of ideology giving its definitions, its history, its structure and forms, as well as the mechanisms through which it works. The present study adopts an eclectic model of van Dijk (1991) and Fairclough (1989) which deploys linguistically three different tools to analyze (56) selected texts of the editorials. These tools include syntactic modality, semantic presupposition and stylistic hyperbole.

The results reveal that Qatar isolation is represented negatively rather than positively, which means that editors view Qatar and the U.S as one group ideology and Arab Quartet as its opposite ideology. This indicates the U.S underlying ideology and ideological reverberations such as hegemony, dominance and superiority. It also verifies van Dijk's (1991) and Fairclough' (1989) model as a powerful tool within CDA to reveal hidden ideologies and ideological mechanisms.

Keywords: CDA, Ideology, Ideological square, Modality, Presupposition, Hyperbole.

1. Introduction

Ideologies are primarily some kind of 'ideas', that is, belief systems which socially shared by the members of a collectivity of social actors. In other words, ideologies consist of social representations that define the social identity of a group. Ideologies are more fundamental or axiomatic that control and organize other socially shared beliefs. Since they are socio-cognitive foundation of social groups, ideologies are gradually acquired and (sometimes) changed through life or a life period, and hence need to be relatively stable. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a multidisciplinary

field that explores the relationship between language, society, power and ideology. Since ideologies can be gradually developed by group members, they also gradually disintegrate.

This leads the researcher to explore the role of American ideology in which the isolation of Qatar is represented, and the social power is derived in a way that shifts the public opinion.

The study asks the following questions:

1- Are implicit messages delivered by the selected editorials to assert certain ideological concepts?

2- How do modality, presupposition, and lexical choice reveal the ideologies embodied in selected data?

3- Is Qatar crisis represented positively or negatively?

2. Theoretical Background

2.2 CDA: An Overview

Critical Discourse Analysis (hence, CDA) is a type of analytical discourse research originally studies the way social processes such as power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and countered by text and talk in the contextual communication socially and politically (van Dijk, 2001: 352). Widdowson (2004) maintains that CDA concerns with the need for people to know, broadly, how power abuse is implied linguistically. Furthermore, it tries to explore the way language is used to deceive and distort reality. Van Dijk (1998) describes it as a multidisciplinary knowledge and heterogeneous mass that cannot be put in one category. Fairclough (1989: 23) views language as social practice within CDA study. He maintains that "using language is a process that commonly used as social conduct". Fairclough's theory of CDA has a form of three basic characteristics; namely, relational, dialectical and transdisciplinary (2010: 3).

2.3 Ideology

2.3.1 Ideology Definition

Many critical discourse analysts define ideology as a source of elusion and confusion. So, it is better to explore and investigate concepts and disciplines involved in ideological analysis as well as its relations with discourse extensively. Ideologies map the political and social worlds for us. We simply cannot do without them because we cannot act without making sense of the worlds we inhabit (Freeden, 2003: 2). van Dijk (1998: 8) defines ideology as 'interfaces' between social structures and social cognition, hence, the basis of social representations shared by members of a group. That is, ideology is essentially the 'view of the world', it is the self-serving instance, and also it functions to materialize group's interests. Fairclough (2010: 257) defines ideology as a system of ideas, values and beliefs directed to illustrate political order and to legitimize power relations and group identity protecting.

Historically and politically, ideology is one of the notions or themes that have divided Marxists and non-Marxists, as well as critical scholars and uncritical ones; consequently, they are ideologically divided (van Dijk, 1998:1). van Dijk who proposes a theoretical framework and discovered

other disciplines closely incorporate towards a comprehensive and extensive theory of ideology. van Dijk (1998: 4-5) gives a list of a full description and explanation as follows:

1- The cognitive and social system of ideology.
2- The differences between ideology and other ideas.
3- The components and internal organization of ideologies,
4- The relations between ideologies and other shared social representations.
5- The relations between ideologies and values.
6- The relations between ideologies and social structures.
7- The relations between ideologies and groups and their interests.
8- The institutional embedding of ideologies.
9- The relations between ideologies, power and dominance.

2.3.2 History of Ideology

Historically, many philosophers and theorists have discussed and explained the theory of ideology. It was de Tracy who first discusses ideology as Science of Ideas (1779). His work was the pinnacle of enlightenment thought for a perfect humanity, by making thoughts free from false ideas (Smithers, 2006: 30). Then, Marx's negative conception of ideology was the dominant idea. Ideology for Marx can be portrayed as 'false consciousness', or illusion (ibid: 2). Marx ideas have affected many theorists such as Gramsci and Althusser. Gramsci notes the historical shift of ideology from 'science of ideas' to its associations with 'negative value' of Marxist's philosophy (ibid: 4). Thompson (1990) states that the notion of ideology appeared in late eighteenth century in France, and then it has been used for two centuries (cited in Weis and Wodak, 2003:14). According to Thompson, the main reflections of ideology are both social structures and processes that form the paved path in which symbolic forms diffuse in the social world (ibid).

Althusser (1971) defines ideology as "a system of representations that makes our true relations to one another in society by constructing imaginary relations between people and between them and the social formation" (cited in Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002:15). Therefore, there is a direct link between the subject and ideology in Althusser's theory of ideology in the process of interpellation. This process operates as a channel through which the individual converts or mutates into an ideological subject, as he receives discourse.

2.3.3 The Nature of Ideology

van Dijk (2000: 16) assumes that the nature of ideolog is a form of 'systems of basic social beliefs' represented mentally. That is, they are not arbitrarily organized and ordered, but rather as 'schema-like' nature. This suggests that ideologies include conventional categories, which facilitate the way individuals socially build, reject or modify an ideology. van Dijk (2000: 17) listed six categories of ideology schema that organize the ideologies of the same group:

1- Membership criteria: Who does (not) belong?

2- Typical activities: What do we do?

3- Overall aims: What do we want? Why do we do it?

4- Norms and values: What is good or bad for us?

5- Position: What are the relationships with others?

6- Resources: Who have access to our group resources?

This schema of categories can organize the minds and the actions of both individuals and groups. Accordingly, these categories figure out how a member of a group feels, and as 'one group' feeling of that member (van Dijk, 2000: 18).

1. Ideology as commonsense

van Dijk (1998: 106) maintains that the identification of ideologies as forms of common sense depends on how group members socially in specific context may more or less know or use ideologies explicitly in their conduct of everyday life. Thus, we distinguish between the explicit treatises of the ideologies and the ideological 'commonsense' reasoning of other group members. In this regard, we are aware of these different modes of thinking and the mutual influence of discourse with each other. Fairclough (1989: 92) maintains that 'naturalization is the royal road to common sense'. In this respect, ideologies become ideological common sense to the measure at which discourse genres that bear such ideologies become naturalized. This can be based on the power of ideological discourse of social groups, in which common sense occurs under the influence of power. Thus, common sense is the outcome of the way in which power is exercised and domination in society is institutionalized.

2. Ideologies as Beliefs

For Smither (2006: 15) all ideas, ideologies and ideological apparatuses can be understood as ideotectonic in nature. That is, they may be understood as functionaries in the building or construction of that which is described by the principles, plans or blueprints that compose an idea. In its widespread, ideology is understood as "a systematic body of beliefs about the structure and working of society. This includes a program of practical politics based on a comprehensive theory of human nature and requiring a protracted social struggle to enact," (*The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 1995: 241 As a system, ideology becomes an "overriding belief to which adherents may make a final appeal when challenged by outsiders" (ibid). According to van Dijk, ideologies can be described and analyzed in one way in cognitive psychology, namely: internal structures, relations and processing and/or other mental manipulation of some kinds of beliefs (1998:26). He elaborates that social psychology distinguishes between many types of beliefs such as personal vs. social, specific vs. general, abstract vs. concrete, simple vs. complex, etc. (van Dijk, 2000: 11).

3. Ideologies as False Consciousness

Traditionally, the notion of consciousness lies in the traditional accounts of ideologies associated with negative modifier 'false'. The main implication of this noun phrase denotes a number of ideologies in which group's socio-economic interests are not reflected. Thus, an ideology may be developed by workers or poor, that attributes to the interests of ruling

class or the elites (van Dijk, 1998: 97). Ideologies may be defined, in many approaches, as a form of 'false consciousness' or as simply 'misguided beliefs'. That is similar to that of Angels' interpretation of Marx, and, henceforth, popular but misguided beliefs inculcated by the ruling class for the purpose of legitimating the state quo, and to hide the real socio-economic conditions of the workers. Fairclough (1995: 17) maintains that "some critical theories also stress ideology as falsification (or 'false consciousness', Marx and Engels 1976)". This negative view of ideology, van Dijk states, until recently, has been widespread in the social sciences as systems of self-serving ideas of dominant groups (van Dijk: 2000: 7).

5. Ideologies as the Basis of Social Practices

As mentioned earlier, ideologies are systems of ideas that make sense to understand the world; they also form the basis through which group members practice socially, i.e., social practices. Hence, discrimination may be based by racist or sexist, pacifist and ecologist ideologies, all of which emerge from group conflict and struggle. Therefore, such ideologies would typically separate Us from or against Them. For example, those who produce nuclear weapons, similarly, ecological ones will force us to act against pollution (van Dijk, 2002: 8). Williams (1977: 70) maintains that the problems that the theory of ideology faces can be resolved in unifying the material social processes and the fundamental signifying processes (cited in Smither, 2006: 9). Smither considers Althusser's theory of ideology, especially Ideological State Apparatuses, reflects the nature of reality, material, psychology, socialization and interpellation (ibid:13). Although the close relationship between ideologies and social practices of group members, they are not interchangeable. Hence, the reduction of ideologies to merely 'ideological practices' is not permitted (van Dijk, 2000: 8).

6. Ideological Square (Polarization)

van Dijk (2002) points out that much of strategies of ideology schema refer directly to the notion of 'Us and Them'. This means that the work of ideologies is the organization of group members and society in polarized terms (cited in van Dijk, 2011: 397). This polarization is explained by van Dijk as 'group membership', which, first of all, has to do with who belongs or does not belong to Us, and how we distinguish ourselves from others by our actions, aims and norms as well our resources (van Dijk, 2000: 43). The strategy of positive self-representation and negative other-representation, namely, ideological square, implies that we adore to describe ourselves positively and others negatively. That is, as van Dijk puts:

-Emphasize positive things about Us
-Emphasize negative things about Them
-De-emphasize negative things about Us
-De-emphasize positive things about Them (2000: 44).

These four principles compose conceptually ideological square, which could be applied to the analysis of all levels of discourse analysis (ibid). Part of our self-representation can be deduced through the manner

other groups see, view and define us in their treatment (van Dijk, 1998: 118). Fairclough (1992: 77) asserts that the ideological square Us vs. Them can show group conflict as well as political and social struggle.

3. Methodology

3.1 Model of Analysis

The model of analysis of this study is an eclectic one. It consists of modality, presupposition and lexical choice as tools among others in terms of data analysis. In this model, modality is taken from van Dijk (1991) and presupposition is taken from Fairclough (1989), yet lexical choice is taken from both.

3.2.1 Modality

Modality is a semantic category that operates at sentence level. It is a cover term for devices which allow speakers to express various degrees of commitment to, or belief in, a proposition (Saeed, 2016: 134). Modality, for Halliday (1994), means the speaker's judgment of the probabilities, or the obligations, involved in what he is saying (cited in Fairclough, 2003: 165). It is an aspect of grammar that has to do with interpersonal meaning, i.e., the emphasis on how social relations and social identities are marked within clauses (Fairclough, 1992: 28).

1. Epistemic Modality

Lyons (1977) states that epistemic modality is "the degree of commitment text-producers make towards the truth and probability of the propositions they communicate". The truth is conceived as one hundred percent probability or certainty (cited in Hart, 2010: 166). Fairclough (2010: 106) maintains that epistemic modality has to do with a high-affinity (or probability) of clauses. For De Haan (2005: 30), "the term epistemic is relatively straightforward, since it includes possibility, probability and certainty, which is a matter of degree that epistemic modality implies. Following Halliday (1994), Fairclough states that there are three levels or degrees of commitment to the truth within epistemic modality, namely; high, median and low (2003; 170). This can be represented along epistemic scale as in table 3.1.

Levels of commitment (value)	Degree of Truth
High	Certainty
Median	Probability
Low	Possibility

Table No. 3.1 Epistemic Levels of commitment (Fairclough, 2003: 170).

2. Deontic Modality

Deontic modality concerns with the speaker's active relation to event (Palmer, 1981: 153). It means that "the speaker can give permission, lay obligation or give an undertaking, in relation to possible future event". It has the implication of imperative marked by the use of modal verbs. For example, 'You may (or can)/must/shall come tomorrow' (ibid). For Simpson (1993: 43), deontic modality is the modal system of 'duty'. It concerns with a speaker's attitude to the degree of obligation of which he attaches to perform certain actions. Fairclough (2003: 170) states that the

degrees of obligation in deontic modality can be linked varieties of value of Halliday (1994), as in table (3.2).

Value	Degree of Obligation
High	Necessity (Required)
Midian	Advisability (Supposed)
Low	Permission (Allowed)

Table 3.2 Degrees of Obligations and values (adopted from Fairclough, 2003: 170).

Fairclough uses participle adjectives, such as (required, etc.), because part of the diverse meanings of modal verbs show how some are higher in the degree of commitment than others (ibid). Thus, 'required' means necessity, 'supposed' implies advisability, and 'allowed' refers to permission.

3.2.2 Presupposition

According to van Dijk (1991: 183), "presupposition is often defined as a proposition that is semantically implied (entailed) by a statement as well as by denial of that statement". Presupposition can be regarded as a special case of implication (ibid). The information that presuppositions convey is supposedly known and shared by the writer and reader. Presupposition is something in which speakers assumed to be the case previous to producing an utterance, therefore, speakers who have presuppositions, not sentences (Yule, 1996: 25). Thus, presupposition is a taken-forgranted, implicit claim embedded within explicit meaning of a text or utterance (Richardson, 2007: 63). For Levinson (1983: 184), presuppositions are generally produced by lexical items or linguistic constructions. These items and constructions are called presupposition triggers (cited in Archer et al., 2012: 30). These triggers include definite expressions, factive verbs, change of state verbs, implicative verbs, cleft sentences, etc.

3.2.2.1 Types of Presupposition

Presuppositions are normally classified into two types; existential presuppositions and logical presuppositions. Existential presuppositions mean that propositions state the existence of an entity or certain referents in the sentence. Yule (1996: 27) divide presupposition under five types, including:

1) Existential Presupposition

It is assumed that something already exists. In English, normally possessive construction is associated with presupposed existence. For instance, 'your car' or 'you have a car'.

2) Factive presupposition

In this type, the presupposed information after a verb such as 'know' is understood as a fact. For instance, 'Everybody knows that John is a guy', the presupposed 'John is a guy' can be treated as a fact. Other verbs such as realize, regret, and remember, as well as phrasal constructions such as 'be' with 'aware', 'glad', and 'odd' all have factive presupposition.

3) Lexical Presupposition

It means that the use of one form which has asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted to presuppose the understanding of another non-asserted meaning. Thus, the speaker uses a particular lexical expression and deploys it to presuppose another implied concept. For instance, when we say that someone did not manage to do something, the asserted meaning is that a person did not succeed, and the non-asserted meaning is that the person tried to do something. The lexical presupposition is triggered by implicative verb, change of state verb, verb of judging, and iterative items. For example:

a) He stopped smoking. (>>He used to smoke).

4) structural Presupposition

In this type of presupposition, particular sentence structures have been conventionally and regularly analyzed to presuppose the truth of part of the sentence, i.e., already assumed to be true. Structural presupposition is triggered by cleft constructions, question, temporal clause, non-restrictive relative clause and comparative construction. For instance, the wh-question construction in English is used to presuppose that the information after such construction is known to be true, as in the following example;

a) When did you leave? (>>You left).

b) Where did you buy the bike? (>>You bought the bike).

5) Non-Factive Presupposition

It is the presupposition that indicates what follows a verb is assumed to be not true. A number of verbs such as 'dream', 'imagine', and 'pretend', are used to presuppose that what follows is not true, as in;

a) I dreamed that I was rich. (>>I was not rich).

b) He pretends to be ill. (>> He is not ill).

6) Counterfactual Presupposition

This type of presupposition indicates that the meaning of what is presupposed is not only not true, but opposites what is true, or contradicts facts. Conditional structures such as if-clause presuppose that the information after such structure is not true. This type is often called counterfactual conditional. For example;

If you were my friend, you would have helped me. (>> You were not my friend).

3.2.3 Lexical Choice (Hyperbole)

The choice of words to signal its semantic content is never neutral. That is, speakers or writers choose one word rather than another, to convey the same meaning, may imply their opinions, emotions, or social position (van Dijk, 1991: 53). van Dijk (1995: 259) considers lexical choice as one of the key elements through which a speaker explicitly or implicitly reflects his ideological opinions towards events and participants. The lexical choice is usually represented by the use of hyperbole expressions with which language users exaggerate or overstate the meaning of these expressions. Hyperbole is a stylistic device, that takes a form of extremity or exaggeration, through which language users either magnify or minimize some real state of affairs (Cano Mora 2004).

3.6.3.1 The Realization of Hyperbole

Hyperbole expressions can be realized by one word, phrase, clause, superlative, comparison and numerical (Claridge, 2011: 40-1).

1) Single word hyperbole. It was so cold in the restaurant I was *freezing*.
2) Phrasal hyperbole. I avoid beaches like *the plague*.
3) Clausal hyperbole. *Nobody ever learns anything*.
4) Superlative hyperbole. It is *the cheesiest thing* that I've ever heard.
5. Comparison hyperbole. She misses *more words* out than she gets in.
6) Numerical hyperbole. *Thousands* of people are crowded in the streets.

4. Data Analysis

3.1 Qatar Crisis: A Case Study

The crisis in Gulf area raised in June 2017 when a group of countries of Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) severed diplomatic relations with Qatar. These countries include Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates and Bahrain joined by Egypt which is not a member of GCC countries as one side and Qatar as its opposite side (Azzam and Harb, 2018: 13). This 'Arab Quartet' headed by Saudi Arabia imposed an embargo of trade and cut diplomatic ties with Qatar, followed by a withdrawal of their nationals and pulling out their investment. Then, a list of 13 demands was raised by Saudi group for Qatar to achieve, as a condition to end this embargo (Smith, 2019: 5). According to Smith the dispute was built up after the 2011 Arab uprising which witnesses conflicts between the two sides in proxy across Middle East, North Africa and the Horn of Africa. Qatar has positively allied itself with 'political Islam' specifically the Muslim Brotherhood which was seen as threat to Qatar's neighboring monarchies legitimacy (ibid).

4.2 Data Collection

The data is collected from selected USA editorials of well-known newspapers that cover Qatar isolation by Arab Quartet from its starting in 2017 onwards. The newspapers include The New York Times, The Washington Post, and The Wall Street Journal. The choice of them is due to the fact that these newspapers reflect the American policy towards world's issues. The data involves (56) selected texts of (5) editorials which are distributed as two for both New York Times and Washington Post editorials, and one of Wall Street Journal. In addition, the choice of the titles of the editorial article is based on how much focus is intensively put upon Qatar isolation.

4.3 Techniques for Analysis

For the study to gain more reliability and authenticity, the researcher follows certain techniques in doing analysis of selected texts. First, much more focus is put upon the dichotomy of negative and positive representations so that data analysis is divided as negative and positive representations in modality, presupposition and hyperbole. Second, within each tool of the model of analysis, the selected texts are taken as numbered examples cited by the number of the text in the appendixes and the name and date of the editorial.

4.4 Data Analysis
4.4.1. Modality
    Modality is the area of meaning that lays between positive and negative polarity, generally the intermediate ground of meaning between yes and no (Halliday, 1994). Accordingly, the two types of modality (epistemic and deontic) are analyzed according to positive and negative representation of Qatar case in terms of selected editorials.
4.3.1.1 Epistemic Modality
4.3.1.1.1 Negative Representation
    Epistemic modality refers to the type of knowledge the speaker or writer has about what he or she is saying or writing, and it deals with what he or she knows about the world (Downing and Loke, 1992: 332). Hence, it implies editor's evaluation of his proposition in terms of epistemic certainty, probability, and possibility. That is, he certainly, probably, and possibly knows the truth of his proposition, i.e., he asserts that Qatar isolation is illegal and undeserved. In this section, the study follows a procedure of providing evidence to support such claim.
1) But a tycoon offered a solution. He intends to fly 4,000 cows to Qatar, in what _may_ be the biggest ever bovine airlift. (Text No. 1, New York Times, July 2, 2017).
2) Experts warn that the crisis _could_ destabilize the broader region if it persists for months, or longer, as many fear. (Text No. 5, New York Times, July 2, 2017).
    In the above indicated texts, the modal auxiliaries are deployed epistemically to show how the editor commits himself to the propositions. In text no. 1, the editor makes use of the modal _may_ with its low value to indicate the possibility of breaking down the embargo imposed on Qatar. In this place, what the editor intends to convey is that Qatar is no longer in need to Saudi milk, since a tycoon is going to fly 4,000 cows to Qatar which is the biggest bovine airlift. Editorially, it is possible for Qatar to manage itself to deal with the Saudi-led boycott, because its ability to diverse food sources. In text no. 5, the modal auxiliary _could_ with its low value bears epistemic meaning that the crisis is possibly leading to potentially catastrophic war. According to the editor, the crisis attracts many powerful players such Turkey, Russia and Iran, which seek such a toehold in the gulf area. Therefore, many experts, analysts and politicians expect that the siege of the Saudi camp has negative potentials of destabilizing the region as it may drag such players in an expected war.
4.4.1.1.1 Positive Representation
    In this section, the researcher tries to find out how the editor represents Qatar crisis positively, i.e., he sees Qatar isolation is fair and deserving. Using epistemic modality, the researcher analyzes the data (editorials) to explore the way in which the editor evaluates his propositions in terms of epistemic certainty, probability and possibility concerning Qatar crisis.
1) On June 22, the four countries issued a list of 13 demands against Qatar, including cutting its _alleged_ ties to terrorist organizations, shutting down Al

Jazeera and closing a small Turkish military base. (Text No.4, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

Hearsay adverbs such as *allegedly* express the speaker lack of commitment towards the truth of what is being said. According to Greenbaum (1969), the paraphrase of attitudinal disjunct such as *alleged* is also applicable which can contribute to a better understanding of these adverbs function (cited in Salkie, 2009: 271). Therefore, in example no.1, text no.4 indicated above, the modal adjective *alleged* marks the speaker's uncertainty of the truth value of the communicated proposition. It implies the epistemic meaning of possibility which bears the lowest value on epistemic scale. Accordingly, the editor is uncertain or it is possible for him, that Qatar has ties with terrorist organizations.

2) while president Trump has sided <u>*firmly*</u> with the countries leading the blockade. "We are having a dispute with Qatar", Mr. Trump said at a closed-door fund-raiser in Washington on Wednesday, according to audio recording leaked to the news site. After mocking what he called the country's preferred pronunciation of its name, he said, "I prefer that they do not fund terrorism". (Text No. 7, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

In terms of epistemic modality, these adjuncts denote the speaker or writer's certainty of the truth value of his proposition. Therefore, in the indicated above text no. 7, the attitudinal adverb *firmly* can be read epistemically as implying certainty with a high value on epistemic scale. It expresses the editor's conviction on the truth of what he proposes. Accordingly, the editor argues that it is certain that Mr. Trump has strongly sided himself with Saudi-led coalition. In this regard, American policy, headed by Mr. Trump, aligns itself with Arab quartet, and sees Qatar as real threat for American interests.

4.4.1.2 Deontic Modality
4.4.1.2.1. Negative Representation

Deontic modality refers to the way in which the proposition expressed by a demand is permissible, advisable or obligatory according to some standard backgrounds such as morality, convention and law. Like epistemic modality, deontic modality is concerned with what proposal means in prescribing and proscribing positive and negative poles. It can be classified along a scale of obligation to be differentiated into deontic necessity, advisability and permission. As deontic modality has much to do with authority, the speaker imposes his authoritative position with commitment as he lays obligation, gives permission and claims what is right or wrong. Accordingly, in terms of selected data, the editor imposes his claim that Qatar isolation is necessarily, advisably and permissibly unfair and undeserved.

1) Qatar, Doha- a young business executive <u>*had to*</u> cancel a $150,000 family vacation in Saudi Arabia. Another woman grumbled that the deliveries of designer fashions from the internet stores Net-a-Porter were taking several days longer to arrive. (Text No. 1, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

2) When four Arab nations blockaded Qatar's airspace and shipping channels last month in a bid to *force* it to drop its maverick foreign policy and shatter its influential TV station, Al Jazeera, there was an initial burst of panic as some supermarkets shelves emptied. (Text No. 2, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

Deontic modality is the modal system of obligation since it is concerned with the speaker's attitude to the degree of obligation attached to the performance of certain actions.

In the above text no.1, the modal marker *had to* indicates the deontic meaning of necessity which holds a high value on deontic scale. For the editor, imposing a siege on Qatar forces many companies, business men and normal people to receive unexpected loss on both camps. Likewise, a young Qatari business man was obliged to cancel a vacation deal to Saudi Arabia about $150,000. For now, Qatari citizens are prohibited from traveling in countries of GCC which grants all gulf citizens the freedom to travel, invest and live in its members. Here, Saudi Arabia and UAE broke all the laws and morals that GCC draws, since they impose un deserved embargo on Qatar.

Similarly, in text no. 2 the lexical verb *force* has the deontic meaning of necessity to lay obligation which marks higher value on deontic scale. This sentence can be understood with deontic interpretation of obligatorily certain action. According to the editor, dropping its maverick foreign policy and shuttering Al Jazeera channel is the necessary obligation that Qatar has to do. In other words, Qatar must get rid of its ambition to have an independent foreign policy, otherwise isolating Qatar's airspace and ships channels by the Saudi camp will continue. But Saudi camp's adherence to force Qatar to kneel is just a try which of course a storm in a teacup.

4.4.1.2.2. Positive Representation

In this subsection, the researcher finds out the way in which deontically Qatar isolation is represented positively in the editorials, i.e., the editor sees isolation Qatar is fair and deserving.

1) There is no question that Qatar *needs to* crack down harder on extremists and terrorists financing. (Text No. 21, New York Times, July 28, 2017).

Using deontic modality, the editor affiliates himself towards the degree of obligation attaches to the performance of certain actions. In the text no. 21 indicated above, the modal auxiliary *need* conveys the deontic meaning of necessity. This modal has a high value on deontic scale which signals the high authority of which the speaker has towards the action to be performed. Hence, the editor is armed with authority represents Qatar's commitment to cut its relation with extremism as something necessary to be achieved.

2) The evidence of Qatar involvement in funding and supporting Islamist militant groups in Syria is stronger. Both other Gulf states and private networks have been equally *irresponsible* in their channeling of support to Islamist militant insurgent groups for the past half-decade. (Text No. 35, Washington Post, July 14, 2017).

In the above text no. 35, the modal adjective *irresponsible* construes deontic meaning of advisability which has median value on deontic scale. The negative meaning of this marker implies the syntactic paraphrase of the same predicate as 'are not responsible'. According to the editor, it is advisable for Qatar and its rival UAE to be responsible for their international covenants in fighting extremism.

4.2.3.1 Results and Discussion

Type of Rep.	Epistemic Modality			Deontic Modality		
	Certainty	Probability	Possibility	Necessity	Advisability	Permission
Positive	14.28%	7.14%	9.52%	10.52%	5.26%	0%
Negative	31%	27%	37%	42%	21%	21%

Based on the results explained in figure No.1, epistemic and deontic modalities show that negative representation of Qatar crisis records the highest percentage compared with positive representation. In epistemic modality, the crisis is represented negatively in a high percentage of 72% in the U.S.A editorials, while it is represented positively in a low percentage of 28%. Similarly, in deontic modality, the negative representation records the highest percentage in 84%, while the lowest frequency is recorded by positive representation in 15%. This arises from ideological square through which the editors represent their group membership as positive and represent out group membership as negative, namely; US and Them. As the results explain, the editors emphasize negative things for the Saudi camp (Them) with a high percentage, and emphasize positive things for Qatar and U.S.A camp (US).

4.4.2 Presupposition

According to Yule (1996: 26), the symbol (>>) is used to presuppose. Hence it means presupposing propositions. For example;

Mary's dog is cute.

a. to presuppose (>>) Mary has a dog.

4.4.2.1 Negative Representation

The researcher tries to provide in each type of presupposition the examples that support the negative representation of the isolation, i.e., to explore the opaque ideology hidden within discourse.

1. a young business executive had to cancel <u>a $150,000 family vacation in Saudi Arabia.</u> Another woman <u>grumbled</u> that the deliveries of designer fashions from the internet stores Net-a-Porter were taking several days longer to arrive. (Text No. 1. New York Times, July 2, 2017).

a) Existential presupposition (>>A family vacation exists)

b) Lexical presupposition (>>the deliveries of designer fashions from internet stores were taking several days to arrive).

2. He intends to fly 4,000 cows to Qatar, <u>in what may be the biggest ever bovine airlift</u>. (Text No. 1. New York Times, July 2, 2017).

 a) Structural presupposition (>> It is the biggest bovine airlift).

In so far examples in text no.1, the presupposition types reveal what the editor presupposes in his treatment of Qatar crisis. In sentence (a), the existential presupposition 'family vacation' shows what the editor presupposes in his discourse. In one vacation, a Qatari family plans to have a $150,000 vacation Saudi Arabia, but it is obligatorily canceled in a consequence to Saudi/Emirati siege. In the sentence (b), the lexical presupposition triggered by the verb of judging (grumbled) presupposes that the editor judges something. In lexical presupposition the speaker assumes the information after such verb is already known as truth. Therefore, the editor assumes that the deliveries of designer fashions from the internet stores were taking several days longer to arrive. In the second example within the same text no.1, the structural presupposition triggered by 'what' reveals the information of which the editor presupposes to be true. Accordingly, the part of the structure after 'what' is assumed to be true. Hence, what is presupposed to be true is that Qatar is able to fly the biggest bovine airlift of 4,000 cows.

4.4.2.2 Positive Representation

In terms of editorials analysis, the researcher follows a procedure to explore the presupposition types used by the editors to represent Qatar isolation positively, i.e., the editors align themselves with the Saudi camp as one group members against Qatar.

1. while president Trump has sided firmly with the countries leading the blockade. "We are having a dispute with Qatar", Mr. Trump said at a closed-door fund-raiser in Washington on Wednesday, according to audio recording leaked to the news site. After mocking what he called the country's preferred pronunciation of its name. (Text No.7, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

a) Structural presupposition (>>Trump has sided firmly with the countries leading the blockade).

b) Factive presupposition (>>the country's preferred pronunciation of Qatar's name as fund-raiser is fact).

In example no.1, text no.7, the editor uses structural presupposition, stated in clause (a) triggered by temporal clause 'while' to assume that other meaning is regularly understood as true. This meaning presupposes the truth of the proposition that Mr. Trump has sided firmly with Saudi camp, i.e., the isolation is deserved. In clause (b), the realization of the factive verb 'called' triggers the factive presupposition which assumes the factuality of the information occurs after this verb.

2. Some American officials say Mr. Trump's policy is being driven by two advisors, Stephen K. Bannon, and Sabastian Gorka, who are firmly in the Saudi camp, and who see harsh punishment of Qatar as a warning to any country accused of indulging Islamists. (Text No.8, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

a) Existential presupposition (>>S. K. Bannon and S. Gorka are two existed advisers of Mr. Trump who are deriving his policy).

b) Structural presupposition (>> the two advisers are firmly with Saudi camp).
c) Factive presupposition (>>a harsh punishment of Qatar warns any country accused of indulging Islamists is a fact).

In example no.2, text no.8, there are different types of presupposition used to assume that Qatar is deservedly isolated. In clause (a), the existential presupposition is triggered by the proper nouns 'Bannon and Gorka' to assume the existence In clause (c), the factive presupposition denoted by the factive verb 'see' is used to assume the fact that a harsh punishment of Qatar warns any other country indulges Islamists. e of the two as advisers of Trump, who are deriving his policy towards the crisis. In clause (b), the non-restrictive relative clause triggers the structural presupposition to assume the truth of the proposition stated in this clause.

4.4.2.3 Results and Discussion

presupposition frequency shows that in negative representation it occurs (115) times, while in positive representation is about (26) times only. Within the types of presupposition, the existential presupposition records the highest number in both representations. It occurs 46 times in negative representation recording 40% percentage, while in positive representation it occurs 13 times with 50%. In addition, the type of presupposition which records the lowest number and percentages is the non-factive. In positive representation, it records zero number, and in negative representation is only (4) times with 3.47% percentage. This indicates that all types of presupposition are deployed in the texts of the USA editorials as good tools for moulding public opinion.

Type of presupposition	Positive Representation		Negative Representation	
	Numbers	percentages	Numbers	Percentages
Existential	13	50%	46	40%
Factive	3	11%	18	18.26%
Non-factive	zero	0%	4	3.47%
Lexical	4	15%	23	20%
Structural	5	19.23%	14	12.17%
Counterfactual	1	3.84%	7	6.8%
Total	26	18.43%	115	81.56%

4.4.3 Hyperbole (Lexical Choice)

For more interesting and reliable results, the category of comparison is excluded from hyperbole analysis. This due to its use as triggers to structural presupposition analysis in the previous section. It is also to avoid interference between the tools of analysis and repetition.

4.4.3.1 Negative representation

In terms of texts analysis, this section overviews the realization of hyperbolic forms that emphasize, overstate and exaggerate Qatar isolation negatively, i.e., editors see Qatar as strong ally to the United States, and Saudi camp is their opponent.

1. Others say they dislike the taste of the new Turkish milk in stores, preferring the old Saudi variety, but <u>a tycoon</u> offered a solution. He intends to fly 4,000 cows to Qatar, in what may be <u>the biggest</u> ever bovine airlift. (Text No.1, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

2. Qatar has been under a siege of sorts for the past month, but the <u>immensely</u> wealthy Persian Gulf nation is, so far feeling little pain… But that quickly subsided, and since then the gas-rich nation has deployed its formidable treasury to keep its 300,000 people in <u>luxurious comfort</u> to which they are accustomed. (Text No.2, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

In the above example no., text no.1, tow hyperbolic expressions are used, the noun *'a tycoon'* and the superlative from '*the biggest'*. These expressions indicate the way of which the editor exaggerates the Qatari abilities to escape the isolation. This idea of magnifying Qatar potency is reaffirmed in example no.2, text no.2, where the hyperbolic adverb *'immensely'* and the phrasal hyperbole *'luxurious comfort'* are deployed to boost this assumption. Editorially, Qatar is quantitively exaggerated as the immense wealth nation in Persian Gulf. This means that isolating such nation is something impossible, since its small population, 300, 0000, used to live in luxurious comfort.

4.4.3.2 Positive Representation

1. "We are having a dispute with Qatar", Mr. Trump said at a closed-door <u>fund-raiser</u> in Washington on Wednesday, according to audio recording leaked to the news site. After mocking what he called the country's preferred pronunciation of its name, he said, "I prefer that they do not fund terrorism". (Text No.7, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

In terms of group ideology, the editor emphasizes negative things and deemphasizes positive things of outgroup description, henceforth, Qatar. This is reflected in example no.1, text no.7, in which the phrasal hyperbole *'fund-raiser'* denotes the extremist description of negative feature Qatar has. It is hyperbolically described as raiser of funding terrorism. This negative description is stated by Mr. Trump, the official represener of the United States, which means that he stands Saudi camp against Qatar.

2. Some American officials say Mr. Trump's policy is being driven by two advisors, Stephen K. Bannon, and Sabastian Gorka, who are firmly in the Saudi camp, and who see <u>harsh punishment</u> of Qatar as a warning to any country accused of <u>indulging</u> Islamists. (Text No.8, New York Times, July 2, 2017).

In the second example, text no.8, the editor argues what happens inside the White House. Mr. Trump has two advisers who derive his policy towards the dispute. Those advisers have extreme stance against Qatar. Accordingly, the phrasal hyperbole *'harsh punishment'* denotes the over exaggerated meaning of which the speaker or writer intends to convey. It literally means the deserved punishment that Qatar needs to be given. In addition, the single hyperbole verb *'indulging'* denotes the overstated description of any country supports Islamists. Editorially, these two

hyperbolic expressions overstate emphasizing negative things to Qatar as negative other representation.

4.4.3.3 Results and Discussion

the results and findings show that the negative representation of Qatar crisis records the highest percentage in (79%), while the positive representation records (21%) as the lowest percentage. The hyperbolic expressions occur (56) times in the selected texts of the editorials, and the occurrences are distributed as (44) times for the negative description and (12) times for the positive one. Therefore, Qatar crisis is hyperbolically represented as negative, i.e., editors align themselves and American community with Qatar against Saudi camp.

Type of hyperbole	Positive Representation		Negative Representation	
	Numbers	percentages	Numbers	Percentages
Clausal	1	8 %	5	11%
Phrasal	3	25%	15	34 %
Single Word	7	58%	14	31.81%
Superlative	zero	-----	3	6.81%
Numerical	1	8 %	7	15.90%
Total	12	21%	44	79 %

5.1 Conclusions

Based on the fact that ideological implications, beliefs and social relations are represented through discourse, the ideological analysis of the selected text leads to conclude that editorialists employ linguistic tools to seed ideological representations in the minds of readers. Those editors make use of syntactic, semantic and stylistic tools such modality, presupposition and hyperbolic choice to implicitly or explicitly reflect ideological opinions through discourse. The findings and results of the analysis of these tools show that Qatar isolation is represented negatively in terms of ideological stance. In terms of ideological square, the editorialists, as ideologues, invest discourse to emphasize positive things to Qatar and emphasize negative things to Saudi camp. Within the two types of modality analysis, , namely; epistemic and deontic, the editors use different syntactic words to indicate different meanings. Ideologically, these meanings such as certainty, probability, possibility, necessity, advisability and permission are employed to represent Qatar isolation negatively.

Similarly, presupposition analysis of editorials texts shows that editors utilize different types of presupposition to assert the trueness and factuality of their propositions. These propositions reflect hidden ideologies in describing the of the negative aspects of Qatar isolation. In addition, the hyperbole analysis reveals the assortment of the lexical choice with which

the editors exaggerate and overstate isolating Qatar extremely. It is exaggerated as unworthy and springs from an old grudge of Saudi Arabia and Emirates. Accordingly, the editorialists ideologically overstate the deficiency of Saudi/Emirati hegemony over gulf and Arab World, and improve Qatar and USA ideology as dominant.

Meanwhile, the study verifies the eclectic model of van Dijk (1991) and Fairclough (1989) as a good tool to analyze the political discourse of editorials' texts to reveal the opaque ideologies hidden within discourse of these editorials.

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