Идиомы русского и китайского языков в политических текстах: корпусное исследование их функциональных и социальных аспектов

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Аннотация. Целью исследования является демонстрация связи между функциональными различиями идиом в политических текстах на русском и китайском языках и их социокультурными факторами. Для достижения этой цели было произведено сравнение использования идиом в политических текстах на китайском и русском языках из корпуса правительственных отчетов за последние три года. Исследование опирается на языковые модели функциональной лингвистики и культурный анализ. Научная новизна заключается в представлении модели культурного анализа CLDAM (Cultural-Linguistic Discourse Analysis Model), основанной на классической теории критического дискурсного анализа Н. Фэйрклафа (CDA) и интеграции функции языка Р. Якобсона и М. А. К. Халлидея. В рамках данного исследования впервые производится качественное и количественное сравнение фразеологических единиц двух стран в правительственных отчетах. Исследование показало явные различия в структуре, синтаксисе и языковых функциях идиом, используемых в политических документах России и Китая за последние три года. Эти различия обусловлены социальными факторами, такими как политическая структура, экономика, уровень образования аудитории и национальная философия.

Introduction

The relevance of the study. The transmission of cultural information through language goes beyond the surface-level meaning of the text and incorporates social cues relating to the individuals involved and surrounding context. The comprehensive acquisition of both explicit textual information and implicit social information presents a significant obstacle within the field of pragmatic and sociolinguistic studies. Consequently, it is crucial to integrate existing theoretical frameworks to establish a structured analysis of the intricate correlation between language (text, discourse, and language functions) and society, thus establishing a dependable basis for future sociolinguistic investigations.

Similar research has been carried out with the intention of drawing attention to social issues and advancing social progress. Fairclough’s theory of critical discourse analysis (CDA), which was introduced in the 1980s, highlights the significant relationship that exists between language and society. According to Fairclough (2013), language and social phenomena are interdependent and influential, thus necessitating a consideration of various factors, such
as historical background, political economic contexts, and cultural values. He asserts that social phenomena are part and parcel of language phenomena, which represent a unique type of social phenomenon. As such, critical discourse analysis offers a multidisciplinary approach that reveals how language shapes and reflects social relations, providing a distinct perspective and methodology for understanding the relationship between language and society. In recent years, extensive scholarly investigations have predominantly revolved around the empirical application of this theory in specific contexts. Notably, prominent research avenues have entailed the utilization of written and spoken corpora pertaining to three notable South African political party leaders (Mabela, Mann, Ditsele, 2020), media portrayal of hackers in China Daily and The New York Times (Pei, Li, Cheng, 2022), insightful analysis of Ghanaian feminist blogs (Nartey, 2021), meticulous scrutiny of American presidential debates conducted in anticipation of the presidential elections (Khalil, Abbas, 2018) and so on. However, it is crucial to further elaborate and refine the theory by systematically elucidating its concepts. Thus, it is necessary to construct an analytical framework based on classical theory and refine this model accordingly.

Research hypotheses: (1) differences exist in the frequency, grammar structure, and language functions of idioms employed in political texts in Chinese and Russian languages; (2) the Language Function Analysis Model discerns distinctions in the language functions demonstrated by political texts in these two languages; (3) by employing a Cultural-Linguistic Discourse Analysis Model (CLDAM), it becomes evident that cultural factors play a crucial role in accounting for any potential disparities observed in the usage of language within political texts of Chinese and Russian origins.

Research tasks: (1) to systematically classify cultural factors influencing language expression and integrate them into a comprehensive model; (2) to classify language functions according to their characteristics and purposes; (3) to collect Chinese government work reports and Russian national situation documents from the past three years, labeling them based on the established models; and conduct a detailed analysis of the functional differences in political texts between the two languages, considering cultural reasons.

Research methods: (1) establishment of models through literature review. The establishment of the two models in this study was undertaken using the rigorous Literature Review method. Specifically, Fairclough’s CDA theory was seamlessly integrated to form the comprehensive Cultural-Linguistic Discourse Analysis Model. Furthermore, Jakobson and Halliday’s influential language function framework was meticulously incorporated to develop the Meta-Linguistics Functions Model, enriching its theoretical foundation. (2) Combined qualitative and quantitative analysis for corpus classification, annotation, and statistics. To ensure a robust analysis of the corpus data, a judicious combination of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies was adopted. This blended approach allowed for meticulous classification, thoughtful annotation, and rigorous statistical analysis.

Corpus. The corpus includes the most recent State of the Nation addresses by the President of Russia of 2020, 2021, and 2023, with the exception of the year 2022 due to extenuating circumstances. Additionally, the dataset encompasses the three most recent Chinese Government Work Reports, which were respectively released in 2021, 2022, and 2023, and were obtained from the official websites of their corresponding governments (Table 1, Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Source: The State of the Nation addresses by the President of Russia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>Послание Президента Федеральному Собранию. URL: <a href="http://www.kremlin.ru/events/president/news/62582">http://www.kremlin.ru/events/president/news/62582</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Послание Президента Федеральному Собранию. URL: <a href="http://www.kremlin.ru/events/president/news/65418">http://www.kremlin.ru/events/president/news/65418</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2023</td>
<td>Послание Президента Федеральному Собранию. URL: <a href="http://www.kremlin.ru/events/president/transcripts/statements/70565">http://www.kremlin.ru/events/president/transcripts/statements/70565</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Source: The Chinese Government Work Report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2022</td>
<td>2022年政府工作报告. URL: <a href="http://www.gov.cn/zhuanti/2022hzfgzbg/index.htm">http://www.gov.cn/zhuanti/2022hzfgzbg/index.htm</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Procedure. The present study delineates a systematic four-step procedure employed to investigate the usage of idioms in governmental reports. Firstly, the six reports were subjected to sentence-level segmentation. Secondly, idioms were identified and tagged within each segmented sentence in the corpus. Thirdly, the internal structure and grammatical function of the idiomatic expressions were duly annotated within their respective sentences. The language functions underlying the use of idioms within the sentences were also annotated. Finally, the analysis culminates in the computation of the frequency of idiom usage, the percentage of the internal structures and grammatical positioning of idiomatic expressions, as well as the functional roles of idioms within the discourse context.

Theoretical framework. The field of critical discourse analysis is enriched by the seminal contributions of Fairclough (1992; 2001; 2013; Fairclough, Fairclough, 2011). In terms of categorizing cultural factors in language, noteworthy scholars such as Nida (1945) and Hymes (1964) have made significant progress. Additionally, the exploration of language functions has been extensively investigated by Jakobson (1960), Halliday & Matthiessen (2004). Furthermore, the study of other facets of language functionality has been pursued by Sapir (1929), Kramsch (2014), and Lakoff & Johnson (2003).

Practical implications. Established analytical models enable detailed comparative analysis of political texts, which can facilitate translation of political texts between Russian and Chinese languages and provide new perspectives for research into the language and culture of the two countries. This research outcome is applicable to teaching, helping students gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between language and social structure, and promoting cultural
exchange between Russia and China. The research materials can be effectively utilized in humanities-oriented university curriculum to facilitate the study of specialized courses and seminars on theoretical, practical, and comparative sociolinguistics. Furthermore, the data presented in this chapter holds significant potential as a valuable resource for textbooks that specifically emphasize idiomatic expressions and cultural topics.

Results and Discussion

Critical discourse analysis integrates the critical tradition of social analysis into language studies and provides a specific focus on discourse and the relationships between discourse and other social factors (such as power dynamics, ideologies, institutions, social identities, and so on). Critical social analysis can be seen as comprising normative critique (values and certain standards) and explanatory critique (reality, force, and mechanism) (Fairclough, 2013). Critical discourse analysis combines material and symbolic aspects (Fairclough, 2013), with symbols being integral components of social processes. By utilizing the methods of critical discourse analysis, one can clarify the relationship between discourse and other elements of social practice (Fairclough, 2001; 2013) and address language-related issues to solve social problems. This process involves analyzing text, the production process, distribution, and consumption of texts (Fairclough, 2015, p. 23; Kaur, Arumugam, Yunus, 2015), and socio-cultural analysis of discursive practice. The goal of critical discourse analysis is to emphasize the interplay of various forces that occur during the process of producing and reproducing meaning (Laily, 2022), highlighting the complex social and cultural factors.

In short, CDA is a versatile research methodology that can be applied across various disciplines, facilitating critical examination of diverse textual genres including advertisements (Butar, Pulungan, Husein, 2018; Sari, Noverino, 2021), government documents, newspaper and magazine articles, along with academic research reports. As suggested by Fairclough (2015), CDA enables a deeper exploration into the underlying factors contributing to social issues, which aids in the identification of their fundamental causes. Fairclough (1992; 2015) argues that critical discourse analysis is evaluated as a social and cultural analysis of text production, distribution, and consumption, which unifies text analysis and analysis of discursive practice. According to his theoretical framework, discourse analysis comprises three dimensions: textual dimension, discursive dimension, and social dimension (Fairclough, 1992, p. 62-75), corresponding to the three stages of description, interpretation and explanation (Fairclough, 2015, p. 26-27). Fairclough conducts a detailed analysis of the environment in which individuals operate, spanning from the micro to the macro level.

Nida (1945) proposes a theoretical framework to categorize cultural manifestations into five distinct domains: (1) ecology, (2) material culture, (3) social culture, (4) religious culture, and (5) linguistic culture. According to Nida’s cultural categorization, linguistic-cultural historical exchange serves as the foundation, while religious culture reflects beliefs and values associated with religion, material culture encompasses practices related to the production, use, and consumption of goods, social culture covers multiple levels such as social structure and values, and aesthetic culture involves the appreciation of aesthetic elements. Each of these cultural domains represents a unique aspect of human society and provides insight into the complexities of human behavior and interaction. Nida’s framework offers a comprehensive approach for analyzing and understanding the diverse expressions of culture across different communities and societies.

In addition, in Hymes’ (1964) “Introduction: Toward Ethnographies of Communication,” the concepts of communicative events, participants (addressee, addressee, or other receiver), setting, channel, modality, code and topic are identified as important in the study of communication ethnography. Communicative events involve not only linguistic form and content, but also participants, environment, and purpose. Participants are individuals or entities involved in a communicative event, including speakers, listeners, and audiences. The identity, background, and relationships of participants can influence the nature and outcome of communication events. Setting refers to the physical and social environment in which a communicative event takes place, including not only physical time, place, but also cultural context and social roles. The setting can have a profound impact on the meaning and effectiveness of communication events. Finally, strategy refers to the language (code and topic) and voice (channel) or behavior patterns (modalities) that participants choose and use in a specific communicative environment. Strategies can be deliberate and planned or unconscious and random, and can reflect the characteristics of different cultural backgrounds and social roles.

Drawing on the three theoretical frameworks for social analysis, we propose a comprehensive model that offers a more detailed and hierarchical approach to the study of social phenomena. This model enables a nuanced examination of cultural factors underlying social phenomena. In this context, we collectively refer to the study of social phenomena and related cognitive factors as “culture analysis”. The proposed model constitutes an important contribution to the field of cultural analysis, offering novel insights into the complexities of social phenomena and their underlying cultural processes. This model classifies language, speech practices, speech environments, modes of thought, and power structures into distinct layers (Figure 1, Table 3): (1) TEXT; (2) DISCOURSE; (3) PRACTICE; (4) IDEOLOGY; (5) FORCE, thereby preventing the confusion that may arise from conflating elements at every level. This model conducts multi-level analysis not only at the macro level but also at the micro level across all levels (the analysis in the following section is a part of the micro-level analysis of DISCOURSE).

Based on the inverted pyramid model, the covert layers of sociolinguistic analysis become progressively more intricate as one ascends the hierarchy. This progression is consistent with Fairclough’s notion of practical reasoning (Fairclough, Fairclough, 2011). If we take filmmaking as an example, then TEXT and DISCOURSE can be considered equivalent to a film script, while PRACTICE corresponds to the performance of actors within it. This includes actors, their roles, and the background of actors’ performances, all of which are influenced by the director behind the scenes (including in terms of values and social order). The TEXT function of language involves the depiction of linguistic features, such as semantics, grammar, and rhetoric, while DISCOURSE summarizes and generalizes the content.
of language texts. Social practice encompasses everyday activities and their associated environment that extend beyond the realm of communication text. IDEOLOGY includes values, aesthetics, morality, and other standards that communities uphold, which drive beliefs and values. As noted by Laily (2022), “Ideology is typically expressed and reproduced in communication and discourse, including nonverbal messages such as pictures, photos, and films.” The underlying FORCE behind ideology can be attributed to political, economic, geographical, religious, and other factors, representing the deepest layer beneath discourse. Overall, this model strives to achieve clear and non-overlapping boundaries in its classification.

Figure 1. Cultural-Linguistic Discourse Analysis Model (CLDAM)

Table 3. Composition of the Model’s Elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEXT</th>
<th>DISCOURSE</th>
<th>PRACTICE</th>
<th>IDEOLOGY</th>
<th>FORCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textual message</td>
<td>Intertextual message</td>
<td>Environment message</td>
<td>Concept</td>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar, lexicon</td>
<td>Topic, genre, styles, emotion, language meta-function</td>
<td>Actor, age, race, education, workplace</td>
<td>Standardization, value</td>
<td>Politics, religion, economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Script</td>
<td>Performance scenario</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the metalinguistic function is the most significant component of the discourse hierarchy in this model on the DISCOURSE level. It encompasses the language features of text to summarize the fundamental functions of language. Jakobson (1960) established a well-known framework for language functions based on six key factors in communication (Figure 2): referential function (conveying information), poetic function (enjoyment of language itself), emotive function (expressing attitudes, feelings, and emotions), conative function (persuasion and influence through commands and requests), phatic function (establishing communication with others), and metalingual function (clarifying intentions, words and meanings). The application of language functionality extends to various contexts. For example, literary works predominantly employ the poetic function, whereas spoken communication typically employs the conative function. Nevertheless, multiple functions may converge within the same context. Within the realm of literary works, aesthetic effects brought about by poetic function may coexist with informative functions that drive plot development and narration. Moreover, contextual functions, such as conative function and phatic function, may also be required in certain local situations. Thus, the functions of language are not mutually exclusive in static scenarios but rather complement each other on occasion.

Figure 2. Language Functions in Communication of Jakobson’s Theory (1960)

Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) categorized the functions of language into three main types: ideational (including logical, experiential aspects), interpersonal, and textual. In contrast to Jakobson’s classification, Halliday’s taxonomy is more succinct. Instead of classifying language functions based on contextual scenarios, Halliday categorizes them according to essential functions that are relevant across various situations. The ideational function is regarded as fundamental; however, as soon as language assumes an expressive form, it inherently incorporates the interpersonal function.

This article provides a summary of the core functions of language at the micro level, focusing on sentences and individual words or phrases within them and considering the unique characteristics of Russian and Chinese. These functions are classified into three categories (Table 4): informative, communicative, and aesthetic. Given the human memory pattern, it is recommended that information is categorized into three distinct classes, followed by further subcategorization based on their respective features. Informative sentences are typically declarative, incorporating adjectives, adverbs, numerals, nouns, or prepositional phrases. Action-related sentences predominantly feature verbs in the past or present tense, as they convey factual information. Compound sentences are linked with coordinating conjunctions and comprise both declarative and action-related sentences. Interpersonal sentences involve one or more participants, either with a focus
on self-expression using first-person pronouns and emotion-related vocabulary such as “like” and “dislike,” or with an emphasis on interactive communication involving second-person pronouns, imperative verbs, modal verbs, interrogative sentences, and expressions of good wishes. The aesthetic function is achieved by combining the above two functions to achieve literary effects, which can further be categorized into rhythmic and rhetorical functions.

Table 4. Elements of Meta-Linguistic Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFORMATIVE</th>
<th>Declarative sentences</th>
<th>adjectives, adverbs, numerals, nouns, prepositional phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Action-related sentences</td>
<td>verbs in the past or present tense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound sentences</td>
<td>conjunctions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| COMMUNICATIVE     | One participant | first-person pronouns, emotion-related vocabulary |
|-------------------| Two or more participants | second-person pronouns, imperative verbs, modal verbs, interrogative sentences, and expressions of good wishes |

| AESTHETIC         | Rhythmic           | word endings, syllables |
|-------------------| Rhetorical         | irony, personification |

Using rigorous statistical analysis, we have collected crucial data concerning a variety of linguistic aspects, including the frequency of vocabulary, sentences, and idioms. Additionally, our investigation yielded valuable information about the proportion of idiomatic expressions in relation to the total lexicon, as well as the internal and grammatical structures present in idioms used within sentences. Furthermore, we carefully examined the language function types of idiomatic expressions.

According to statistics, the 2020 Russian State of the Nation Address comprised 451 sentences and 7,560 words, featuring a total of 93 idiomatic expressions. In the following year’s address, there were 529 sentences and 7,966 words, with 106 idiomatic expressions. The 2023 address had 599 sentences and 10,544 words, including 96 idiomatic expressions.

As for the Chinese government reports, the 2021 report consisted of 506 sentences and 17,273 words, with only 17 idiomatic expressions. In the 2022 government work report, there were 544 sentences and 16,874 words, featuring 12 idiomatic expressions. The 2023 government work report contained 51 sentences and a total of 18,177 words, with 12 idiomatic expressions being used in its contents.

Furthermore, an interesting contrast emerged with regards to the frequency of idiomatic language used in the government reports between China and Russia, as evidenced by Figure 3. Specifically, the data suggests that Chinese government reports utilize idioms far less frequently compared to their Russian counterparts. These findings may have implications for cross-cultural communication and understanding, highlighting potential differences in rhetorical styles employed by different nations in their official communications.

Figure 3. Proportion of Idioms in the Total Number of Words from Chinese Texts and Russian Texts

Figure 4. Internal Structure of Russian Idioms
According to Figure 4, the latest three national reports in Russia have demonstrated a significant prevalence of prepositional and verbal phrases. Examples of prepositional phrases include “в связи” (in connection), “при этом” (in this regard), “в интересах” (in the interests of), “в свою очередь” (in turn), while verbal phrases include “брать на себя” (take upon oneself), “собственно говоря” (actually), “вступить в силу” (come into effect), “поднимает на ноги” (get on one’s feet), “играть роль” (play a role), “внести свой вклад” (make a contribution), and “идти вперёд” (go ahead) et al. The components of idiomatic structures differ in terms of their parts of speech, and even expressions of the same type can be combined in different ways.

**Figure 5. Grammatical Functions of Idioms in Sentences from the Russian President’s State of the Nation Address**

According to the results depicted in Figure 5, it can be inferred that idiomatic expressions used in political discourse over the past three years predominantly function as adverbials, predicates, and conjunctions within sentences. Additionally, the utilization of idioms as adverbials has been obviously consistently observed during this period. These findings have crucial implications for enhancing our comprehension of the role played by idioms in political discourse.

**Figure 6. Language Functions of Idioms in the Russian President’s State of the Nation Address**

The analysis of Figure 6 reveals that the language functions employed in the national reports over a span of three years are largely declarative (Information Function 1) and conductive (Information Function 3), exhibiting an enduring trend throughout the period. These results indicate a persistent utilization of these language functions to convey information within the framework of the national report.

**Figure 7. Internal Structure of Idioms in the Chinese Government Work Report (Categorized by Chinese Classification)**
Based on the analysis of Figure 7, it is evident that attributive and coordinative structures have been predominantly utilized in constructing internal idioms within Chinese government reports for three consecutive years. Illustrative examples of such structures include “难能可贵” (rare and precious), “突如其来” (come unexpectedly), “量力而行” (act according to one’s capabilities), and “尽力而为” (do one’s best). Due to the unique characteristics of Chinese characters, there are significant differences in idiom structures between Chinese and English or Russian. Thus, by reclassifying them according to the structural patterns found in English or Russian (Figure 8), it can be observed that Verb Phrases are the most prevalent type of phrase in Chinese government reports.

![Figure 8. Internal Structure of Idioms in the Chinese Government Work Report (Categorized by Russian Classification)](image)

According to the analysis presented in Figure 9, it is evident that idioms are predominantly employed as predicates within sentence structures in Chinese government reports.

![Figure 9. Grammatical Functions of Idioms in Sentences from the Chinese Government Work Report](image)

As depicted in Figure 10, our study of Chinese government work reports spanning three years reveals that idiomatic expressions serve two primary functions: declarative (Information Function 1) and action-related (Information Function 2). This discovery is closely linked to the distinct features of the Chinese language and the role of idioms within it.

![Figure 10. Language Functions of Idioms in the Chinese Government Work Report](image)

As depicted in Figure 8, it is evident that verb phrases are the most prevalent idiomatic expressions used in Chinese government work reports, functioning primarily as predicates within sentences. In contrast, Russian employs prepositional phrases as the most common idioms, typically operating as adverbials within sentences. Due to the high information density of the Chinese language, a single character or word can convey the basic meaning of an idiom, such as “坚持” (insist) replacing “毫不动摇” (not waver in the least) or “锲而不舍” (stick to sth. with persistence), and “团结” (be united) being used in place of “齐心协力” (work together with one will). As such, idiomatic expressions are used sparingly in political texts, considering the text’s characteristics and intended audience.
Semantically, Chinese idioms utilized in government reports avoid words related to religion, such as "神" (God). This practice reflects China’s socialist values and commitment to religious freedom while avoiding the use of religious language in official government documents. Instead, the frequent usage of words such as “坚持” (insist) reflects the influence of Confucianism within Chinese culture. Conversely, the President’s State of the Nation Address includes religious terminology, such as “6or” (God), which is commonly used in religious contexts in Russia. This points to the significant role that religion plays in Russian society, where such words have become integrated into everyday language.

**DISCOURSE**

Based on the findings presented above, it is evident that idiomatic verb phrases in Mandarin Chinese government reports serve a dual function of conveying information and describing specific aspects of information. This is indicated by their ability to perform Information Functions 1 and 2, as exemplified by the phrase “突如其来” (come unexpectedly), which describes a specific aspect of information (the COVID-19 pandemic), and “官僚主义” (bureaucrat-ism), which conveys objective information. In contrast, prepositional phrases in Russian presidential addresses do not carry much significant semantic content but primarily serve as connectors for structural logic. They predominantly perform Function 3 (connective function) while also conveying information, such as the use of “ прежде всего” (first of all) or the phrase “так называемый” (so-called).

The distinct functions of idiomatic expressions in Russian and Chinese reflect the unique characteristics of each language. Specifically, Chinese idioms do not serve as connectors within a sentence, unlike their Russian counterparts. It should be emphasized that in the Russian report, idioms perform communicative functions, whereas they do not in the Chinese report. This distinction is related to the grammatical features of Russian verbs, where the subject can be inferred from the verb’s ending, allowing for determination of a verb’s communicative function. In contrast, Chinese does not possess this feature. Additionally, when used in conjunction with other verbs, Chinese verbal idioms tend to appear in the second position and function as imperatives (e.g., “坚持” (insist)), which weakens their communicative function compared to other verbs.

**PRACTICE**

The utilization of idiomatic expressions in government reports exhibits marked variation contingent on the target audience. The Chinese government work report, for instance, seeks to address the entire citizenry, whilst the Russian State of the Nation Address is tailored toward the elites of the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation. In specific terms, the former report is primarily designed to engage representatives of the National People’s Congress and government functionaries at all levels with the goal of briefing them on the government’s recent accomplishments, offering evaluations of these achievements, and outlining prospective developmental paths. Conversely, the latter is delivered by the President of Russia during a joint session of the Federal Assembly (comprising the State Duma and the Federation Council) and is aimed at both legislators and the elites at large. The primary areas of focus revolve around national developmental strategies and policy initiatives.

**IDEOLOGY**

The use of Chinese idioms in political discourse reflects the dominant Confucian culture in China, which emphasizes etiquette, unity, and perseverance. The idiom "qí xīn xié lì" (齐心协力) (work together with one will) exemplifies the spirit of collective cooperation and joint efforts, which are concrete expressions of Confucian ideals such as benevolence and the importance of community. The Chinese culture celebrates teamwork and collaboration over individualism, highlighting the significance of working together to achieve success. This idiom reinforces that it is only through team effort that great achievements can be made. Another Chinese idiom, “qì ér bù shě” (锲而不舍) (stick to sth. with persistence), emphasizes the importance of persistence and perseverance, reflecting the Confucian values of keeping lofty ambitions and diligently managing household affairs. It encourages individuals to stay true to their goals and remain persistent, even in the face of difficulties or setbacks. By maintaining their original intentions and persistently pursuing their objectives, individuals can ultimately achieve their life ideals. Similarly, the idiom “bái zhé bù náo” (百折不挠) (never yield despite reverses) highlights the willpower and unswerving belief of not yielding under pressure, which echoes the Taoist ideals of going along with nature and not forcing things. This idiom reminds individuals that they must maintain their resolve in the face of continuous setbacks and challenges. They must remain steadfast in their beliefs, move forward courageously, and ultimately overcome all obstacles.

Summing up, the use of Chinese idioms in political discourse not only reflects unique cultural values but also serves as an effective way to convey and reinforce key messages. Through their usage, politicians can inspire and motivate their audiences to strive towards their shared goals and ideals.

**FORCE**

In terms of political systems, China is a socialist country with a people’s congress system led by the Communist Party. In contrast, Russia is a federal republic with a political system composed of three parts: the president, government, and parliament. The president holds the highest power and serves as the top leader in Russia. Hence, there exists a notable disparity in the targets encountered by these two nations. The former predominantly pertains to the general populace led by the proletarian class, whereas the latter encompasses individuals who serve as representatives of the privileged elite.

Both countries are currently in the developmental stage and are facing numerous challenges, it is unsurprising that there is a prevalent use of idiomatic expressions (“锲而不舍” (stick to sth. with persistence); “ шаг за шагом” (step by step)) denoting overcoming difficult situations within the text. Nonetheless, such an observation may highlight the need for a more diverse range of linguistic devices in conveying complex ideas in a nuanced manner.
These differences in political and economic systems reflect different approaches to governance and development in these two countries. While China emphasizes government guidance and control over the economy, Russia leans towards market-oriented policies. These differing models have implications for social and cultural practices within each society, such as attitudes towards individualism and collectivism, as well as priorities in national development strategies.

Overall, understanding these differences in political and economic systems is crucial for comprehending the distinct social and cultural practices and norms of China and Russia. The reality of society is reflected through language, and we can trace the threads of value and power through language clues.

Language has value in anthropology and cultural history, as well as the scientific study of a given culture, “social reality,” and psychology (Sapir, 1929; Kramsch, 2014). Language has long been recognized for its political nature, as noted by Spolsky (1998). In fact, the primary aim of Discourse Analysis is to uncover the underlying political tendencies and purposes that are manifested through language, as Wang (2015) has observed. Language can facilitate understanding the influence of ideas and values. We judge the differences in social values through the differences in vocabulary and grammar, which often focus on words with positive or negative reference systems. The most fundamental values in a culture are coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture. For example, some cultural values in our society are coherent with our UP-DOWN spatialization metaphors (Lakoff, Johnson, 2003, p. 22).

Our findings contribute to the broader field of cross-cultural communication and highlight the importance of considering linguistic variation in sociopolitical contexts. As such, our research has important implications for policymakers, linguists, and scholars interested in exploring the relationship between language, culture, and society. Future research should include other types of political text and mine their social truths through linguistic features to address societal issues and realize the full potential of linguistics for further investigation.

Conclusion

Therefore, we draw the following conclusions:

1. Based on the integration of theoretical constructs from previous studies, the Cultural-Linguistic Discourse Analysis Model has been developed to analyze cultural and social characteristics. Factors that influence language expression include the participants of discourse (age, education level, occupation, etc.), underlying cognitive processes (concepts, values), and underlying forces behind discourse (politics, economy, religion, etc.). The integration of the theoretical constructs of previous studies has resulted in the CLDAM for analyzing cultural and social characteristics that aids in obtaining social information from textual and discourse data.

2. According to the model of language functions, language encompasses three key functionalities: informative function, communicative function, and aesthetic function. The informative function serves as the fundamental purpose, while the latter two represent more advanced aspects. Each functionality corresponds to distinct modes of expression. A comparison of these two languages’ systems of idiomatic expressions in government reports reveals differences in their language functions, corresponding audience education levels, social strata, and the political-economic systems of the respective countries.

3. Based on the collected data and analysis, it can be observed that there are significant differences in the frequency, linguistic structure, and functional aspects of idiomatic expressions between Russian State of the Nation Addresses and Chinese Government Work Reports. Idioms are used more frequently in the former compared to the latter. In Chinese, idiomatic structures mostly consist of verb phrases and serve informative functions (declarative and action-related information). In contrast, prepositional phrases are the most common idiom structure in Russian, performing informative functions (declarative and sentence-combining information). These disparities can be attributed to cultural divergences between the two nations, which makes the use of this model advantageous for conducting an in-depth analysis of these distinctions.

Moreover, learning and mastering idiomatic expressions can expand vocabulary and improve Chinese and Russian proficiency, deepen understanding of Chinese and Russian culture and social practice, and force and enhance language awareness and communication skills. The sociolinguistic study of language functions sheds light on the application of language in different fields, and teaching difficult-to-learn idiomatic expressions should consider their social elements to aid comprehension.

Overall, this sociolinguistic study provides insight into how language functions in different fields and underscores the significance of cultural and social context in language analysis. The CLDAM provides a valuable framework for analyzing cultural and social characteristics in textual and discourse data, leading to a better understanding of linguistic phenomena in different societies. In future research, using the models, it will be possible to conduct multimodal political discourse analysis (Media & Pure Political Text).

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Информация о статье | About this article

Дата поступления рукописи (received): 06.06.2023; опубликовано online (published online): 30.08.2023.

Ключевые слова (keywords): идиоматическое выражение; политика; анализ дискурса; Китай; Россия; idiomatic expression; politics; discourse analysis; China; Russia.