

THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS WORLD

The international journal of language learning and applied linguistics world is a double-blind peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language teaching and applied linguistics.



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ISSN: 2289-2737 (online)

ISSN: 2289-3245 (print)

*The International
Journal of Language
Learning and Applied
Linguistics World*

(IJLLALW)
(IJLLALW)

Volume 2 (3), March 2013

ISSN: 2289-2737 (online)

ISSN: 2289-3245 (print)



IJLLALW

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PERCEIVED PROBLEMS IN USING COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING (CLT) BY EFL IRANIAN TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

According to Harmer (2001:86) CLT is prejudiced in favor of native-speaker teachers by demanding a relatively uncontrolled range of language use on the part of the students, and thus expecting the teachers by demanding them to be able to respond to any and every language problem which may come up. In this paper thus, it was tended to find out whether Iranian EFL high school teachers are at ease when using CLT in their classes or not. That is, whether Iranian teachers are capable of utilizing comprehensive approach named CLT in their classes to achieve its ultimate goal, communication in real context. 50 participant teachers teaching English at high school were given a questionnaire to express their view points about the probable difficulties they might encounter when using CLT. In addition to the questionnaire, each teacher was interviewed for about 5 minutes so they might express their ideas live on the probable constraints in applying CLT in their genuine classes. Then the data collected by means of the interview and the questionnaires were analyzed. It was concluded that the main sources of problems in CLT implementation by the Iranian EFL teachers are: problems caused by the teachers, difficulties coming from the students, pitfalls created by the educational system, and hurdles caused by the CLT approach itself.

KEY WORDS: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

INTRODUCTION

The history of language teaching has been characterized by a search for more effective ways of teaching second or foreign languages. For more than a hundred years, debate and discussion

within the teaching profession have often centered on issues such as roles of grammar in language curriculum, the development of accuracy and fluency in teaching, teaching productive or receptive skills, motivating learners and the role of materials and technology (to name only a few hotly debated issues). Based on many debates and discussions raised about the nature of language learning and teaching over the years one can obviously perceive the complex nature of language learning and teaching in turn.

One good indication of this is the emergence of different "isms" over nearly each one or two decades in the history of language learning and teaching. To cut it short so far researchers can not propose a method of language teaching as the mere panacea to solve all the problems in the field. However, the most comprehensive language teaching approach is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Based on Richards (2001:155) both American and British proponents now see it as the most comprehensive approach and a method that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Its comprehensiveness thus makes it different in scope and status from any of the other approaches or methods known so far.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), also known as the Communicative Approach, emerged in Europe and the USA in the 1970s. In the late twentieth century, it became the dominant paradigm within Western ELT and applied linguistics, so much so, in fact, that to admit to a disbelief in CLT would be regarded as 'heresy' (Brown, 2007). It has as most readers will be aware, been 'exported' and promoted around the world in a variety of cultural and educational contexts and with greater and lesser degrees of success.

The origins of CLT are generally traced to a changing view of language, away from language structures towards language functions and communication, philosophically, the focus on learners as individuals, which we have seen previously within the Direct Method and Humanistic language teaching (Crookes, 2009). CLT also emerged in a period when more people than ever were crossing international borders for work, and had immediate functional language needs.

CLT is in some ways problematic as the term means different things to different people and everyday classroom practices can appear to be quite different when CLT principles are applied in different social and educational contexts. Thus, CLT can be seen as an umbrella term that describes a change in thinking about the goals and processes of classroom language learning (Savignon, 2004) with a number of interpretations of how this might be realized in practice. Key to all strands of CLT, however, is the move from teaching language as individual linguistics structures to teaching people how to use language effectively when communicating, in effect a move from teaching linguistic competence to communicative competence.

Communicative competence essentially suggests that teaching learners to form grammatically correct sentences is not enough, Learners also need to be able to use language appropriately in a variety of contexts (Hymes, 1972). Hence, in essence, the goal of CLT is to teach 'real-life' language.

The communicative approach—or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)—is the name which was given to a set of beliefs including not only an examination of what aspects of language to teach, but also a shift in emphasis in how to teach. The "how to teach aspect" of CLT approach

based on Harmer (2001:85) is closely related to the idea that language learning will take care of itself and that plentiful exposure to language in use and plenty of opportunities to use it are vitally important for a student's development of knowledge and skill. But this is always easier said than done. Since despite the fact that CLT have now become a generalized "umbrella" term to describe learning sequences which aim to improve the students' abilities to communicate, it has come under severe attack from many fronts.

As it was mentioned, CLT starts with a theory of language as communication, and its ultimate goal is to develop learners' communicative competence. Based on Hewings (2001:150) in CLT, meaning is paramount. According to Larsen- Freeman (2003:131) the most obvious characteristics of CLT is that, almost all that is done with a communicative intent. A number of reports in the literature deal with CLT innovations in EFL contexts. Many have proposed that most EFL teachers have found it difficult to use CLT. For instance, Burnaby and Sun (1989) reported that teachers in China found it difficult to deploy CLT. The constraints cited include the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class size and schedules, resources and equipment, the low status of teachers who teach communicative rather than analytical skills, and English teachers deficiencies in oral English and sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Many other studies and researches have shown that it is not that much easy for the teachers specially the EFL teachers to utilize CLT as an asset to reach the final goal of language teaching in their context with their students. Based on a study that assessed the attitudes of Hong Kong educators toward using CLT in the local context, Chau and Chung (1987) reported that teachers used CLT only sparingly because it required too much preparation time. Since the emergence of CLT the only group of people having difficulty using it are not the teachers. Students are also to be taken into account in this case. Sano et al (1984) point out that the Japanese students studied generally did not feel pressing need to use English, therefore the goal of communicative competence seemed too distant for them. A study conducted in Vietnam identified class size, grammar-based examinations, and lack of exposure to authentic language as constraints on using CLT (Ellis; 1994). As this brief review indicates because of many problems CLT as the most known comprehensive approach in language teaching has proved difficult to be implemented on the part of teachers of English as a Foreign Language.

It has been suggested that many communicative activities are not, in fact, any more 'genuine' than activities out forward by other methods. For example, asking someone to give directions while working in a classroom pair-work activity does not serve any authentic communicative and language are removed from their original context outside the classroom into a learning context, they may become inherently artificial (Widdowson, 1998). Similarly, an over-emphasis on the exchange of messages-any messages- within the classroom may lead to the entail for English language teachers' professional status (Pennycook, 1990: V. Cook, 2008). Last, but by no means least, it has been suggested that CLT is not appropriate for all cultures and contexts (Bax2006), for example where learner autonomy, pair and group-work and less obvious teacher intervention is not part of the educational tradition.

Despite this criticism, however, CLT seems to offer teachers significant alternatives for their everyday teaching practices. Undoubtedly, its conception of language as communicative

competence strikes a chord with many teachers and applied linguists, even if the process for achieving this is at time potentially problematic.

Based on the above mentioned facts about CLT, its scope and status CLT has proved difficult to implement in EFL classrooms. For this reason I undertook a case study of Iranian high school English teachers understanding of the uptake of CLT.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants in this study were 50 high school English teachers. 32 male and 18 female subjects ranged from 32 to 48 years in age. Their experience in English teaching varied from 6 to 22 years with an average of over 10 years. At the time of the study, 18 female participants were teaching the high school students in different high- schools in various grades. This was also the case for the male teachers. The group of teachers filling out the questionnaire were participating in an intact in-service program. So they were not randomly selected, but it was assumed that based on their experience in teaching English as an EFL, they could be representative sample of the EFL teachers teaching in the same context. Based on the researchers' familiarity with most of these teachers were mostly among the more successful teachers in their classes.

Instruments

In order to tap these teachers' personal view points about the probable problems they might have experienced using CLT in their real classes first a written questionnaire was used. This questionnaire (see the appendix 2) included both open-ended questions and questions with fixed alternatives. Each participant was required to give his personal ideas in the form of responses to the open-ended questions and choose either "yes" or "no" for the fixed response questions. The participants were also required to be interviewed on the part of the researcher. The questionnaire used in the study has been developed and pilot studied for issues of reliability and validity on the part of Defeng Li (2001). The interviews were conducted in a systematic and consistent order but letting researchers as the interviewers have sufficient freedom to digress and probe far beyond the answers to the prepared and standardized questions in the questionnaire.

Data collection procedure

To collect the empirical data necessary for this study a questionnaire was distributed among the 50 teachers participating in the research. They provided both open answers and alternative answers to the open ended and "yes", "no" questions respectively. Then, to hear their personal views the researcher asked each one to have a 5 minute interview with him.

The data obtained both from the written questionnaires and the oral interviews were carefully analyzed. Since data analysis is not a simple description of the data collected but a process by which the researcher can bring interpretation to the data, the themes and coding categories in this study emerged from an examination of the data rather than been determined before hand and imposed on the data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

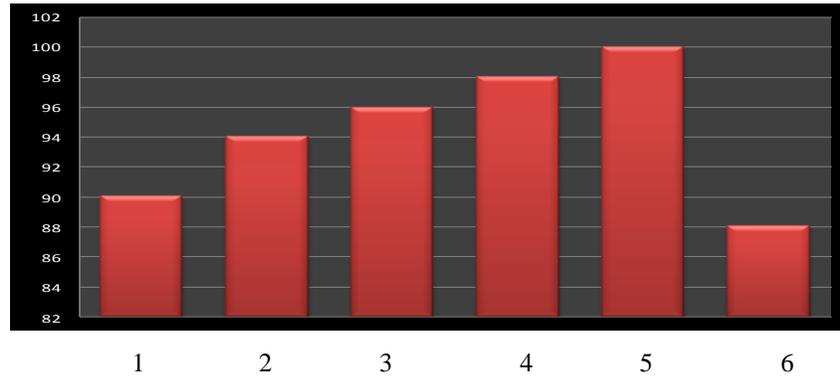
The problems in using CLT reported by participant teachers in this study fall into four types: Some may be caused by the teacher. Some others may be created by the students. The third class may come on the part of the educational system. The last but not the least problems might probably be caused by CLT itself.

Problems on the part of CLT teacher

Lack of training in CLT.

- Misconceptions about CLT.
- Deficiency in spoken English.
- Few chances for retraining in CLT.
- Deficiency in sociolinguistic and strategic competence.
- Lack of enough time for materials development for communicative class

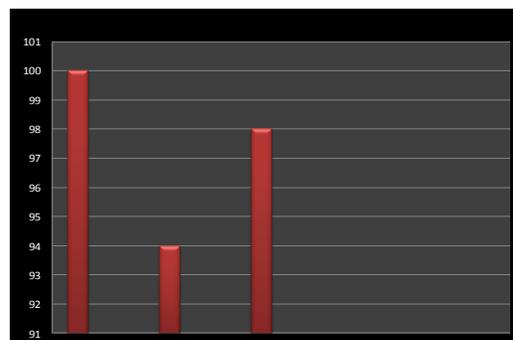
Figure 1: The percentage of teachers' views on problems raised on the part of Iranian EFL Teachers in using CLT in their real classes mentioned above



Problems caused by the students

- Low English proficiency.
- Resistance to class participation.
- Lack of motivation for communication.

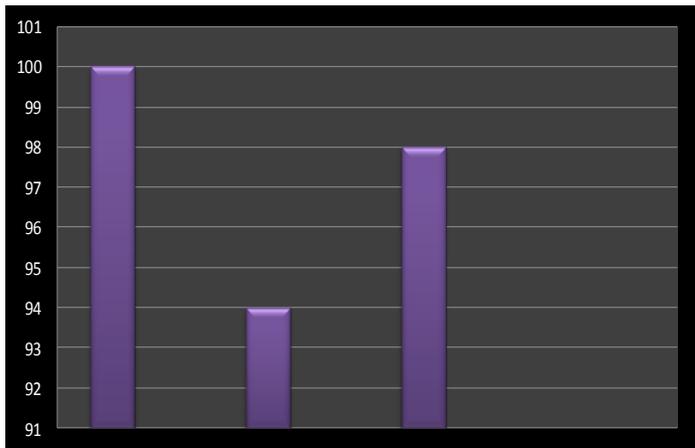
Figure 2: The percentage of teachers' views on problems caused by the students when Iranian EFL Teachers tend to use CLT in their classes



Educational problems

- Lack of budget.
- Crowded classes.
- Insufficiency of support.
- Grammar-focused exams.

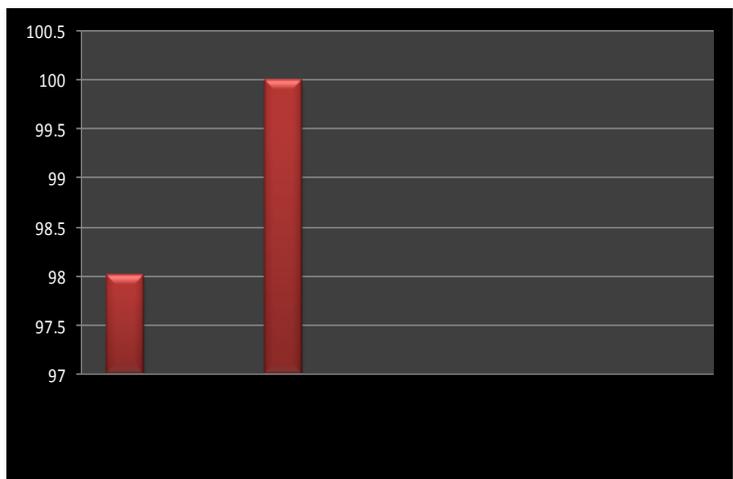
Figure 3: The percentage of teachers' views on Educational problems when Iranian EFL Teachers tend to utilize CLT in their actual classes



Created problems by CLT

- Lack of efficient assessment instruments.
- Inadequate account of EFL teaching in CLT.

Figure 4: The percentage of teachers' views on created problems by CLT itself when Iranian EFL Teachers are going to apply CLT



The number of times the research subjects reoffered to a theme in either the questionnaire or the interview as a limitation in CLT implementation in their own classes is to be taken into account. The maximum number of mentions possible for each of the themes involved in the four main types of problems is 48 out of 50 participants considered that their own deficiency in oral English constrained them in using CLT in their classes. Generally, it seems that one of the important requirements on the part of the teachers intending to use CLT is a good command of spoken

English. Although the teachers felt that they were highly proficient in English grammar, writing, and reading, almost all of them reported that their inadequate abilities in spoken English did not let them conduct the communicative classes essentially involved in CLT.

All participants reported that their insufficient strategic and sociolinguistic competence in using English for real communication to achieve genuine purposes in real context would inhibit their use of CLT. This is because of the fact that in CLT classes greater emphasis is given to strategic and sociolinguistic competence than in traditional grammar or structure focused classes. That is to say; being capable enough in application of these two communicative competences is a must to be able to communicate in real context for real purposes.

45 out of 50 subjects also reported that one of the main problems in utilizing CLT on the part of them is lack of enough training in CLT. Most of them told that they had heard only the name of CLT and few of them reported that they have studied some chapters on CLT but that is only in the books. It seems that this lack of systematic training in CLT led to a sketchy and fragmental understanding of CLT and made it unsafe for the instructors, to leave the security of the traditional methods and take the risk of trying a new unfamiliar method.

47 respondents referred to teacher's misconceptions about CLT as one of the principal roadblocks. A usual misunderstanding was that by focusing on appropriateness and fluency, CLT does not teach form at all and thus neglects accuracy. But based on many experts in the field of language teaching in CLT both fluency and accuracy receive emphasis. From among all these Larsen–freeman's conception worth mentioning as she points out that a CLT teacher evaluates not only the students' accuracy but also their fluency (Freeman; 2003:132). Many teachers probably think that CLT does not teach grammar and only teaches speaking. Such misunderstanding led teachers to believe that CLT contradicted their beliefs about language learning and did not allow them to prepare students for the various exams that are of crucial importance to their future careers.

Almost all English textbooks available (before the publication of the new series of text books accompanying publications of the communicative curricula) had been developed under the influence of the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods. So teachers had to write their own materials and design their own activities if they wanted to use CLT. Iranian teachers and textbooks are not also exceptions. 44 out of 50 underpaid and over worked teachers as participants of this study complained about the lack of time and expertise in designing communicative activities.

All 50 teachers reported that one main problem preventing them from applying Communicative Language Teaching was their students' low proficiency in English. Iranian students do not start learning English until after the five years period of elementary school (Grade one junior high school), and they have only one or two 90 minute English classes per week and this makes progress slow. They usually suffer from their small English vocabulary and little command of English structures. Since Iranian students do not often have the necessary proficiency in English, all participant teachers found it difficult to do any oral communicative activities with them.

For this most participants expressed their view points as such; because the average secondary school students have a very small English vocabulary, and they know limited number of English structures, they have great difficulty expressing themselves in English when they are required to participate in genuine communicative exchanges. Gradually they lose interest in trying to speak English and become too discouraged to speak English any more.

Nineteen out of twenty teachers recognized the lack of motivation on the part of the students to work on their communicative competence as a great hindrance. Though a large number of people including students in our country have a great inclination to learn to express themselves in oral English, most of the participants reported that since their students' goal is to enter the university, they prefer to work on English grammar and vocabulary. This might be the case because in the national university Entrance Exam in Iran the part dealing with English is heavily based on grammar and lexis. "Because of the fact that grammar and lexis in isolation (in the form of discrete multiple choice test items) still play a decisive role in all English examinations in our country, teachers who teach communicative competence are not liked as well as those who teach grammar and lexis in isolation".(The idea was expressed by one of the participant teachers in this study).

47 out of 50 respondents believed that the students' resistance to class participation was one of the primary constraints in trying to use CLT. Believe it or not almost all of us are the product of traditional classroom structures; that is, we have mostly been brought up in teacher fronted classes. That is why; it proves a bit difficult to bring up our students while giving them ample opportunities to be active participants in real communicative activities. "Well, paragraphs, pages, chapters and even books have been written down on the importance of student centered classes but it seems that we teachers are still the class dictators" one of the respondents said. However; one main feature of CLT according to Richards (2001:168) is that it requires teachers to acquire less teacher-centered classroom management skills.

Communicative Language Teaching has proved to be more successful in small classes. That is why people like Richards (2001:168) also clearly state that there must at most be 12 students in a CLT class. This might be necessary to give every one in the class more time and opportunities to participate in real communication activities. Unfortunately, no one of the participant teachers claimed to have English classes with less than 25 students in. And this they believed makes the job even thornier.

As it was previously mentioned most of our English examinations are grammar and lexis based. The biggest of these life procedure determinant exams is the National University Exam given to the students each year. Based on this fact most of the subjects (48 out of 50) believed that, they are under the pressure to make their pupils do well on such tests, often devoting valuable class time to teaching test-taking skills and drilling students on multiple-choice items. Based on the above mentioned fact the reader can judge how our teachers are under sever constraints in CLT application.

Lack of enough funding was also mentioned as a great limitation in CLT utilization (44 out of 50 teachers reported this). Obviously CLT needs ideal classes with as less students as possible. It also needs some equipment including a TV set, a computer, and so many other things not to be mentioned here. Some of the teachers believed that it is always more difficult to apply CLT because of the lack of money which is not always there. So "it's much harder than you plan and imagine." one of the respondents said.

We teachers are not also supported by each other. 43 respondents also proposed the lack of support as an important limitation to the teachers in CLT application. Teachers generally found this lack of professional, administrative, and collegial support discouraging. That is why they mainly lose hope in dealing with the challenges of introducing CLT in their classes.

CLT does not give a sufficient account of EFL teaching though its initial growth in foreign language teaching accounted for that (Hewing; 2001:160). Obviously EFL is different from ESL. Yes, many people tend to confuse them and often ignore the special elements of EFL. One of the participants in this study rightly said that "because EFL and ESL teaching are different we often find Western language teaching methods difficult to use". The significant difference that almost all the teachers saw between EFL and ESL included the goal of learning English, contextual situation, teachers' command of English proficiency, and the availability of authentic English materials.

Another problem cited on the part of 49 participants in this study as a constraint in using CLT is its lack of effective assessment instruments. Larsen–Freeman (2003:132) when dealing with the evaluation of the CLT students points out that the student who has the most control of the structures and vocabulary is not always the best communicator. That is why she proposes that a teacher can informally evaluate his students' performance in his role as an advisor or co–communicator. She further explains that in order to assess students writing skill, for instance, a teacher might ask them to write a letter to a friend. However, it seems not to be easy to evaluate our students when we use CLT to teach by.

Based on the above mentioned facts one can see the difficulty and the lack of clear cut assessment procedures in CLT. Imagine you are teaching 6 (sometimes more) classes a week. Then you have to be busy enough during the week. If you are so optimistic there might be at least 200 students in your classes. If you are going to follow the procedures of CLT to evaluate your pupils efficiently, it seems hard job, right? One other major difficulty is the fact that most our standard tests emphasize the objectivity nature of our scoring and evaluation procedures. Something that does not seem to be very reasonable in CLT.

CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The aim of the present study was to see if EFL teachers in general and Iranian EFL teachers in particular can apply CLT procedures in their EFL teaching context successfully. Based on the findings of this study one can speculate about the perceived difficulties in utilizing CLT demands and what the EFL situation in many countries allows. This contradiction must be resolved before EFL teaching in these countries can benefit from CLT. One good way to do this is that the delivery of EFL methods courses in education programs should change. In this regard, Hewing (2001:161) obviously points out that CLT should not be lectured about but demonstrated. Novice nonnative teachers of English then should have opportunities to go hands–on experience with and gain confidence in using Communicative Language Teaching. In addition despite its initial claim to be appropriate an approach for EFL situation, CLT seems to be more suitable for ESL situations.

To indicate this fact Edge (1996:18) points out that it seems necessary that rather than relying on expertise, methodology, and materials controlled and dispensed by Western ESL countries, EFL countries should strive to establish their own research contingents and encourage method specialists and classroom teachers to develop language teaching methods that take into account the political, economic, social, and cultural factors' and most important of all, the EFL situations in their countries. They should also devise teaching methods, appropriate to their learners, their colleagues, and their societies. As it is the case with almost all studies done in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, this study is not free of limitations. That is to say, because of the eluding nature of CLT which is defined differently by different people one cannot claim to provide all inclusive criteria to list the problems with which EFL teachers wish to come to a conclusion in evaluating CLT as an approach in EFL contexts. Therefore, the authors of this paper have not intended to come to an absolute conclusion about the perceived problems with which EFL teachers might face in using CLT in their real classes. ALL in all, it is hoped that this survey be of use for all colleagues. All defects of this paper are of ours. That is, no fault is to the participant teachers in this study.

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Appendix 1

Table one: A summary of the number and the percentage of the major perceived problems mentioned on the part of the participants in this study.

Sources of Perceived Problems in Using CLT	No. of Mentions Out of 50	Percentage
<i>1. Problems on the part of CLT teacher</i>		
1.1 lack of training in CLT	45	90%
1.2 misconceptions about CLT	47	94%
1.3 deficiency in spoken English	48	96%
1.4 few chances for retraining in CLT	49	98%
1.5 deficiency in sociolinguistic and strategic competence	50	100%
1.6 lack of enough time for materials development for communicative classes	44	88%
<i>2. Problems caused by the students</i>		
2.1 low English proficiency	50	100%
2.2 resistance to class participation	47	94%
2.3 lack of motivation for communication	49	98%
<i>3. Educational problems</i>		
3.1 lack of budget	44	88%
3.2 crowded classes	50	100%
3.3 insufficiency of support	43	86%
3.4 grammar–focused exams	48	96%
<i>4. Created problems by CLT</i>		
4.1 lack of efficient assessment instruments	49	98%
4.2 inadequate account of EFL teaching in CLT	50	100%

METAPHOR AND METONYMY IN INTERACTION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF BODY-PART EXPRESSIONS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

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ABSTRACT

Within the framework of Contemporary cognition, metaphor and metonymy are both viewed as a way of thinking rather than only a matter of language. In this paper, non-literal senses of “gut” in both Chinese and English are studied quantitatively and qualitatively with the aid of corpora under the guidance of cognitive theories. The findings show that non-literal uses of “gut” across two languages account for a substantial proportion of its corpus citations; the metonymic expressions of “gut” in both languages are more than metaphoric ones, and a number of non-literal notions of “gut” are generated by conceptual interplay between metonymy and metaphor; universal bodily experience can motivate equivalent expressions across two languages, but gut is hardly observed as an internal organ, and the cognitive process is complex, which will result in different expressions of gut for cultural and linguistic reasons.

KEY WORDS: Non-literal, corpus, conceptual interaction, metonymy, metaphor

INTRODUCTION

The study of metaphor has attracted the attention of many scholars in cognitive linguistics. Metaphor is viewed as a way of thinking rather than only a matter of language by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). They proposed “conceptual metaphor theory” which underlies distinct semantic fields can share many of the same words and expressions. Conceptual metaphor theory also claims that most central metaphors are grounded in bodily experience which plays an important role in motivating features of language. Human is likely to cognize the world on the basis of body parts and organs as body seems to be the most familiar part to know and perceive. Compared to the lexes from the field of head and limbs, such as eye, mouth, hand, leg, etc., the conceptual process of viscera lexes is more complex and attracts less attention, and more comprehensive researches on the uses of viscera expressions (except for “heart”) are needed .

This paper intends to conduct a systematic and in-depth corpus study on “gut” expressions in English and Chinese under the guidance of cognitive linguistic theories and the metaphor–metonymy interaction. It discusses to answer the following questions:

- (1) What is the frequency of non-literal senses of “gut” expressions in corpora?
- (2) What is the conceptual process of “gut” expressions?
- (3) What are the similarities and differences of the uses of “gut” expressions motivated by universal bodily experience and cultural knowledge across the two languages?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Metaphor , Metonymy and their conceptual interaction

Metaphor and metonymy are both viewed as a way of thinking rather than only a matter of language from cognitive perspective. A great number of researchers have provided insightful observations on the conceptual processes of metonymy and metaphor. Lakoff (1987) regarded metonymy and metaphor both as the types of ICM (idealised cognitive models). “An ICM is a cognitive structure, which is idealised for the purpose of understanding and reasoning, and whose function is to represent reality from a certain perspective” (Ruiz de Mendoza, 1997). Furthermore, Lakoff & Johnson (1999) assumed that metaphor is the result of the combination of primary metaphors. The idea had also been studied by Grady (1997, 1998), who coined the term “primary metaphors” to refer to those mappings “which arise directly from correlations in our experience and which work together with other metaphors to give rise to compound metaphors.” Turner & Fauconnier (1995) have proposed the “blending theory” of metaphor and conceptual projection to refine Lakoff’s two-domain model, thus the interpretation of metaphor requires the activation of minimum four mental spaces: two input spaces, a source and a target, and two middle spaces, a generic space and a blended space or blend.

As to metonymy, the discussions have focused on “the demarcation of metonymy in its own right and in relation to metaphor”. (Marisol Velasco-Sacristan, 2010). From the view of cognitive semantics, there are two broad perspectives to demarcate metonymy: the domain-related approach (Kövecses and Radden, 1998; Barcelona, 2000, 2003; Croft, 2003; Kövecses, 2003) and the prototype-related approach (Riemer, 2003; Dirven, 2003), along with recent refinements to both approaches: the domain-refined approach (Ruiz de Mendoza, 2002; Dirven, 2002; Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco, 2003) and the contiguity-refined approach (Peirsman and Geeraerts, 2006). On the one hand, the scholars of the prototype-related approach considered metonymy as a prototypically structured concept, and the relations that lie at the basis of metonymic shifts of meaning are not just objectively given, but rely on a process of construal (Dirven, 2002); On the other hand, metonymy is usually regarded as a shift of meaning within a single conceptual domain in the domain-related approach. The notion of conceptual domain is crucial to defining and distinguishing metaphor and metonymy. Croft (2002) proposed replacing “domain” with “domain matrix”, a refined concept of domain to illustrate “more than one domain joining together in a given entity”, thus metonymy defined as “a metonymic mapping which occurs within a single domain matrix, not across domains (or domains matrices)” (Croft, 2002). Ruiz de Mendoza (2002, 2003) refined the domain-related approach, treating metonymy with three parameters: domain inclusion, domain expansion and reduction, and domain highlighting. Thus we have a whole domain, called matrix domain, which stands for one of its subdomains, and a subdomain stands for its corresponding matrix domain. The former is regarded as target-in-source metonymy, the latter source-in-target metonymy (Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco, 2000), which are diagrammed in Figure 1 and Figure 2. Domain and the prototype approaches can be complementary rather than incompatible. Therefore, Marisol Velasco-Sacristán (2010) claimed that the domain matrix, the conceptually associative relations within these domains and the pragmatic features of inference and relevance are equally important and necessary for demarcating metonymy. “In this sense, metonymy has to be considered as a fundamental type of cognitive model (i.e., an intra-domain mapping), based on a conceptually contiguous relationship between two referents that can be used for immediate pragmatic purposes.” Marisol Velasco-Sacristán (2010).

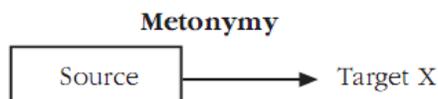


Figure 1: source-in-target metonymy

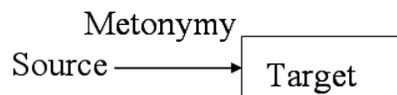


Figure 2: target-in-source metonymy

A number of linguists believe that there is no clear boundary between metonymy and metaphor with fuzzy cases between these categories. The interplay between metonymy and metaphor that may result from their combination is complex and interests many scholars. A metonymy-metaphor continuum by Taylor (1995) led Radden and Barcelona (2000, 2003) to the intermediate notion of metonymy-based metaphor. Goossens (2003) proposed “metaphonymy”, by studying several ways in which metaphor and metonymy interact. Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco (2000, 2003) stated several interactional patterns between metaphor and metonymy under the guidance of Turner and Fauconnier’s conceptual blending theory (2000). Ruiz de Mendoza argued against Goossens’s typology of interactional patterns (2003) that two distinct domains of a metaphor cannot be included within the single domain of a metonymy. He proposed that the typology of interactional patterns is based on two main criteria: the place where the metonymic mapping develops and the scope of the metonymy. Thus Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco came up with six kinds of interplay that may result from the combination of metonymy and metaphor: metonymic expansion of a metaphoric source, metonymic expansion of a metaphoric target, metonymic reduction of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric target, metonymic reduction of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric source, metonymic expansion of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric source, metonymic expansion of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric target. In their research, the interactional possibility is frequently exploited by body part metonymies that express feeling.

Cognitive linguistic studies on body-part term

There have been a great number of mono-linguistics and cross-linguistics studies on the human body part terms. Some scholars noted the conceptual process of body-part terms, such as Lakoff (1993) and Kövecses (2000). Lakoff (1993) claimed that the most central metaphors are grounded in our human physical experience, thus different languages can have the same conceptual metaphors. Kövecses (2000) studied the semantics of emotion language, and brought up the idea that “emotions are largely understood metaphorically. Physiological reactions of emotion are metonymically related to these emotions”. Mono-linguistic researches on some body part terms were conducted to support certain cognitive linguistic theories. For example, Niemeier (2000) illustrated one certain body part, i.e. heart which is the site of emotions to argue that many metaphors have a metonymy basis. Comparative Researches on body-part terms in different languages were also done by many scholars. Deignan (2004) did a cross-linguistic research on a few body part lexes to argue that most central metaphors are grounded in universal bodily experience and thus are shared by different languages, and a large number of expressions are

generated by a combination of metaphor and metonymy. Qi (2007) studied “heart” expressions in English and Chinese, and forwarded a cognitive model of “heart” expressions from a cognitive perspective with six metonymic models and two metaphoric models. Bai (2009) studied the metaphoric behavior of viscera lexis in Chinese and English, especially from the perspective of cultural difference. Zhao (2010) offered a systematic and comprehensive study on meaning transference of body-part terms in English and Chinese from cognitive and comparative perspectives.

However, most studies on body part terms incorporated metonymy into metaphor and the conceptual interaction between metaphor and metonymy was neglected, thus the classification was ambiguous and rash; some body part terms, especially those of the head and limbs, are frequently addressed (Gao, 2006; Li, 2007; Qi, 2007; Luo, 2010; Liu, 2008; Niemeier, 2000), while others have received less attention from the scholars, such as viscera (with “heart” excluded); most studies are conducted qualitatively, while a quantitative study aided by corpus is needed as a complement.

METHODOLOGY

The study is to offer an adequate description of observed features of language in use quantitatively and qualitatively based on corpora by investigating the language use of patterns for body part lexis, the prevalence of different words co-occurs with body part terms, and the percentages of cognitive model of the chosen body part expressions. The body part lexis “gut” is chosen for investigation for its extensive metaphorical uses in English and Chinese. All derived and inflected forms of the items are also studied. The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and Center for Chinese Linguistics PKU (CCL) are adopted for research of English and Chinese items respectively. COCA is the largest freely-available corpus of English which contains more than 450 million words of text from 1990 to 2012. CCL is a Chinese corpus for linguistic study which contains 447 million words of text updated until 2009. Thus the two language online corpora are with similar word capacity, and both contain written and spoken form of language, but the English corpus is better updated.

Corpus data are analyzed as follows: the words we study generate many thousands of citations, and the senses of citations of each item are identified aided by dictionaries of each language; in order to analyze the metaphoric meaning of “gut” expressions, the main collocates with high frequency of each lexeme are identified automatically for the English data, and manually for the Chinese; the meaning of each fixed expression is examined in terms of dictionaries and context of the citation; The metonymic and metaphoric uses of non-literal meaning are identified. The conceptual modes proposed by Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco (2000, 2003) are adopted to analyze the non-literal uses of “gut”.

RESULTS

“Gut” expressions in the corpora: frequency and fixedness

In this section, results of the data from the corpora are presented and processed. In English corpus, the foreign languages, acronym, name of a person are opted out, and the verb forms of “gut” are also beyond this research. Thus, the literal expressions includes leaky gut, bacteria in the gut, fish guts and so on, meaning “the lower part of the alimentary canal”, “the entire

alimentary canal”, “the bowels or entrails, especially of an animal”. In Chinese corpus, the proper names like “香肠” and “火腿肠” (kinds of sausage) are excluded, and the literal expressions includes “肠癌”(intestinal cancer), “肠炎”(enteritis) and so on. Table 1 and Table 2 show the frequency of the literal and non-literal senses of “gut”. Non-literal senses of the word “gut” in both Chinese and English accounts for a substantial proportion of the corpus citations, which is consistent with Deignan’s corpus research on several body lexis and the conclusion she had drawn. (Deignan, 2004). About 87.1% of citations of gut in English and about 43.4% citations of gut in Chinese are non-literal.

TABLE 1: SUMMARY OF “GUT” IN ENGLISH CORPUS

Number of citations	Uses	Example
272	Proper Noun, foreign language, which is beyond our research	" Das ist gut ", sagte ich nach einem Weilchen, " es ist gut,
1243	gut as a verb, which is not discussed in our research	gut the fish
897	literal meaning	leaky gut
4746	non-literal meaning	gut feeling
Total	7158	

TABLE 2: SUMMARY OF “GUT” IN CHINESE CORPUS

Number of citations	Uses	Example
905	Proper Noun, name of a person, which is beyond our research	香肠,火腿肠,鱼肠剑等
3472	literal meaning	肠癌
3354	non-literal meaning	愁肠
Total	7731	

It is also observed from the data that a large proportion of “gut” expressions have some degree of fixedness, and particular senses exist with particular collocates. For example, disease and bacteria are associated with the literal meaning of “gut” in a large sense, and “feeling” with a non-literal sense. Moreover, a great number of metonymies and metaphors appear in the fixed and semi-fixed expressions, such as *gut feeling* or *to have the guts*. Table 3 and Table 4 show the number of citations of “gut” expressions with its frequent collocates, in descending order of number.

TABLE 3: SUMMARY OF COLLATIONS WITH "GUT" IN ENGLISH CORPUS (NON-LITERAL)

Number of citations	Collocation	Example
477	Freely combining	Most of the weight had gone to his gut, which hung over beltless Oshkosh jeans.
871	in (the/one's) gut(s)	...experience a feeling so strong, they might as well have been swatted in the gut by a 43-ounce, white-ash bat of baseball's
698	to have the/no guts to	...It's fundamentally time for somebody to have the guts to stand up and say enough lying about the Middle East.
452	gut feeling(s)	...to come back with solid evidence that rules them out, not just a gut feeling.
189	to take (a lot of) guts	...That had to take a lot of guts and I think that you have to realize that many of our Western Allies have...
174	gut instinct(s)	...To stick with your gut instinct...
171	the guts of	...sucking them into the guts of 55 Water Street...
158	gut tell(s)	...My gut tells me that our story probably rang true for most everybody...
147	to get the guts to do that...	...It took a long time for me to get the guts to do that...

146	to hate one's guts	...you're going to hate each other's guts by the time you get there....
136 call me...	gut reaction(s)	...whose gut reaction to everything is to
128	to spill the/one's guts	...And commercial stockyards and slaughterhouses have learned better than to spill their bloody guts in public...
76 gut...	punch someone in the gut	...It hit him like a punch in the
74	blood and guts	...in Reza's mouth when she gave one of her windy laughs, blood and guts...
67	into one's/ the gut	...to move through it into the gut itself...
57	trust one's gut	...So you'll have to trust your gut, FAIL, which failed you here...
55	to go with one's gut	But where do Republicans go with their gut and their brains? If they see one guy is ready...
49 guts here...	to show one's guts	...People want someone to show some
48	gut check	... I don't have a gut check for this...
48	kick in the gut(s)	...Elvis held him back by the shoulders and kicked Conrad in the gut...
43 gut...	feeling in the gut	...a sinking feeling puddled in Marianna's
42	pain in the gut(s)	...Something in the prisoner's cry of pain struck deep into his gut....
40	gut(s) twist(s)	...Mandy's gut twisted as memories of the wrenching

			grief she felt when her parents died washed over....
39	suck in one's gut(s)	...You're there trying to suck in your	
gut...			
36	beer gut	He was tall, middle-aged, and had a fair-sized beer gut on him.	
33	gut level	...has been involved at the gut level of racing longer than anyone....	
33	gut wrenching	...gut wrenching sobs, so heavy she could hardly breathe between them....	
33	gut(s) tighten(s)	...His gut tightened as he stared at his	
sleeping daughter...			
31	to puke one's guts	Except, of course, that at the moment, he was puking his guts out. Sister Angel held the basin...	
31	gut(s) clenched	Ben's gut clenched in sympathy...	
28	gut churn(s)	...her gut churning with demon fire as if the beast inside was trying to burn...	
27	follow one's gut	Giving herself permission to follow her gut -- be it with work or her personal style	
26	no guts, no glory/ guts and glory	...INSPIRATION: You epitomize the phrase " No guts, no glory. " TAURUS April 20 to May 20 LOVE: Your obsessions...	
24	lack guts	... who he believes lack the guts to make unpopular	

			spending cuts and
24	bust a gut (laughing) over that one...	...To my surprise, he did not bust a gut	
19	gut ache(s)	... Johnson felt his gut ache. ...	
16	gut course(s)/job	...It was all gut courses...	
14	gut string	The San of southwest Africa plucked the gut strings of their wooden hunting bows.	
12	to admire one's guts	...you have to admire their guts (and if you don't agree with their politics, make your own sign...	
10	gut issue(s)	...avoidance of the gut issue, the blood fact....	
Total		4746	

TABLE 4: SUMMARY OF COLLATIONS WITH "GUT" IN CHINESE CORPUS (NON-LITERAL)

Number of citations	English expression	Example
55		Freely combining ...我这个人一根肠子通到底，受不了这样拖拖拉拉.
1357	心肠	...许多人认为他作为教练心肠软...
251		羊肠小路（道等） ...其间是非常狭窄泥泞的羊肠小路...
221	(荡气\九曲)回肠	...最后一枪令人荡气回肠...
220		饥肠 ...结果被饥肠辘辘的牛当做美食吞入肚中...
192		牵肠(挂肚) ...让为之牵肠挂肚的美国宇航局科学家喜出望外...
167		(互诉)衷肠 ...互诉衷肠早就成为伊宁人的婚庆传统...
128	断肠	...夕阳西下，断肠人在天涯...
117		肝肠(寸断) ...她的是死是活定然叫双亲肝肠寸断...

94	热肠	...小模小样，热心热肠...	
92	愁肠	...都将一副愁肠，换成一副笑脸...	
89			柔肠
		...昆仑女则是真正侠骨柔肠的军中女杰...	
71	搜索枯肠	...任凭秀才苦思冥想，搜索枯肠....	
66	肠断	...也酿造了多少催人肠断的幕幕悲剧...	
44	肚肠	...唱累了，肚肠也不免有些辘辘...	
44			搜肠刮肚
		...陈平原搜肠刮肚半天，也找不出一个...	
38			(小肚) 鸡肠
		...侠肝义胆的英雄成为小肚鸡肠利欲熏心的政客...	
31	脑满肠肥	...更不能只追求脑满肠肥珠光宝气...	
27			穿肠
		...酒是穿肠毒药，留下来总是害人的...	
21	翻肠倒胃(肚)	...逐觉翻肠倒胃的恶心....	
20			直肠子、直肠直肚
		...心想许多人都说他是直肠子存不住话...	
13	花花肠子	...咱实在没那弯弯绕的花花肠子...	
Total		3354	

DICUSSION

Types of the “gut” expressions

The different types of non-literal expressions in corpus citations are presented and analyzed. The non-literal expressions of “gut” are divided into metonymy, metaphor, and the interaction between metonymy and metaphor, under the guidance of Goossens (1990), Radden and Barcelona (2000), Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco (2000,2003)

Metaphor

As Lakoff and Johnson(1993, 1999) has postulated that metaphor is an ontological mapping from the source domain to the target domain. Metaphor is not only a matter of language but also a way of thinking, the way we conceptualize the world. “Gut” is a visceral organ inside human body which cannot be directly observed by people, so its morphology and function are rarely metaphorically exploited.

A few cases of metaphors are found in “gut” expressions. For instances, the metaphorical uses of “gut” in English are usually post-modified, such as the guts of the computer or the guts of the problem, in which the plural form “guts” means the essential components or inner working parts. In Chinese corpus, “羊肠小道” (a narrow winding trail) is a typical metaphoric expression, which characterizes the road in terms of our knowledge of the gut of the sheep.

Metonymy

The metonymy of “gut” expressions falls into two categories proposed by Ruiz de Mendoza (2002): target-in-source metonymy (a “domain reduction” metonymy) or source-in-target

metonymy (a “domain expansion” metonymy). On the one hand, as Kövecses (2000, 2002) has proposed, the physical reactions of the emotions and the emotional experience could be regarded as parts of the same domain. For example, when a person is becoming pale or shaking, we can infer that he or she is frightened. In English corpus “gut” can refer to innermost emotional or visceral response, such as “feeling in the gut” and courage in “to have the guts”. “Gut” as “intuition” is a special meaning and occupies a large proportion in English corpus, such as “gut feeling” and “gut instinct”. In Chinese cases, items like “柔肠” (the tender emotion) and “愁肠” (the upset emotion) are used to express a seat of emotion. “肠” also metonymically infers to human characters, such as “心肠”(heart; intention). “饥肠” (hunger) is part of a situation in which a person’s gut is rumbling due to the hunger. The type of all the above expressions is target-in-source metonymies, which can be diagrammed in Figure 2. Taken GUT FOR INTUITION as an example, the essentials of the conceptual process are as presented in Figure 3:

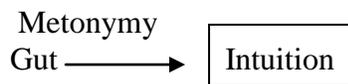


Figure 3: GUT FOR INTUITION

On the other hand, “Gut” metonymically refers to “the belly, abdomen” in “beer gut”, “suck in one’s gut” and “to kick someone in the gut”, which typically is a “domain expansion” metonymy (Ruiz de Mendoza, 2002). “Beer gut” means a fat belly because of too much beer drinking. In this expression, “gut” refers to the region of the body (i.e. a vertebrate between the thorax and the pelvis), instead of its literal meaning of the part of the alimentary canal between the stomach and the anus which is situated inside the body.

Interaction

The typology of the conceptual interaction between metonymy and metaphor is under the guidance of Ruiz de Mendoza (2000) and Díez Velasco (2000). The expressions of gut examined in this paper fall into three categories of six types proposed by them.

Consider the expression “to have the guts”, a case of conceptual interplay between the metaphor QUALITIES ARE POSSESSIONS and metonymy GUTS FOR COURAGE. “Courage” is regarded as a physical entity with its associated properties, that is, it can be processed, and thus an abstract concept is characterized in terms of a physical entity. The metonymy GUTS FOR COURAGE is part of cultural knowledge that is experientially grounded in the sensations in human’s guts when facing danger or challenges. The conceptual process is shown in Figure 3. The conceptual interplay of metaphor and metonymy is also evidenced in expressions like to take (a lot of) guts, to get the guts, to lack guts, to show one’s guts, which are all consistent with the conceptual mode by Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco (2000, 2003): the metonymic reduction of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric target, as Figure 4 shows.

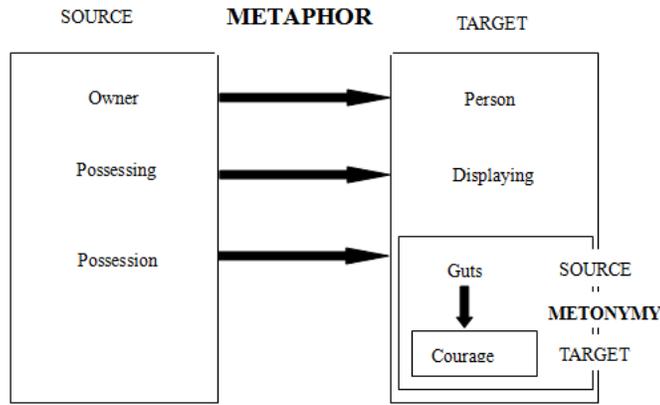


Figure 4: to have the guts

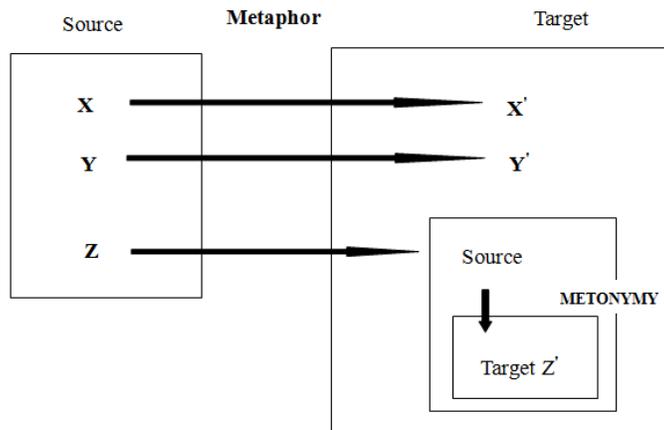


Figure 5: a metonymic reduction of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric target

In English corpus, there are a great number of verbs or the noun form of those verbs to express human feelings, such as gut churns, to churn in one's gut. Consider the expression "Anger churns in his gut", which is used to describe that people feel anger in their gut like fluid churns in a container. In this semantic construction, the metonymy is built into the target of the metaphor. Furthermore, the metonymy, whose source domain is a subdomain of its target, helps determine the interpretation of the metaphoric mapping: "Anger churns in his gut" is part of a situation in which human body reacts to anger. The essentials of this process are presented in Figure 5.

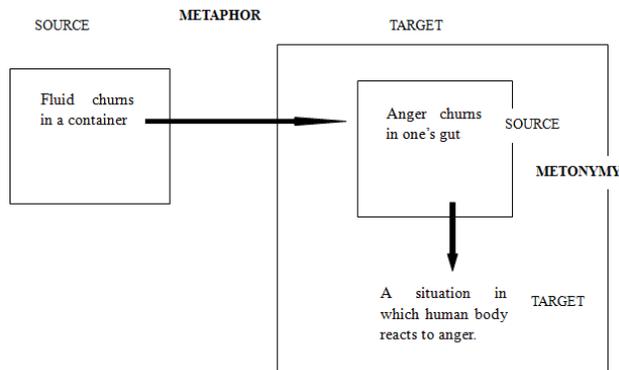


Figure 6: Anger churns in his gut.

Additionally, the complete understanding of this process requires the activation of our knowledge

of the logic of the CONTAINER schema. Therefore, the gut is understood as a three-dimensional entity that can hold things inside, that is, the gut is metaphorically understood as a container and emotions as its contents. The full interpretation of the expression “Anger churns in his gut” applies metaphoric, metonymic and image-schematic principles. Some other expressions such as “to twist in one’s gut”, “to clutch (at) one’s gut” also work in this mode, i.e. a metonymic expansion of a metaphoric target, as presented in Figure 6:

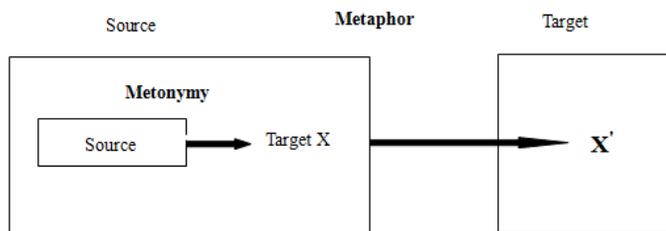


Figure 7: a metonymic expansion of a metaphoric source

As to another metaphorical expression “She feels like she gets punched in the gut”, this presents a different interaction between metonymy and metaphor to “Anger churns in his gut”. In order to analyze the way the interplay works, we select a context in corpus data, in which Jane feels sorrow every time when she reminds of her brother’s death. So she feels like she gets punched in the gut at the thought of his brother’s death. In the metaphor, the source domain is a person’s physical reaction to sorrow, and the target has a person that expresses such emotions (without actually being punched in the gut). The metonymy, which serves as the basis for the metaphoric mapping, is from a situation where a person gets punched in the gut to one in which a person shows sorrow. Thus, the source of the metonymy is built in its target. The essentials of the interaction process are shown in Figure 7. The conceptual process mode-a metonymic expansion of a metaphoric target- shown in Figure 8, can be applied to expressions like “ to get kicked in the gut” and “肝肠寸断”(a Chinese phrase, literally meaning ‘liver and gut are cut into inches’, metaphorically meaning ‘overwhelmed by grief’)

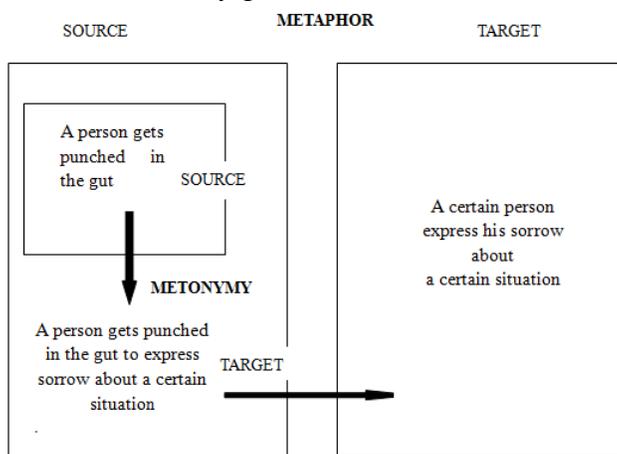


Figure 8: to get punched in the gut

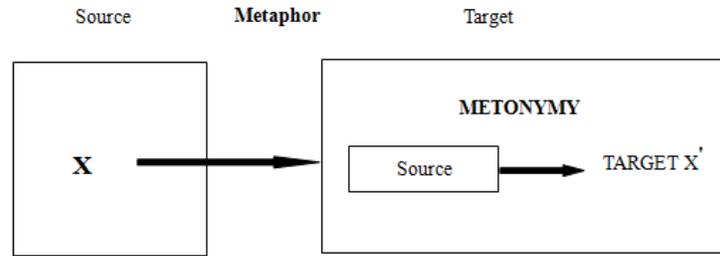


Figure 9: a metonymic expansion of a metaphoric target

A new typology is found in this paper, which is exploited by Chinese expressions like “蛇蝎心肠”(to have a murderous heart, literally meaning ‘have a heart and gut as malicious as snakes and scorpions’), “铁石心肠” (heart of stone, literally meaning have a heart and gut as hard as steel and stone). The equation of the expressions is “modifier + gut”. Figure 10 shows the conceptual process of this type of expression:

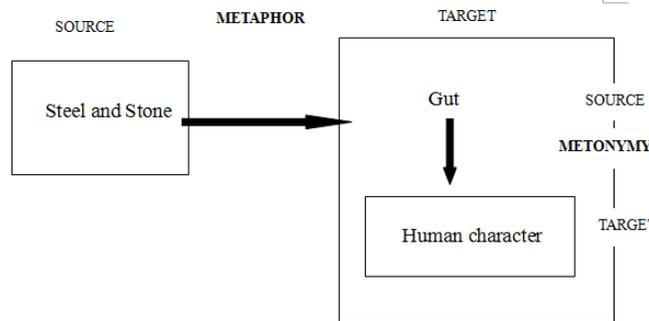


Figure 10: 铁石心肠

The new conceptual process mode is “a metonymic reduction of a metaphoric target” as Table 11 shows:

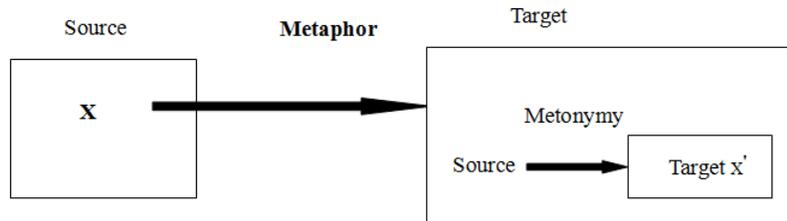


Figure 11: a metonymic reduction of a metaphoric target

Meaning of GUT expressions in English and Chinese

In this section, we compare the metaphorical uses of “gut” expressions in English and Chinese according to the corpus data we have analyzed above. Moreover, the non-literal meanings of “gut” expressions are also compared across two languages, to distinguish which are motivated by universal bodily experience, or shared metaphors from those cultural- specific.

Cognitive operation of “gut” expressions by two languages

According to our classification and analysis above, a substantial proportion of non-literal expressions of “gut” in both languages are metonymic rather than metaphoric. A few senses of “gut” and “肠” expressions are metaphoric. The metaphorical use of “gut” in English refers to the essential components or inner working parts of machines or some abstract word like problem. In Chinese corpus, “羊肠小道”(a narrow winding trail) is a typical metaphoric expression, which characterizes the road in terms of our knowledge of the gut of the sheep (i.e. narrow and winding).

There is a great number of “gut” and “肠” are metonymically used with two-fold role: on the one hand, it refers to the abstract concepts: a seat of emotions, such as “gut wrenching” for “extreme upset”, “愁肠” for depression and sadness, “柔肠” for “tender heart”, etc; personal qualities, such as, “guts” for “courage”, “gut feeling” for “instinct”, “直肠子” for “straightforwardness”, “花花肠子” for “cunning”. On the other hand, it refers to “the belly, abdomen”, such as “beer gut”, “suck in one’s gut”, “elbow into one’s gut”, “to punch someone in the gut”.

As it is analyzed above, a number of high-frequent collocations of “gut” conform with the interactional patterns between metonymy and metaphor proposed by Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco (2000,2003). They generally fall into three categories by Ruiz de Mendoza: A metonymic reduction of one of the correspondences of a metaphoric target, such as “to have guts”, “to take (a lot of) guts”, “to get the guts”, “to lack guts”, “to show one’s guts”; A metonymic expansion of a metaphoric target, such as “to churn in one’s gut” “to twist in one’s gut”, “to clutch (at) one’s gut”; A metonymic expansion of a metaphoric target, such as “to get punched in the gut”, “to get kicked in the gut”.

Shared meanings grounded in bodily experience

From the above classification, we have found that there are shared non-literal meanings by the two languages regardless of minor differences. In many cases, the shared meanings seem to be motivated by bodily experience. First, physiological reactions of emotion are metonymically related to these emotions. A substantial number of “gut” and “肠” with their collocates refer to various kind of human emotions, and generally speaking, those emotions are negative, such as anger, depression, worry, etc., as in the following citations:

“...But the strongest romances give the reader the emotional impact of gut-wrenching internal conflicts that make it look like these people can't possibly end up happy together.”

“。。。你去体会当父母看到儿子生病时那种忧心忡忡、愁肠百结的心境。” (You will have a gut-wrenching experience as parents seeing their son is ill.)

Differences in non-literal meaning

Differences in non-literal meaning across two languages are no less than their similarities. In English corpus, “Intuition” meaning of “gut” takes a relative large proportion, such as “gut feeling”, “gut instinct”, etc. The notion of “gut” as “intuition” is ancient, and probably explains expressions such as gut reaction, gut feeling, and so on. Some version of explanation can be

traced back to the transcripts of Hebrew Bible. The term “bowels” in the Hebrew Bible refers to the center of the body from which the “whole” of human emotions were believed to originate. The examples are as follows:

“My gut feeling is the fact that Conrad was present during his death, there's a lot of questions to be answered.”

“Her gut instinct proved right: Johnson's charged performance as Lennon has won raves from critics and...”

In English, “guts” can refer to “courage”, a human character, in citations such as the following:

“I want to say, Congresswoman, you are my new hero for having the guts to talk about this.”

“Mark had finally gotten the guts to ask, and he'd done so in a place where...”

Additionally, in Chinese, the notion of “肠” as human characters is relatively more frequent and various, such as “直肠子” for “straightforwardness”, “花花肠子” for “cunning”, “蛇蝎心肠” for “ruthless” and so on, and the word before “肠” identify the kind of personality to some extent. The examples are as follows:

“老杨是个直肠子, 心里存不住话。” (Mr. Yang is straightforward and outspoken.)

“...这就说明她是个蛇蝎心肠的女人, 难道不是吗?” (She has a murderous heart cruel, doesn't she?)”

Moreover, many idioms with “gut” are frequently used, such as “to hate a person's guts” (to dislike a person very strongly), sweat or work one's guts out (to work very hard), “to spill one's guts” (to tell all; to confess), “to bust a gut” (to work very hard or to make a big effort to achieve something), “to bust a gut laughing” (to laugh a lot), “a gut course” (a course that is easily passed). Most of these idioms date back long ago, and we can hardly find their origin of the notion of “gut”.

In Chinese, two viscera lexes are usually combined to form the fixed items due to their closely connection to each other, and the concept of viewing the world as a whole. For example, the expressions like “心肠” (heart; intention) contains heart and gut, “肝肠寸断”(deep sorrow) liver and gut, “牵肠挂肚”(be very worried about; be deeply concerned) gut and belly. However, this situation rarely happens in English. “Gut” can metonymically stands for belly or stomach, such as “beer gut”, which can also be expressed as “beer belly” or “beer stomach” with the same meaning. But “gut” and “belly” won't appeared together in an expression. In Chinese, the morphology of gut is metaphorically used with the notion as “narrowness and winding”, such as “羊肠小道” (a narrow winding trail), “九曲回肠” (gut-wrenching; twists and turns of rivers).

CONCLUSION

In the course of the quantitatively and qualitatively study of the “gut” expression across two languages, this paper brought out the following points: first, non-literal senses of “gut” expressions in two languages both accounts for the majority of the total uses; second, there are vastly more metonymic expressions than metaphoric ones. Some frequent “gut” collocations fall

into the categories of interactional patterns between metonymy and metaphor proposed by Ruiz de Mendoza and Díez Velasco (2000,2003), and an additional pattern- a metonymic reduction of a metaphoric target- is found in Chinese expressions of “gut”; third, the two languages share some similarities in conceptual interactions and non-literal senses motivated by universal bodily experience, but the differences are quite a few: the specific non-literal senses of each language and the combination of two Chinese viscera lexis to express emotions or human characters.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research is supported by the Fundamental Research Funds for National University, Dalian University of Technology (DUT13RW303).

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ANALYTICAL STUDY OF DISCOURSE STRATEGIES IN INTERNET BEGGING RELATING TO FINANCIAL INCAPACITY

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ABSTRACT

Internet begging is a relatively new discourse genre. It is the online version of traditional begging, which is asking strangers for money to meet immediate and other needs such as money, food, and shelter. E-begging employs various discourse strategies which may appear vague or inexplicit. Correct interpretation of begging texts may evade the readers who do not understand the particular socio-cultural environment. The data for this study which comprised of sixty internet beggars' texts from two very popular internet begging websites were carefully selected. Thirty begging texts relating to financial incapability were selected from each of the websites. The texts were posted by the beggars between December, 2012 and February, 2013. This study adopted both the Pragma-Rhetorical theory and Critical Discourse Analysis approaches (see Watson and Hill (1993:146), Kennedy (1998) and Babatunde (2000:150)). Many internet beggars register on the sites with different socio-economic problems, different linguistic appealing modes etc. The words 'need' and 'help' signify a kind of logical use of language by beggars in distress or desperation to draw the attention of the audience to their situation through their language prowess. It was discovered that the proposition of five speech acts of the expressives, the commissives, the assertives or representatives, the directives and the declaratives by Searle (1969) was effectively employed by the e-beggars. Various discursive strategies of communicative strategies like persuasive strategies, politeness strategies and storytelling strategies were also employed in the e-begging texts. The internet beggars' used every available rhetorical strategy in the communicative process as well as to create intended effects. This paper recommends that e-beggars should try to avoid using the speech acts of the directives. Also, website owners should device means of educating prospective e-beggars on appropriate language skills and discursive strategies.

KEY WORDS: Discourse strategies, internet begging, financial incapacity

INTRODUCTION

In linguistics, a relatively new discourse genre is Internet begging (see Freeman and Medway 1994:1). Internet begging, cyber-begging, or Internet panhandling according to Wikipedia (2013:1) is the online version of traditional begging, which is asking strangers for money to meet immediate and other needs such as money, food, and shelter. It has a notable advantage over street begging as it is practiced with relative anonymity, consequently eliminating or reducing the shame and disgrace associated with begging in public.

The internet is a global network of computer networks used for sending messages from one place to another. Several opportunities like websites development and management, e-mail, networking and programming activities e.t.c. are available on the internet.

DISCOURSE SPACES ON THE INTERNET

There are several discourse spaces available on the internet. The following fields of research are the discourse spaces. They include: the virtual conference forums and seminars, listservs, the internet as an informal learning environment for English as a second language, then the internet as a discursive space where identities are formed and social relationships are negotiated, and as a space where the intermingling of the global and the local rise to hybrid language varieties, e.t.c. (See Davis & Brewer, 1997; Mitra & Watts, 2002, pp. 486-488).

THE CONCEPT OF E-BEGGING

Internet begging is a new way of begging with a new generation of beggars who use the internet medium to beg for money, food, shelter, e.t.c. According to Wikipedia (2013,3-7), during the early days of the Internet, cyber-begging occurred in the form of personal advertisements for assistance on local bulletin board systems (BBS). As a result of the development of personal websites, certain persons began advertising their needs, using the features available through website authoring. Many Internet service providers (ISPs) later offered a free homepage along with the basic dial-up connection service to the Internet. Internet begging gained notoriety and momentum after June 2002 when Karyn Bosnak started SaveKaryn.com as an attempt to have the Internet public help pay her credit card debt.

E-begging, a computer mediated communication, as Atima (2012, pp 8-9) opines, has become a regular part of our internet experience where beggars beg online in order to get out of problems or debt either by necessity or choice. Beggars may publish their own sites where they ask for money or operate on community sites or forums and may place addresses on their sites called e-bay. They are people who are sick, jobless, or are experiencing home foreclosures and bank failures who turn to begging with their heart touching tales targeted at the internet audience to request for money.

NOTABLE CONTEXTUAL FEATURES OF E-BEGGING DISCOURSE

Internet begging exhibits its own peculiar contextual features. E-begging texts bear titles or headings. They may have greetings followed by the introduction and then the requests or problems of the beggars in a polite manner (See Atima, 2012, p. 9). They employ the use of appeals to pity, an undisguised appeal to greed, trust, fallacies, e.t.c. as well as persuasion techniques which aim their target audience in a very logical way. The language of e-begging is uniquely different and resourceful. It is the background of the beggar that shapes his language, which is usually more on business tone, deliberately trying to manipulate or persuade his audience for his selfish goals. The internet medium, the background of the beggars, and the knowledge of the audience are the three notable contextual features of e-begging discourses.

DISCOURSE

Discourse is viewed from different angles by different scholars. For example, Stubbs (1983:1) views discourse as language above the sentence or above the clause. Fairclough (1992:28) sees it is more than just language use but as a type of social practice.

In a nutshell, discourse occurs as one expressing oneself employing words. It is a common way of knowing, valuing and experiencing our world. It can be used for an assertion of power and knowledge, and also for resistance and critique (See Atima, 2012, p. 30). Basic features of discourse that can be found in texts are: repetitions, informative, additives, causative, adversatives and so on. Since, beggars' texts observe the features of discourse, just like every other speaker or writer whose texts are considered discourse, then begging discourse is uniquely distinct.

DISCOURSE STRATEGIES

The techniques or approaches that manifest in a particular language use are called discourse strategies. They exist at both written and spoken language texts. It is to be noted that a given discourse or text may be analysed employing different theories of language as discourse strategies are ways by which a particular genre of discourse may be analysed by appreciating the language in use in different situations e.g. discourse in the media, business, politics, and education etc. Internet begging belongs to the class of internet discourse which is a kind of computer mediated communication.

Shi, Mishra, Bonk, Tan, and Zhao (2006, pp. 19-38) analyse discourse strategies and identifies the behaviour of multitasking. Hara, Bank and Angeli (2000, pp. 115-152) and Gerosa, Pimental, Fuks, and Lucena (2004, pp. 262-272), (2005, pp. 160-169) show for asynchronous discussion forums that the analysis of beggars discourse (strategies) structure provides important information that can be used to understand and support communicating participants.

METHODOLOGY

The data for this study which comprised of sixty internet beggars' texts two internet begging websites were carefully selected. The choice of the two sites was predicated on the fact that they are very popular begging websites on the internet. The two currently very popular/host sites selected for this study are <https://begslist.org> and <http://www.ebeggars.com>. Many internet beggars register on these sites with different socio-economic problems, different linguistic appealing modes etc. Thirty begging texts relating to financial incapability were selected from each of the websites. The texts were posted by the beggars between December, 2012 and February, 2013.

To carry out this study, both the Pragma-Rhetorical theory and Critical Discourse Analysis approaches were adopted. According to Watson and Hill (1993:146) and Babatunde (2000:150), Pragma-Rhetorical theory investigates the totality of the speakers' use of every available rhetorical strategy in a communicative process and the intended effects on the participants in a given context.

For this study, the adoption of Pragma-Rhetoric theory is highly relevant as it allows for analysis texts are characterized by pragmatic tact and rhetoric like the language situation of internet beggars' texts. Watson and Hill (1993) notes that pragmatics studies language especially as it affects the user e.g. the choices she/he makes, the constraints she/he meets with in using language and the effects the use has on the communication system.

Also, Critical Discourse Analyses is capable of describing various issues present in the internet begging texts. Since internet beggars struggle to gain economic power and as such do this by their words, CDA framework will be able to succinctly capture the social and ideological forces that constrain their manipulative utterances (See van Dijk, 2006). In addition, insights from the method of three tenets or stages as presented by Fairclough (2000) would be applied. Both CDA and Pragma-Rhetorics relate the notion of discourse to micro and macro-discourse.

Pragma-Rhetoric Model

The pragma-rhetoric model as cited in Babatunde (2000, p. 150) and presented below is relevant to the study of the discourse of e-begging.

Resources of Pragma- Rhetoric Model

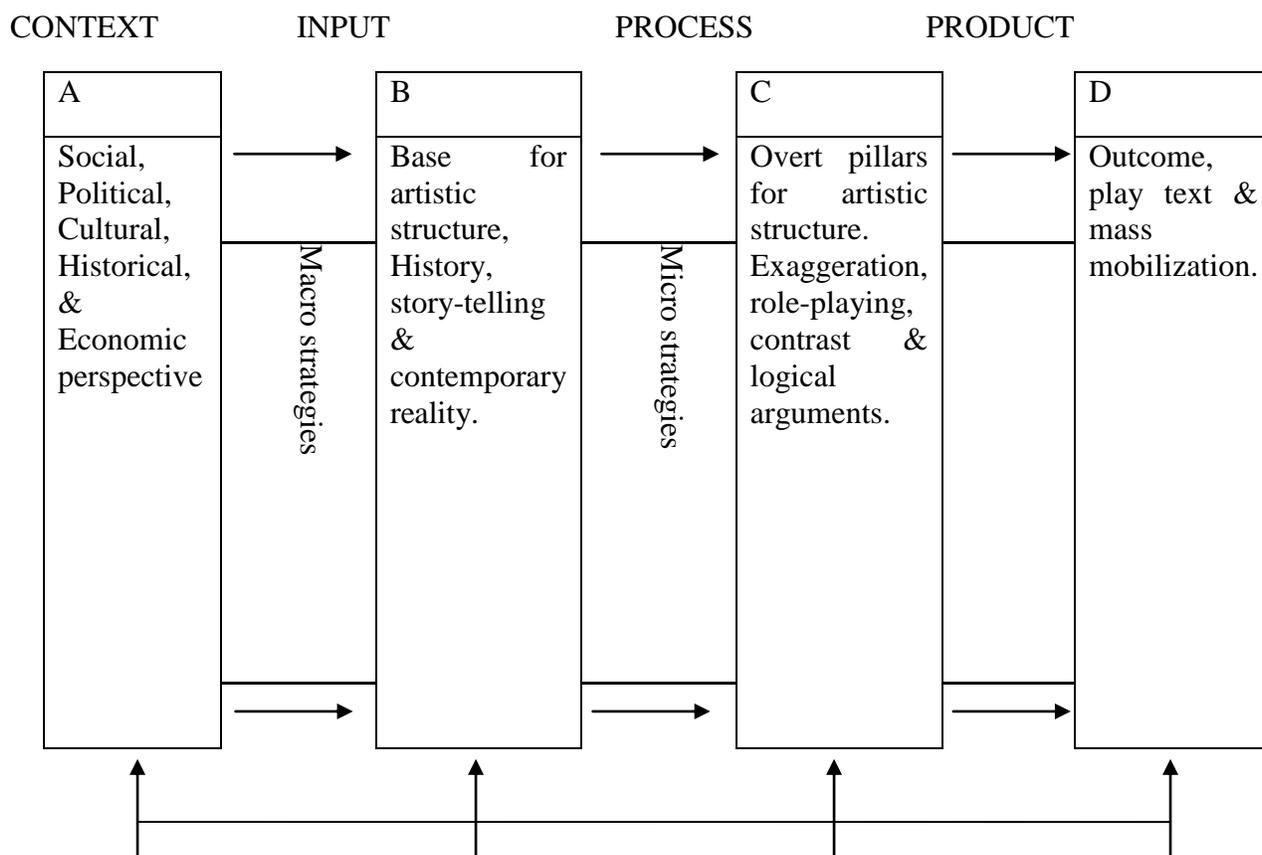


Fig 1: Framework of Rhetorical Analysis as presented in Babatunde (2000) based on the e-begging discourse genre by (Dasal and Gross, 1999).

The above model presents a four-stage model: context, input, process and product. It is applicable to pragmatics as well as e-begging discourse. In this connection, the various elements of Pragma-Rhetoric theory such as contexts, intention, world knowledge, speech acts, affective elements and structure of speech would be applied (See Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969; Grice, 1975).

Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) originated from classical rhetoric, text linguistics and sociolinguistics, applied linguistics and pragmatics (See Wodak & Mayer, 2001; Fairclough, 2003; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997; Fowler, 1981).

CDA stresses a kind of interdisciplinary work in order to achieve a proper understanding of how language functions in constituting knowledge, in organizing social institution or in exercising power (Van Dijk, 2006). Atima (2012, p. 39) submits that CDA is useful in disclosing the discursive nature of much contemporary social and cultural changes. Particularly, the language of the mass media is scrutinised as a site of power, of struggle and also as a site where language is often apparently transparent.

INTERNET BEGGING DISCOURSE RELATING TO FINANCIAL INCAPABILITY

Atima (2012) categorises internet begging texts into five distinct areas. They are: the physical disability group, the financial incapacity group, the people begging for educational needs, the sickness group and the homelessness group. This study, however, focuses on and analyses internet begging discourse relating to financial incapability group only.

A fundamental aspect of the internet discourse relating to financial incapacity centres on the financial constraints of the different internet beggars. Each beggar, therefore, adduces reasons for the e-begging experience. Notice must be accorded some of the titles of texts with the key words italicised.

Titles of Internet Begging Discourse Relating to Financial Incapability

The following are examples presented in alpha-numeric order:

TL...1 *Hard Times*

TL ...2 *Money needed*

TL ...3 Please help *save* our home

TL ...4 Struggling to *clear debt*

TL ...5 *Need money for food and bills*

From texts TL...1 to TL...5, it is safe to conclude that the statements of the beggars reflect their basic constraints. The texts portray them as people in need. For example, text TL...1 tends to suggest someone who needs help consequent upon societal economic downturn. The beggar is possibly an adult male adversely affected by the economy. All the texts present needs for money to solve various financial problems like: food to eat, payment of bills, debts, e.t.c. Among other lexical features peculiar to e-begging for financial incapacity are: “fallen”, “hard times”, “need help”, “in debt”, “pay for some bills”, “in desperate need”, “financial help,” e.t.c. It must be noted that the words “need” and “help” make e-begging for financial incapacity distinct and selective for componential analyses as indicated below.

Need	help
+ assistance	+ distress
+ lack	+ poverty
+ scarcity	+ want
- plenty	- adequacy
-sufficiency	- sufficiency

The words analysed are embedded with meanings as they equally depict the subject matter of e-begging for financial incapacity. The words ‘need’ and ‘help’ signify a kind of logical use of language by beggars in distress or desperation to draw the attention of the audience to their situation through their language prowess. The word ‘need’ may not project the actual help required as in texts TL...1 TL...3 and TL ...4 while texts TL...2 and TL ...5 state specific needs for money and food.

Analysis of the Pragmatic Acts and the Discursive Strategies in the Texts

In order to analyse the pragmatics and the discourse strategies of the selected internet begging texts, J.R. Searle’s (1969, 1979) classification of speech acts shall be applied. Searle (1969) proposes five acts which are: the expressives, the commissives, the assertives or representatives, the directives and the declaratives. They are all employed in e-begging discourse and shall be adopted for the data analyses of this work.

Expressive Acts

The expressive acts usually show the psychological state of the speaker with reference to the proposition. It is very important to note that e-beggars state their feelings and attitudes to situations and conditions via expressive acts (paradigm case: thanking, apologising, welcoming, congratulating, e.t.c.). Expressive acts express emotions, disguise, sympathy, e.t.c. Such acts are common in the selected internet begging texts, examples of which are presented in alpha-numeric order with specific lexical items revealing the acts italicised:

- EA...1 Any contribution would be greatly *appreciated*.
- EA...2 *Thank* you for taking the time to read and *God bless*.
- EA...3 Again, *thank* you so much for your time!
- EA...4 *Thank* you in advance for your kindness!
- EA...5 Any donations would be tremendously *appreciated*.

Commissive Acts

The commissives tend to commit the speaker to some future course of action (paradigm cases: promising, threatening offering, vowing, challenging, swearing, e.t.c.) through the use of performative verbs like promise, swear, vow, e.t.c. Their examples are presented in alpha-numeric order as indicated below:

- CA...1 I *will return* the generosity as soon as I recover from surgery.
- CA...2 I *will* even take job offers that are legitimate and honest work.

CA...3 I *will give* every donator back -if he wishes a video that i will sing the Christmas carol and thank you personally

CA...4 As things improve, your donations *will be paid* forward to St. Jude Children's Research Hospital in Memphis, TN.

CA...5 I want some money as a loan which *i'll re-pay* within a span of 1 year.

Texts CA...1, CA...2 and CA...5 are promises while texts CA...3 and CA...4 are vows.

Assertive/Representative Acts

Assertives do commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (paradigm cases: asserts, conducts, claims, indications, reports, predictions, e.t.c.). Their examples are presented in alpha-numeric order as indicated below:

AR...1 We really *need* the bill paid

AR...2 I *need* my spirits brought back up

AR...3 I was *robbed* at gunpoint on my way to work at 6:30a.m.

AR...4 Recently, one of my metal caps *popped off* and splice right through the filling underneath.

AR...5 I was *laid off*, discovered my boyfriend had been cheating on me, *got very sick*, and now I'm being *threatened* with an eviction during the Holidays.

Performative verbs are always associated with assertive acts which are “claiming, saying, stating, asserting, e.t.c. In text AR...1 the speaker says “We really *need* the bill paid” while texts AR...3 and 4 are just reports. Text AR...5 claims “I was laid off” and then text AR...2 asserts that “I *need* my spirits brought back up.”

Directive Acts

Directive acts which may be questions, commands, requests, pleadings persuade the addressee to carry out some instructions or perform some physical actions. Examples of such acts presented in alphanumeric order as shown below:

DR...1 Please help me pay for the paperwork so my wife can be declared a permanent citizen and also be allowed to work

DR...2 I am making a request for help with paying for new tires and a four wheel alignment for my car, a 2010 Subaru Legacy sedan.

DR...3 Please help me pay my bills and get back up on my feet!

DR...4 Please help save our home

DR...5 Please help us!

Texts DR...1, 3, 4 and 5 employ “pleas” while text DR...2 uses a different mode of “request.”

Declarative Acts

Such acts affect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs which tend to rely on elements of extra-linguistic institutions (paradigm cases: excommunicating, declaring war, christening etc.). Examples of such acts presented in alpha-numeric order below:

DL...1 I would like the money to *pay* for the test which is 40 dollars.

DL...2 Now I am trying to start over and raise some money to *get* a place and *pay off* all my bills.

DL...3 but this was *my last resort*.

DL...4 I'm the *only chance* this family has

DL...5 The *ONE thing* I want to give him this year *is* not going back to living in my car.

Declarative acts are not common features of e-begging as the verbs that characterise the acts are “decide and declare” Texts DL...1, 2 and 5 declare intentions of how he wants to use the money, while texts DL...2 and 3 presents decisions occasioning the begging acts.

Discursive Strategies in the Texts

Various discursive strategies are employed in the e-begging texts. They are: communicative strategies, persuasive strategies, politeness strategies and storytelling strategies.

Communicative Strategies

If communicative strategies are conventional, they follow the normal natural order but if they are conversational they are actions and reactions. Observable at this juncture is Grice’s (1975:45) cooperative principles in conversation of quantity, quality, relevance and manner. Examples of communicative strategies are presented in alpha-numeric order below:

- CS...1 Just a determination to keep going and move forward.
- CS...2 No sob stories (I've already cried).
- CS...3 I am seeking help in order to place a down payment on a vehicle.
- CS...4 YES I AM CRYING OUT LOUD.
- CS...5 No money for us.

In the texts CS...1 to 5, it is clear that what is central to them is to pass across messages that the audience must understand, even though in different styles or strategies. Texts CS...1, 2 and 5 do not begin with normal sentence pattern. The encoder just tries to communicate and observes the cooperative principle due to the system, or medium of passing this message. Texts CS...3 and 4 are different but have been so that the addressee can understand the persons who are in need.

Persuasive Strategies

These are strategies beggars employ to persuade, and appeal to the audience as they beg. Several of such texts begin with “please,” some begin with greetings, while others are mild tone to beg with the intention is to win addressee’s heart. The sentences that persuade may either be at the beginning, middle or end of the text. Some examples of persuasive strategies are presented in alpha-numeric order below:

- PS...1 Any help someone could spare would be amazing.
- PS...2 If there is anyone who would be willing to help even a little please let me know!!
- PS...3 If anyone can help me in anyway I would be most grateful.
- PS...4 If you can relate to my situation please make a donation today
- PS...5 If you are in a position to help us, even if it’s just a little, my family would be very grateful!

Texts PS...1 to 5 are persuasive in nature as they appeal to the audience in a mild tone.

Internet beggars appeal to the emotions of the audience as they use powerful and effective pathos to achieve their goals.

Politeness Strategies

E-beggars always use polite words as they appeal to the internet public with the intention of receiving help. Some examples of politeness strategies are presented in alpha-numeric order as shown below:

PL...1 WE ALL ENCOUNTER DIFFICULTIES THROUGH SOME EDGES OF LIFE.

PL...2 I would greatly appreciate all the help I can get.

PL...3 We are having a rough time

PL...4 My wife and I have fallen on some hard times just recently

PL...5 Please help us!

Texts PL...1 to 5 employ a level of politeness as they woo people with the use of the exclusive “we” and the use of “please” also.

Story Telling Strategy

Many e-beggars tell stories about themselves while others make reference to their experiences to attempt to convince their audience about their plight since they understand the socio-cultural concepts of their environment and exploit such to gain sympathy. Examples of storytelling strategies are presented in alpha-numeric order below:

ST...1 I'll just begin my story...here is how it all started....

ST...2 I don't know what to say.

ST...3 Hello, my name is Angelina. I would like to tell my situation.

ST...4 Once upon a time, there lived a group of young adults who came to find one another through catastrophic circumstances and a helping hand from their Creator.

ST...5 I know everyone has a story and I would truly appreciate a minute of your time to read mine.

Texts ST...1 to 5 tell their stories in order to win sympathy of the audience which is not just narration but includes aspects of description.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSIONS

This paper attempts to show the essence of pragmatics in rhetorical communication. It has investigated e-beggars begging spree on the internet via the use of pragma-rhetorical theory which has been quite relevant in analysing discourse. The selected texts analysed in this paper present several interesting features of discourse which ordinarily may not have been deemed to be a very serious academic adventure.

CONCLUSION

The pragma-rhetorical theory studies the speaker's use of every available rhetorical strategy in the communicative process as well as the intended effects. In essence, this theory makes it possible to blend both pragmatics and rhetorics of the internet begging texts.

FINDINGS

It was discovered that the words ‘need’ and ‘help’ signify a kind of logical use of language by beggars in distress or desperation to draw the attention of the audience to their situation through their language prowess. It was discovered that the proposition of five speech acts of the expressives, the commissives, the assertives or representatives, the directives and the declaratives

by Searle (1969) was effectively employed by the e-beggars. Various discursive strategies of communicative strategies like persuasive strategies, politeness strategies and storytelling strategies were also employed in the e-begging texts. The internet beggars' used every available rhetorical strategy in the communicative process as well as to create intended effects.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper recommends as stated below:

E-beggars should try to avoid using the speech act of the directives. Also, website owners should device means of educating prospective e-beggars on appropriate language skills and discursive strategies.

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THE EFFECT OF WORD REPETITION PRIOR TO READING ON SKIMMING

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ABSTRACT

The present research examined the effect of word repetition prior to reading on skimming of Iranian EFL learners. Initially, a sample of 108 sophomore EFL learners majoring in English translation was selected based on systematic random sampling from Dorud Islamic Azad University. Then, based on an ECCE proficiency test, 62 participants were chosen and divided into two homogeneous groups of 31. One group had exposure to repetition practice and the other did not have any chance for repetition practice of reading materials. After thirteen academic sessions, the results of the paired t-test regarding the pre-tests and post-tests of the two group means showed that both differences (group one: -2.83 and group two: 1.22) were significant at 0.05 levels ($P < 0.05$). These findings suggest that repetition practice prior to reading, could improve EFL learners reading comprehension; however, repetition practice could demonstrate greater improvements on skimming than EFL learners' reading comprehension.

KEYWORDS: Reading Comprehension, Skimming, Repetition practice, EFL

INTRODUCTION

The term *repetition* reminds most educators and scholars of the era of Audio-lingualism in the 1950s when *behaviorism* and *structuralism* were the dominant notion of most language learning.

Years later a variation on Audio-lingualism in British-based teaching and elsewhere, introduces the procedure most often referred to as PPP, which stands for **P**resentation, **P**ractice, and **P**roduction. In this procedure the teacher introduces a situation which contextualizes the language to be taught. The language, too, is then presented. The students now practice the language using accurate reproduction techniques such as *choral repetition* (where the students repeat a word, phrase, or sentence all together with the teacher 'conducting'), *individual repetition* (where individual students repeat a word, phrase, or sentence at the teacher's urging), and cue-response drill (Harmer, 2001 p. 80). *Repetition* also reminds us of other interrelated concepts as rote learning, memorization and imitation. O'Malley *et al.* (1985b) in discussion of learning strategies introduce repetition as a cognitive strategy in imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal.

For long *repetition* has been playing a very significant role not only in subject matter learning and learning in general but also in language learning in particular. Although *repetition* has been an obvious dominant feature of the 1950s and 1960s in audio-lingual and other methods, it has been under severe criticism by scholars in the 70s and 80s. Basically they believed that it is not *repetition* and rote learning that leads to language learning/acquisition but rather it is meaningful learning. This criticism has made a shift from *repetition* to meaningful learning in meaningful context. It means that repetition must be contextualized in a meaningful way (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Nevertheless, nowadays many teachers still use *repetition* in language classes that only covers a small portion of their teaching plan.

The approach taken in this study toward *repetition* is different from that of rote learning and meaningful learning. This pre-reading technique is used in early stages of leaning elementary or intermediate level where students have a fuss over the meaning of new words that hinder them from general understanding. The merits of this technique are to prepare our students to deal with authentic reading materials not only in class but also out of class. It is believed that in the early stages of learning l2 there is too much fuss and anxiety over new words in reading. This technique is devised to help students pass this phase/stage and will not be useful for real reading in later stages. However, it can be employed wherever or whenever you feel students have the problem of dealing with new vocabulary.

Our perspective first deals with the psycholinguistic aspect of repetition in linguistics on native language acquisition then it goes on to argue how to devise an artificial technique to bridge the gap between the problem of new vocabularies and reading comprehension students have when they skim for gist or main idea. The argument of this technique draws on the morphological (eye-familiarity) and phonological (ear-familiarity) effect of repeating new words prior to reading where the focus is on skimming for gist and main idea. These two issues will be discussed further later in this paper. From Psycholinguistics point of view, O'Grady *et al.* (1996) have studied the way our mind processes the new and repeated words. They have also experimented the way our mind treats repeated words by what they call frequency effect, priming effect, garden path effect, and eye movement. The relationship and implication of each of these terms in EFL/ESL will be discussed further later throughout this paper.

A common paradox in reading lessons is that while teachers are encouraging students to read for general understanding, without worrying about the meaning of every single words, students, on the other hand, are desperate to know what each individual word means (Chastain, 1988; Brown, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Harmer, 2001; Ellis 2004; Davidson, 2005). Given half a chance, many of them would rather tackle a reading passage with a dictionary (electronic or

otherwise) in one hand and a pen in the other to write translation all over the page (Harmer, 2001)! What we suggest in this paper is a technique that not only takes the students' attention away from new words that are believed to hinder students from reading for general understanding but also increases their speed of reading comprehension. When asked to skim a text for general understanding, most students worry about new words and their meaning. Some even stop when faced with a new word and try to find its meaning; they waste a lot of time on working out the meaning of every single word. Although students are likely to encounter new grammatical structures, idioms, or expression, and pronunciation problem in reading, we attempt to resolve their prime concern, that is, dealing with new vocabulary on the assumption that repetition of new words prior to skimming develops not only speed of reading comprehension but also pronunciation. When we read we pronounce the words on the text that meet our eyes either loudly or silently. So one tool to reading comprehension that speeds up our rate of reading is the pronunciation of new words. This objective is best achieved through this technique where students practice repetition of new words and phrases prior to skimming.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

We will now review the role of new vocabulary (words) and repetition on skimming in previous literature chronologically. The role of each one is either cited separately or together.

Chastain (1988) contends that students do not need to know all the *vocabulary* and grammar to comprehend a major portion of the text and to recreate the author's meaning. They can learn to read at a much higher level of proficiency than in the past when the preoccupation with the grammar deprived them of the opportunity to read for meaning. On skimming he advocates the idea that readers can comprehend without concentrating on every word, and that they can take the same approach in the second language that they do subconsciously in the native language.

Grellet (1981 cited in Chastain, 1988) also maintains that proficient readers do not concentrate on sentences and words. Instead they start with global understanding and then work toward comprehension of detailed aspects of the reading. Aspatore (1984 cited in Chastain, 1988) discusses the way we can help students overcome vocabulary problem, she suggest that teachers ask students to read and underline unknown words without looking up the meaning in the dictionary; to use contextual clues to guess the general meaning; to skip unknown words; and to focus on cognates, roots, prefixes, and suffixes. Krashen and Terrell (1983 cited in Chastain, 1988) outline the following communicative strategy: 1. Read for meaning. 2. Don't look up every word. 3. Predict meaning. 4. Use context.

Brown (2000) touches on the issue of vocabulary and repetition in first and second language learning from the perspective of imitation and frequency of occurrence in first language learning and rote learning as well as meaningful learning in second or foreign language learning. He goes on to argue that rote learning of vocabulary repetition is obsolete and is replaced by meaningful learning in meaningful context. Brown and Hanlon (1970 cited in Brown,2000), for example, found that the frequency of occurrence of a linguistic item in the speech of mothers was an overwhelmingly strong predictor of the order of emergence of those items in their children's speech.

Harmer (2001) contends that where reading for general understanding is emphasized, good readers are able to take in a stream of discourse and understand the **gist** of it without worrying too much about the details. Reading for such 'general' comprehension means not stopping for every word, not analyzing everything that the writer or speaker includes in the text. Elsewhere he points out that because students are worried about new words in reading even when they are asked to skim he proposes that we pre-teach vocabulary that is in the reading text. This removes at least some of the barriers to understanding which they are likely to encounter. However, if we want to give students practice in what it is like to tackle authentic reading texts for general understanding then getting past words they do not understand is one of the skills they need to develop. By giving them some or all of those words we deny them that chance. We need a common-sense solution to this dilemma: where students are likely to be held back unnecessarily for three or four words, it makes sense to teach them first. Where they should be able to comprehend the text despite some unknown words, we can leave vocabulary work till later.

Ellis (2004) compares the role of repetition in stereotypical classroom processes in traditional form-focused pedagogy, echoing, i.e. the teacher repeats what a student has said for the benefit of the class; and task-based pedagogy, repetition, i.e. a student elects to repeat something another student or the teacher has said as private speech or to establish intersubjectivity. Elsewhere in his book Lantolf (1995 cited in Ellis, 2004) sees repetition as a form of language play that is important for language acquisition. His learners repeat items and structures that lay within their zone of proximal development.

Davidson (2005) deals with vocabulary issues under the title of lexical knowledge. He points out that it is clear that as the number of unknown lexical items in a reading passage increases, the more difficult it is for students to read it with comprehension. He argues that at the beginning stages and perhaps at the intermediate levels, it may be advisable to maintain a minimum of new vocabulary items. For more efficient readers, a higher percentage of new lexical items could be included in the reading passage, since efficient readers, by definition, have learned either to guess the meaning of unknown words or to ignore them. Finally, it might be difficult to find authentic texts in which the quantity of unknown lexical items is very small. Thus, the number of unknown vocabulary items in a reading passage is affected by the students reading ability, the goal of the reading course, and the objective of the particular lesson.

All the literature cited above tells us about the role of new words in reading and how they might hinder our readers from general understanding. Most of the body of this literature encourages the reader not to stop for new words when skimming. And the majority of the scholars believe that repetition and rote learning is obsolete and must be replaced by meaningful learning in context. Nothing is pointed out about the role of vocabulary repetition prior to skimming. What is lacking in the body of this literature is that where they believe that students should simply not worry about every new word when skimming, they do point out how we can remove this problem. Apparently when we tell our students to do so, we know that they are still worried about those new words and are desperately seeking their meaning. They will not stop until their need is satisfied. The pre-reading technique proposed here is thought to satisfy their needs.

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

To fully understand the merits of this pre-reading technique it is advisable to consider the way our mind processes new words and the way it is affected by repeated vocabulary. Psycholinguistics has a great contribution to the study of language processing in the mind. Thus

we heavily draw on psycholinguistics from linguistics point of view and skimming from teaching point of view. These two areas of study will be the main focus of this research.

O'Grady *et al.* (1996) have studied in their experiment the effect of lexical decision process on the mind. In the lexical decision paradigm, the experimental subject is seated in front of a computer screen. A word appears in the middle of the screen and the subject must judge as quickly as possible whether or not the word is a real English word by pressing a button labeled 'yes' or 'no'. They have found in many experiments, for example, that subjects take about half a second (500 milliseconds) to press the 'yes' button for frequently used words such as *free* but almost three-quarters of a second to press the 'yes' button for less common words such as *fret*. This finding has been called **frequency effect**. Assuming that longer response time reflect processing that is more difficult or complex, this finding suggest that our mental dictionaries are organized so that words we typically need more often (the frequent words) are more easily and quickly available to us. It also suggests that some aspects of phonology are automatically activated during word reading (although in the lexical decision task, the subject never has to pronounce the word). In other experiment on **priming paradigm** O'Grady *et al.* (1996) found that the response time to words that have been heard or seen before is faster than it otherwise would have been. This is called **priming effect**. On **eye movement** experiment their technique has revealed that fixation times are typically longer for less frequent words, and the point of fixation are typically centered on content words such as nouns and verbs rather than on function words such as determiners and conjunctions. Difficult sentence structures create longer fixation times as well as many more regressive (backwards) saccades. **Regressive saccades** are backward jumps in a sentence and are usually associated with mis-parsing or miscomprehension. On average, backward saccades make up 10 to 15 percent of the saccades in sentence reading, but syntactically complex sentences and semantically anomalous sentences (e.g., *The pizza was too hot to drink*) create many more regressive saccades. It has also been found that poor readers jump back and forth through sentences much more often than good readers do. In another part they introduce **garden path sentences** where readers have to reconstruct or back-track a sentence because of unknown words, ambiguity of the sentence or the structure. Consider the garden path in this sentence: *Since Keith always walks a mile seems like a short distance to him.*

The backtracking readers experience in their reading shows up significantly in eye-movement studies in which it is found that subjects show more regressive saccades sentences as well as longer fixation times (O'Grady *et al.*, 1996).

From linguistics point of view, Falk (1978) talks about native/first language acquisition where it is generally believed that children acquire those linguistic elements or items that are most frequently occurring around them or they most frequently encounter. It means the more exposure to the most frequent language item the more likely for that language item to be acquired. However, there are some language items with less frequency that are exposed to the child through adults/family talk, TV, or radio which are not addressed directly to the child but are presented around him. In this stage s/he does/can not use them but these items form his/her later passive repertoire though they are not used now. He is phonologically familiar with these terms but not semantically. Gradually every one of these phonological terms find their semantic counterparts in the right time and place. The point I am trying to make here is parents or adults underestimate the

ability children have about language acquisition. Although their language repertoire is not complete children can understand a large part of our language, much more than we think and surprisingly those parts they do not understand they save or store them for later analysis. Brown and Hanlon (1970), for example, found that the frequency of occurrence of a linguistic item in the speech of mothers was an overwhelmingly strong predictor of the order of emergence of those items in their children's speech. Though they are not familiar with the meaning of the new words they are familiar with its phonological structure. They are familiar to their ears, or in later stages, even to their eyes though no meaning is retrieved. In acquiring new items, those items that their phonological structures have occurred to the child before are believed to be learnt sooner or better than those he has not heard them before. This theory is also true about second language learners.

Now considering all the above findings from psycholinguistics to child first language acquisition in linguistics and relating them to reading for general understanding in ESL/EFL, we first attempt to find the connection between each of these terms and their implication in teaching skimming. As pointed out previously what *frequency effect*, *priming paradigm*, *priming effect*, *eye movement*, *regressive saccades*, and *garden path sentences* tell us in general suggest that readers spend more amount of time on unfamiliar words and less time on familiar words that are heard or seen before. And some of the regressive saccades or backtracking our eyes make during skimming are the result of those unknown words.

In acquiring new items, those items that their phonological structures have occurred to the child before are believed to be learnt sooner or better than those he has not heard them before. This theory is also true about second language learners. The implication of the phonological familiarity is well manifested in our pre-reading technique. *The theoretical framework suggested here is that when readers meet and hear the new words by choral repetition prior to their skimming, a network of eye and ear familiarity is established in their short term memory when they plunge into the text.* When we read we pronounce the words on the text that meet our eyes either loudly or silently. So one tool to reading comprehension that speeds up our rate of reading is the pronunciation of new words. This objective is best achieved through this technique where students practice repetition of new words and phrases prior to skimming. When readers are familiar with the morphological symbol and sing of the new words, that is, the superficial form of the new words (not their root, suffix, or prefix); as well as their phonological realization through our technique they are thought to have a faster eye movement, over new words and less regressive saccades or backtracking. Priming and frequency effect is also enhanced and garden path effect is thought to be reduced. The repetition technique activates the phonological and morphological representation of the new words in the students' short term memory while the new words will be introduced to their repertoire though no meaning is retrieved. The activation and effect of this short term retention facilitates the speed of skimming and eye movement students experience when they read those new words.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is hoped that the current study, although sketchy, will shed some light on foreign language teaching/learning in general and skimming for general understanding in particular. The attempt made here is to dispel the fuss and anxiety both teachers and learners have over new words when the focus is on reading for general understanding. This study can also give the teachers an alternative toward handling the paradox in reading when students worry about new words. It has been observed that when teachers ask students to read a text and tell them about the main idea or gist of it their first complain and anxiety is about meaning of new words as well as time limit.

Remember that when we ask students to skim a time limit must be made so that students be encouraged to read for general understanding and not for detail.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main questions to be perused in this study are as follows:

- 1) To what extent does repetition of new words prior to skimming for general understanding have a positive effect on students' reading comprehension?
- 2) To what extent does repetition of new words prior to skimming for general understanding negative have a negative effect on students' reading comprehension?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The H1 hypothesis is that repetition of new words prior to skimming for general understanding will have a significant positive effect on students reading comprehension.

The H2 hypothesis is that repetition of new words prior to skimming for general understanding will have a negative effect on students reading comprehension.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In the present research, the participants were chosen from BA students of Islamic Azad University of Abadan. They were studying English translation in their fourth semester. The population was 108 male and female students. The 62 homogeneous participants drawn from this sample were randomly divided into two experimental groups of 30. There were 27 females and 4 males in group one who had no chance of repetition practice; and there were 26 females and 5 males in group two who had a chance of repetition practice. In group one, the average age was 25.29 ranging from 19 to 46. There were 17 bilinguals with Arabic-Persian backgrounds, 1 Turkish- Persian bilingual, 3 Kurdish-Persian bilingual, and the rest were Persian monolinguals. In Group two, the average age was 24.61 ranging from 19 to 39. There were 12 bilinguals with Arabic-Persian backgrounds, 1 Kurdish-Persian bilingual, and the rest were Persian monolinguals. Note that learners' bilingualism, age, and gender were not considered as variables and are presented here only to describe the participants.

Instrumentation

A proficiency *Michigan Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English* (ECCE) Mennen (2005), multiple-choice reading comprehension test of 60 items was first administered to 10 fourth semester EFL subjects. When the reliability was assured, this test was administered to 108 EFL populations in order to select the homogeneous subjects. The other instrument was a 20-item multiple-choice reading comprehension Examination for the Certificate of Competency in

English (ECCE) test that served as pre-test and post-test for both experimental groups. The reliability of the test before administration of the pretest was calculated by the correlation between the means of test and retest by two weeks interval between the test and retest. The reliability coefficients was calculated based on correlation coefficient and it was met as $r = 0.87$. It is worth noting that group one was not exposed to repetition practice; and group two had chance of repetition practice. Assignments given to both groups also included out of class activities alongside class activities. Participants were permitted to work in groups to check the correct pronunciation.

Procedures

A 60-item language proficiency test of ECCE Michigan, whose reliability coefficient was met, was prepared and administered to 108 EFL subjects from Islamic Azad University of Dorud, Lorestan Province and after an interval of two weeks the same test was administered to the same 10 subjects and the reliability of the test and the retest was calculated as $r = 0.83$. Then, for the purpose of selecting the homogeneous participants, those who scored one standard deviation below and above the mean which was 14.4586 were called for the next phase of the study. After that, they were randomly divided into two experimental groups of 31 participants. Their classes were held once a week for 90 minutes for thirteen sessions.

Before any treatment, a different reading test of ECCE was administered to measure the participants' reading comprehension; in fact, this reading test of 20 multiple choice items designed for pre-intermediate to intermediate EFL level functioned as both pre-test and post-test for both groups. It is a reading test. In order to make sure of the reliability of the pre-test, it was administered to 10 fourth semester EFL majoring BA translation students twice within two weeks intervals. The reliability of the pre-test obtained by the coefficient correlation between the test and retest was $r = 0.87$. After the reliability of the pretest was assured, it was administered to both experimental groups to measure their reading comprehension knowledge.

It is important to note that some in-class and out of-class reading activities were worked out in groups. Sometimes assignments included internet extracted texts of their own materials. However, in order to avoid taboos in these texts, the socio-cultural appropriateness of materials was checked with the subjects before they were brought into the classroom.

Teaching:

This pre-reading technique is used for early stages of learning, for example, an elementary or intermediate level where students have a fuss over the meaning of new words that hinder them from general understanding. The merits of this technique are to prepare our students to deal with authentic reading materials not only in class but also out of class. It is believed that in the early stages of learning there is too much fuss and anxiety over new words in reading. This technique is devised to help students pass this phase/stage and will not be useful for real reading in later stages. However, it can be employed wherever or whenever you feel students have the problem of dealing with new vocabulary.

Once the reading text has been specified the teacher is required to extract the new words and phrases out of it. Determining what words are new and must be listed out prior to a reading task is a difficult decision to make. For what might be new to one student might not be new to another. There are books which list their new vocabularies either at the beginning, throughout the lesson, or at the end of it. In case they're listed at the beginning you do not need to bother to determine the new words and can benefit from that. In cases where new vocabularies are not

specified and it is up to the reader to extract the new words, there seems to lie the hard decision of determining what words are new to our readers. Based on the English level of our students, experienced teachers know how to identify which words are to practice prior to a reading task. Therefore, for carrying out this technique teachers need to prepare a list of new vocabularies or phrases in case there isn't any. Once you have prepared the list of the new words and phrases, write them on the board or ask the students to write them on their notebook or a piece of paper (when we write the new words retention will be longer). Now ask your students to listen to you carefully and attentively; then read the list out loud with normal speed to the students. Next on the second round read every word or phrase slowly and separately. On the third round have students repeat every word or phrase after you for two or three times. The number of the word repetition depends on the students' difficulty with the words and the feedback the teacher gets from the students. Teachers must be careful that words be pronounced correctly. It does not matter if they do not know the meaning of the new words because the purpose of this activity is word recognition and *eye (morphological) and ear (phonological) familiarity* with the new words prior to extensive reading. Then you can give a time limit of, say, five minutes for skimming the text for general understanding or main idea. Students must be encouraged to read as fast as they can and not to stop for new words. Remember that the purpose is to teach the students to kick the habit of stopping or wasting time on new words.

Testing the hypothesis:

Two groups of 31 intermediate students at the fourth semester from Dorud Islamic Azad University were selected. One group will be the control group where we gave them a reading text and ask them to read the text in 6 minutes and answer the questions at the end. This group received no repetition practice.

The experimental group, on the other hand, had the chance of receiving the repetition practice and are asked to skim the text in 5 minutes.

We hypothesize that our experimental group which has received repetition practice will score higher on general understanding test. A paired sample *t*-test (Hatch & Farhady, 1981) will best serve our purpose here to compare the mean score of these two groups.

RESULTS

The performance of group one (no repetition practice) on the pretest and the posttest produced a difference between their scores. **Table 1** below shows the participants' performance on the 20 item multiple-choice reading comprehension Pre-post tests. This was followed by paired *t*-test as depicted in **Table 2**. The significance value for the *t* test indicates that there is a significant difference between the Pre- post tests. The difference was also significant even at 0.001 level. Performance of the participants in group two, who had exposure to repetition practice, on multiple-choice reading comprehension test also revealed that there existed a difference between the means of Pre-post tests (see **Table 3**). Once the raw scores were obtained, paired *t*-test was calculated. **Table 4** illustrates the comparison of these two means. Comparison of the pre-post tests means indicated a significant improvement over learners' reading comprehension.

The Effect of Speech Rate on Listening Comprehension of EFL learners

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of group one's pretest and posttest

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Group 1 pre-test	31	10.74194	3.306234
Group 1 post-test	31	13.58065	2.486955

Table 2: Group 1 paired t-test

Paired differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. error mean	95% confidence interval of the difference		t	df
Sig				Lower	upper		(2-
tailed)							
Pair 1 pre-posttest :	-2.838710	2.517893	0.452227	-3.762280	-1.915139	-6.277	30
	0.000						

Level of significance = 0.05 Sig = 0.000 t observed = - 6.277 t critical = 2.000

Table 3: Descriptive statistics: pre-test and post-test results of group two

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Group2 pre-test	31	11.35484	2.763432
Group 2 post-test	31	12.58065	2.202638

Table 4: Group 1 paired t-test

Paired differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. error mean	95% confidence interval of the difference		t	df
Sig				Lower	upper		(2-
tailed)							
Pair 2 pre-posttest :	-1.22581	3.007875	0.540230	-2.32910	-1.22509	-2.269	30
	0.031						

t observed = -2.269 level of significance = 0.031 at 0.05

Table 5: Paired t-test of G1 & G2 pre-and posttests

Paired differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. error mean	95% confidence interval of the difference		t	df
Sig				Lower	upper		(2-
tailed)							
Pair 1 pre-posttest :	-2.838710	2.517893	0.452227	-3.762280	-1.915139	-6.277	30
	0.000						
Pair 2 pre-posttest :	-1.22581	3.007875	0.540230	-2.32910	-1.22509	-2.269	30
	0.031						

Pre-post tests of group one was higher compared to that of group two. Statistically, differences found in group one are simply more significant than those of group two (See **Table 5**).As indicated in **Table 5**, there is enough significant difference in t-observed and t-critical as well as level of significance of group one to reject H01 not only at 0.05 level but also at 0.001 level. It is worth mentioning that the level of significance for rejecting the null hypothesis was set at the 0.05 level of significance for both hypotheses (H01 and H02).

DISCUSSION

In the following, the research questions are respectively discussed and answered.

1) *To what extent does repetition of new words prior to skimming for general understanding have a positive effect on students' reading comprehension?*

Table 5 shows that participants' performance on the pretest is much different from their performance on the posttest. Results suggest that participants' exposure to repetition practice had a significant effect on the improvement of their reading comprehension. The results related to the first hypothesis are in agreement with Rivers (1981), Chastain (1988). In the same line, Rivers (1981) believes that learners should be exposed to speech repetition and when speech is mechanically repeated it is not desirable; and learners can understand natural speech even in the early stages of language learning.

2) *To what extent does repetition of new words prior to skimming for general understanding negative have a negative effect on students' reading comprehension?*

A comparison between the means of pretest (11.35) and posttest (12.58) of group two showed a difference. Group two performances on the reading comprehension posttest showed that although they had only exposure to repetition practice, their performance had an improvement which was not comparable to that of group one. However, the difference (0.031) was large enough at 0.05 level of significance to reject the null hypothesis. It implies that listening comprehension is affected by fast or slow speech but exposure to slow speech rate is constructive and formative as well. Although the degree of its formativeness and construction is not obviously so clear, it demonstrated a degree of improvement.

There are a lot of intervening factors that might change the results of research or the results one gains might not be because of the treatment. Repetition practice in reading comprehension cannot be easily studied if other factors are not taken into account. Repetition practice whether slow or fast is strongly affected by other factors such as formality and informality of the speech, the situation type, the relationship between speaker and listener, level of technicality of that speech or its jargon, learners background and world knowledge and many other factors Rivers (1981). However, this research could somehow imply that participants' exposure to repetition practice made a better improvement over those who did not expose to repetition practice. What is important to note is that this research can partially imply that in designing any reading material, imposing repetition practice exercises do make a difference but what makes the biggest difference is the *naturalness* of both material and exercise. Therefore, mechanical repetition speech practice is not a long term objective in teaching and learning reading comprehension. On the other hand, repetition practice might be used for the same purpose but in EFL / ESL reading comprehension in general and speech repetition in particular that may suggest a different sense.

Researchers have to guard against the idea that comprehending of skimming not an end but rather a short path practice to comprehend natural texts. EFL / ESL listeners do not usually go around asking their interlocutors to repeat their speech; rather repetition in speech may happen rarely when the global features of communication are broken down. It means, in real life experience in L1 as well as L2, naturalness is more marked or prominent than unnaturalness. It might also be true about EFL / ESL skimming in reading comprehension. Students had better practice to deal with skimming, although they might have started with slow speech repetition.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of the two experiments presented in this research focused on the effect of word repetition on Iranian EFL learners' skimming and reading comprehension. The assumption to use word repetition practice was motivated by the fact that reading comprehension constitutes a large input in academic language comprehension, and on the other hand, there are limitations for learners to comprehend this natural input in EFL / ESL context; therefore, word repetition practice before skimming has been another compensation for the learners' limitations to be investigated. The results of the two experiments conducted in the present study provided positive answers to our hypotheses and research questions. That is, skimming or exposure to repetition practice made a significant improvement in learners' reading comprehension. This improvement was manifested in their post test compared to their pretest. On the other hand, learners' exposure repetition practice also demonstrated an improvement. However, the significance of the improvement in exposure word repetition practice was greater than those who did not have any chance to word repetition practice. What is clear in this research is that word repetition practice before reading has some features that can be beneficial to the readers.

Although others might have come to different conclusions on the issue of word repetition prior to reading on skimming and reading comprehension, the word repetition practice counted better in this research. In teaching and learning reading comprehension, word repetition cannot be overlooked. But the decision to use what materials is vital to the whole concept of teaching and learning reading comprehension. Although the results of this research implied that word repetition prior to reading made improvement in skimming and reading comprehension. Teachers and learners should take into account features of word repetition practice has some advantages and disadvantages. But if comprehending the passages and texts is the optimal objective, therefore, the attention and focus should be given to word repetition practice before reading. However, the researchers do not claim the results obtained from this study are absolutely conclusive. Put it another way, as people come to learn a new language in a foreign context, not only their skills practice influence their performance in general and their reading comprehension in particular but also many other factors including sub skills practices for the language proficiency they are going to obtain, the context in which they are going to master the new language are extremely influential in this regard. Of course, the researchers believe that to know more about the role of word repetition prior to reading on skimming in EFL contexts more studies are needed. It is suggested that further more future studies take the limitations of this study into consideration and investigate the characteristics of other pre-reading exercises, and their influences on the reading comprehension in academic and non-academic situations.

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ON THE NATURE OF L2 PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

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ABSTRACT

The paper is to explore the nature of pragmatic competence in a second language (L2). In this context, “pragmatic competence” refers to a speaker-hearer’s tacit knowledge of the conditions governing the appropriate use of language (Botha 1995:123). The paper begins by Thomas’s (1983) two division of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic components of pragmatic competence in an L2. Then, the two types of pragmatic failure in communication and their differences by Blum-Kulka (1982) and Thomas (1983) are discussed. Following this, Blum-Kulka’s (2002) argument that certain aspects of pragmatic competence in an L2 are universal is discussed. Finally, the paper summarizes components of pragmatic competence in an L2.

KEY WORDS: Pragmatic, Competence, Second language

INTRODUCTION

It is widely accepted that second language (L2) learners differ in their pragmatic competence. According to Thomas (1983), a speaker’s pragmatic competence in an L2 would be made up of pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence. Thomas claims that a speaker, in order to be pragmalinguistically competent in an L2, should have grammatical knowledge about that language, i.e. abstract or decontextualized knowledge of intonation, phonology, syntax, semantics, etc. Lack of such knowledge may result in multiply ambiguous sentences such as in (1), where the ambiguity is caused by lack of semantic knowledge, since the verb *miss* in (1) has at least three senses, i.e. *fail to catch*, *discover loss* and *avoid from*. *She* and *it* are an indefinite number of possible referents.

(1) She missed it. (Thomas 1983:92)

In addition to this, Thomas argues that a speaker should also have social pragmatic principles in order to be sociopragmatically competent in an L2. According to Thomas, the social pragmatic principles include knowledge about cross-cultural beliefs of using language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context. One example of this is as in (2), where the social determined pragmatic principles allow English first language (L1) speakers to determine that *she* refers to *Elsie*, *it* refers to *the earlier train*; and *missed* has the sense *failed to catch*. Lack of the knowledge may result in L2 pragmatic failure in communication to be discussed as follows.

(2) A: Why didn’t Elsie come on the earlier train?

B: She missed it.

(Thomas 1983:93)

PRAGMALINGUISTIC AND SOCIOPRAGMATIC FAILURE IN L2

There are two types of pragmatic failure argued by Thomas (1983), i.e. pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure in an L2. Pragmalinguistic failure occurs when the pragmatic force mapped by speakers onto a given utterance is systematically different from the force most frequently assigned to it by native speakers of the target language (Thomas 1983:99). Pragmalinguistic failure may be caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of illocutionary force. Illocutionary force, according to Finegan and Besnier (1989:329), is concerned with a speaker's intention in making an utterance in a given context. For example, the illocutionary force of an utterance such as *Do you have the time?* may be a request for information about the time of the day or a yes/no question (*Do you have the time [to help me]?*). In the utterance, should a difference in the linguistic encoding of illocutionary force exists, such as the conventionalized understanding of the word *time*, pragmalinguistic failure may occur, as in (2), where the native speaker requests for information about the time of the day, the non-native speaker misunderstands the native speaker's intended meaning of *time* as a yes/no question (*Do you have the time [to help me]?*).

(2) Native: Do you have the time?

Non-native: I have to go home.

(Flowerdew 1988:69)

Sociopragmatic failure in L2 is related to "the social conditions placed on language in use" (Thomas 1983:99). Sociopragmatic failure may take place when there are cross-cultural differences in what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior (Thomas 1983:99). Appropriate linguistic behavior, according to Bachman (1990), involves knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context. For example, the phrase *I'm asking you to ...* might in a suitable situation be taken by a native English speaker to be command, as when a teacher says to a student *I'm asking you to stop talking*. In Russian, the literal equivalent *proshu vas* is not considered as a command, but merely a device for *going on record*. Thus, if a Russian student of English says something to his or her teacher like *I'm asking you to look at my work*, which in an appropriate situation might well be perceived by the native English speakers as face-threatening and domineering. In such a case, sociopragmatic failure is caused by different social beliefs of the appropriate linguistic behavior in request between English and Russian.

As can be seen from the above illustration, one of the differences between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure in an L2 is that pragmalinguistic failure concerns one's linguistic knowledge or grammatical conventionalized rules of an L2, while sociopragmatic failure involves one's sociolinguistic knowledge or social conventionalized beliefs of language usage in an L2 (Thomas 1983). Another difference is that pragmalinguistic failure may be caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force in an L2, while sociopragmatic failure stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior in an L2 (Thomas 1983).

THE ROLE OF INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

Essentially in agreement with Thomas, Blum-Kulka (1982) claims that pragmatic competence involves realizing indirect speech acts necessarily in an L2. Indirect speech acts involve cases in which the speaker says one thing and means that, but also means something else. One example of indirect speech acts is as the utterance *It is cold in here*, a speaker may mean that the physical atmosphere in a room, as a warning not to bring the baby in, he or she may also mean a request to turn on the heater.

Blum-Kulka claims that learning to realize indirect speech acts in an L2 necessarily involves learning new strategies for realizing indirect acts, as well as new social attitudes about the appropriate and effective use of these and other strategies in context.

An evidence to support Blum-Kulka's claim comes from the different strategies of indirect speech acts performed in different languages. Take the conventional strategies of making indirect requests as example, say, in Hebrew and English. A conventional standard for making indirect requests in Hebrew, as in (4), is by questioning whether there is a possibility in the future for the act to be performed. While the same case in English is represented in (5), where *can you do (such and such)* is a standard way of indirectly making a request.

(4) Ulay telex lišon? (Perhaps you'll go to bed?)

(5) Can you go to bed?

(Blum-Kulka 1982:34)

Another evidence in favor of Blum-Kulka's claim is from different social attitudes about the appropriate and effective use of the same strategies in a given context. One example is the strategy used for asking for the salt at a dinner table in Israel. The speaker of Hebrew who wants the salt passed can use an expression which is a literal translation of an English as *can you pass me the salt?* However, the most appropriate and effective expression of the social attitudes used at dinner tables in Israel is *Elšar leqable at hamelax? (Is it possible to get the salt?)*.

From the evidences provided above, one can see the different strategies of making indirect requests between languages such as Hebrew and English. Consider that a native English L2 learner of Hebrew, if he/she does not learn the new strategies of making indirect request in Hebrew, i.e. by questioning whether there is a possibility in the future for the act to be performed as *Ulay telex lišon? (Perhaps you'll go to bed?)*, he/she may fail to realize the indirect speech acts in Hebrew. Hence, for native English L2 learners of Hebrew, they might have to learn new strategies of making indirect requests in Hebrew which are different from his/her native strategies. Likewise, the speakers of Hebrew in Israel also need to learn the new social attitudes about appropriate and effective use of some strategies in context, which might be quite different from that of their native norms such as *Elšar leqable at hamelax? (Is it possible to get the salt?)* etc.

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSAL PRAGMATIC KNOWLEDGE

In spite of the fact that there are new strategies and appropriate social attitudes of indirect speech acts that L2 learners have to learn, certain features of indirect speech acts may be shared by L1 and L2, and can be transferred from L1 to L2, as such, these shared features will play its basic role in the acquisition of pragmatic competence in an L2 (Blum-Kulka 1982, 2002). According to Blum-Kulka, certain aspects of pragmatic knowledge of L2 are based on universal

principles, and these universal principle based knowledge will help L2 learners in acquiring the basic ability to interpret and realize indirect speech acts in an L2.

One evidence supporting Blum-Kulka's claim can be found from learners of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, mainly from their interlanguage production or comprehension of requests, suggestions, invitations, refusals, corrections, complaints, apologies, compliments and indirect answers (Ellis 2002). For example, in Hebrew, the general question about direction of driving is a request for a lift, as in (6), where the question of the Hebrew may be different from that of the native English speakers'. However, the native English speaker can understand the meaning of the Hebrew and make an answer to it, i.e. *No, we are unable to go with you.*

- (6) A (the Hebrew) Are you going our way?
B (native English speaker) Yes, but I'm afraid the car is full.
(Kasper 1992: 212)

Another evidence is from the cross-culturally shared conversational rules, as in (7), the non-native speaker begins his answer to the question *Is he not very nice?* by another question *Not nice? I think he's great.* According to the survey of Blum-Kulka's (1982:44), 90% of native speakers agree with the answer *Not nice? I think he's great*, which is compatible with the answer of the L2 learners with 85% agreement.

- (7) Non-native: What do you think of our new boss?
Native: Not very nice.
Non-native: Not nice? I think he's great.
(Blum-Kulka 2002:57)

In the example of (6), albeit not always in the same way as native English speakers make a request, the Hebrew manages to get the information that is needed from the native English speakers. In such a case, one can see that there is universal principle pragmatic knowledge shared by English and Hebrew, which operates in the specific sets of realizing different strategies in the context. Likewise, from the answer agreement in (7) between the native speakers and the L2 learners, one can see that the ability to draw conversational implications may come from the universal pragmatic knowledge shared by L1 and L2. Hence, it may be the transfer of the universal principle pragmatic knowledge from L1 to L2 that enables L2 learners to acquire the basic ability to interpret and realize indirect speech acts in an L2. Recently researchers tried to explain L2 learners' performance in terms of universal processing mechanism or its relationship with the grammar (e.g. Felser and Roberts 2007), although the results are still in debate (Shin and Christianson 2012).

CONCLUSION

In sum, L2 pragmatic competence consists of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. Pragmalinguistic knowledge entails grammatical rules about an L2, lack of such knowledge may result in pragmalinguistic failure. Sociopragmatic knowledge involves sociolinguistic perceptions of an appropriate linguistic behavior in an L2, lack of this knowledge may cause sociopragmatic

failure. The nature of pragmatic competence in an L2 involves learning new strategies for realizing indirect acts, as well as new social attitudes about the appropriate and effective use of these and other strategies in context. The basic ability to interpret and realize indirect speech acts in an L2 is acquired from the universal knowledge of indirect speech acts shared by both L1 and L2.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE INNOVATED WRITING PROCESS APPROACH (IWP)

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ABSTRACT

The Innovated Writing Process (IWP) approach was designed as a program for teaching writing, and was implemented in the classroom settings, to investigate the impact of Revising and Redrafting on improving Arab Learners of English written accuracy (Mourssi, 2013a). The IWP approach focuses on the role of both the teacher and the learner and gives detailed guidelines for instructors to follow. It is an attempt to apply Sociocultural Theory in the classroom settings (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), and how the input can be well reprocessed which, in turn, develops the Second language learners' internalized grammatical system. In other words, based on the shortcomings found in previous methods of teaching writing - product writing/ process writing - and following recent works in applied linguistics and second language acquisition on form-focused instruction, ex-implicit teaching and learning (Mourssi, 2013b), and types of feedback, the Innovated Writing Process approach was designed. Finally, implementing the IWP approach indicates that corrective feedback does help L2 learners in the SLA, and also indicates the metalinguistic feedback may be one of the most suitable feedback types which help L2 learners acquiring second language linguistic items.

KEY WORDS: *Form-focused instruction, interaction, metalinguistic feedback, revising, redrafting and SLA.*

INTRODUCTION

In designing the IWP, a variety of teaching methods were integrated bearing in mind the L2 learners' level and the types of error/mistake which emerge as they prepare their written work. Corrective feedback is provided to the learners by analyzing their errors/mistakes and explaining the nature of the errors/mistakes produced during writing, and how L2 learners managed to produce the target-like forms themselves after receiving metalinguistic feedback (Mourssi, 2012b).

The reader should be reminded that the Innovated Writing Process approach (IWP) is one of the findings of an empirical study in the context of Arab learners of English (Mourssi, 2013a). This paper consists of six main parts which are: introduction, literature review, theories of language and language learning in the IWP approach, the design, the procedures, conclusion and the references. In the following is the literature review.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on Process Writing (1980s-1990s)

There is an assumption suggesting that, when teachers teach students how to write target-like forms, the process helps the latter to learn the underlying structures of the language as well. Raimes (1983, p.3) posits that the use of writing as a medium for communication reinforces grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary. Thus, teaching writing provides a unique way to reinforce learning.

According to Reid (1993, p. 21), in the 1970s, many ESL composition teachers in intensive language programs used writing mainly as a support skill in language learning. Some of the activities in writing included: doing grammar exercises, answering reading comprehension questions, and writing dictation. Furthermore, writing was viewed as one technique used to add interest to a lesson or even perhaps, as a testing device to diagnose grammar or comprehension errors. In the 1980s, linguists and teachers of EFL/ESL observed that traditional writing exercises were “product” orientated, meaning that they were more concerned with the final result than with the process of learning which can occur through the writing activity.

Richards et al. (1999, p. 290) defined process writing as an approach that puts emphasis on the composing process, wherein the writer makes use of tools such as planning, drafting and revising. These tools are used to help students improve their writing skills and possibly achieve target-like procedures in composing. Sometimes, process writing is comparable with the product approach or the prose model approach that focuses on producing different kinds of written products by imitating model paragraphs or essays.

Pennington et al. (1996) conducted a study on the introduction of process writing among secondary school students in Hong Kong. The outcome of the survey suggests the presence of a complex pattern of cause and effect relationships between students' attitudes and teachers' behaviours. The results also revealed that the student group that had positive experiences with process writing are those who demonstrated positive attitudes at the beginning of the project. This group was supervised by a teacher who integrated elements of process writing into his/her teaching routine. On the other hand, the group that evaluated the experience negatively was taught by a teacher who focused on traditional language exercises and grammatical accuracy, and did so with very little integration of elements of process writing. These findings underline the importance of the role of the teacher in teaching writing processes inside the classroom.

Fulcher (1997, p. 17) maintains that the process approach often emphasizes the development of thinking skills along with the writing process. Raimes (1983, p. 3) also underscored the strong relationship between writing and thinking that makes writing a valuable part of any language course. Therefore, it can be surmised that writing holds an important role in the development of language skills. The stages of process writing will be presented in the following section.

Stages of Process Writing

A number of recent works support the use of process approaches in teaching writing and these are reviewed below:

Hedge (1997, p. 21) explains that the process of writing contains a number of stages as represented in the following Table.

Table 1: Stages of Process Writing

being motivated ► to write	getting ideas ► Together	Planning and ► Outlining	making notes ►	Making a first ► Draft	revising Re-planning ► redrafting	editing and getting ready ► for publication
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To emphasize clearly the importance of the teacher’s role during the writing class, Nunan (1989, p. 13) asserts that English as Second Language (ESL) courses must be carefully planned for each class is a single piece of a complex design. Likewise, teachers should determine the materials in order to arrive at a specific performance level by setting some goals that a teacher aspires to achieve (2012d).

Reid (1993, p. 73) argues if the ESL writing class is one of the areas in a writing program, it is necessary to know not only the performance objectives of a single course but also the overall goals of a writing program involving other classes. Teachers may also experience difficulties in teaching speaking, listening and reading. But more often, it is more difficult to teach writing because it requires greater effort and a larger amount of time from both teachers and students (Hedge, 2005).

Pressley and Yokoi (1997) examined certain instructional practices and procedures in teaching writing developed by fifth-grade teachers, nominated as outstanding teachers in the U.S. An analysis of the survey returns shows that these teachers have prioritized the development of word-level comprehension, and critical thinking skills. As they believed that the development of background knowledge is essential to the process, students were consistently reminded about the importance of planning, drafting, and revising. In the following, I will talk about research on writing processes in the 21st century.

Research on Writing Processes in the 21st Century

Due to the dramatic changes in the process of teaching writing in the 1990s, there has been an increasing awareness amongst L2 writing researchers and teachers that classroom-based instruction plays a significant role in helping L2 learners improve the accuracy of their written texts (Bitchener, 2005; Ferris, 2002, 2004). To ensure improvements in writing skills, additional exercises now include discussions and exercises in marking strategies encompassing further activities such as revision in the planning and drafting stages (Hedge, 2005, p. 5). These exercises are expected to increase teachers’ interest to find intervening measures using feedback in a variety of ways. That is what the author seeks to achieve with Arab learners and teachers of English.

Concerning difficulties and challenges in the teaching process of writing, Hedge (2005, p. 7) argues that compared to speech, effective writing requires a number of things, such as: (1) a high degree of organization in the development of information; (2) ideas or arguments; (3) a high degree of accuracy; (4) the use of complex grammatical devices for focus and emphasis; and (5) a careful choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns and sentence structures. These five items may explain why writing can be a difficult task for most ESL/L2 students. From this point of view, the author is trying to activate the writing sub-processes which are drafting, revising and

redrafting and increasing the role of the teacher inside the classroom in teaching writing skills. The approach integrates noticing, active interaction, feedback and error analysis aiming at improving foreign learners' writing as well as speaking. The framework of the IWP is presented in Figure 1.

Hedge (2005, p. 10-15) developed several assumptions which could motivate students and teachers. Four of these assumptions are as follows: (1) students need opportunities to practise various forms and functions of writing, and from within these develop different skills; (2) the need to encourage students to go through the processes of planning, organizing, composing, and revising; (3) the process of marking needs constant review and modification, and (4) giving students more time in the classroom to generate discussions and activities that encourage effective writing processes.

Shin (2008, p. 3) made a critical review of the usefulness of grammar correction in second language writing. The author concluded with a discussion on the necessity and importance of proper grammar correction for L2 writers. Similarly, Rahimi (2009) has investigated the impact of feedback which includes reference to the students' L1. Both indirect feedback and no feedback approaches were studied. He concluded that feedback is effective.

O'Brien (2000, p. 40) sets out four principles which presumably govern the teaching of writing. These are: (a) teachers should be aware of the difficulties involved in writing and should take into account the assessment methods they use; (b) teachers should expose students to a variety of models of effective writing; (c) teachers should be careful in selecting topics; and (d) teachers should bear in mind that the production of the whole text must be encouraged otherwise the teacher will lose the opportunity to proceed with the teaching of the sub-processes. Students in most of the Arab countries in many cases are asked to write a final draft of their work from the beginning not only in secondary schools, but in the foundation course provided to Higher Education Students in many different universities. Qatar University EFL Students are typical of university students from the Gulf countries which are considered as the richest countries in the Arab world. These students need to use modern technology and methods in teaching as well as in the business and banking fields. In order to examine the effects of this practice, Al-Buainain, (2006) conducted survey of language instructors at the Department of Foreign Languages in the University of Qatar. The majority were in agreement that most EFL students were weak in three writing courses namely: writing 1, writing 2 and advanced writing. With this finding, Al-Buainain (2006) recommended further research that will investigate this problem and develop remedial procedures that will help students overcome their weakness and therefore lessen the number of them failing every semester.

Al-Buainian (2006) enquired whether it was possible to acquire syntax through writing. In a similar vein, Weissberg (1998) tested the hypothesis that SL learners may acquire syntax in part by writing in class and the result indicates that classroom writing has a positive effect in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). On the other hand, Liu (2000, p. 33) argues that "insufficient use of lexical cohesive ties by ESL students contributes to the lack of cohesion in their writing". In Iran, Kiany and Khazrineshed (2001) carried out a study to explore the relationship between English proficiency, writing ability and the use of conjunctions. Part of the conclusion the authors were able to draw suggests the creation of innovative materials since these can insert particular types of conjunctions for every level.

Due to the need to improve high school students' writing, De la Paz, et al. (2002) made a study on the writing instruction used in middle school classrooms and developed an experiment requiring the development of a variety of cognitive resources. De la Paz et al. (2002) concluded that the students in the experimental group wrote longer essays containing more mature vocabulary and were qualitatively better than those in the non-target groups.

The literature on process writing has guided the researcher to concentrate on group work, noticing, interaction, feedback, error analysis and motivating teachers as well as learners to be involved in writing processes and consider writing as a starting point to improve their other language skills. In other words, there are a number of potentially conflicting issues; students need grammar rules in order to be accurate, but traditional grammar teaching has proved to be demotivating for them. Each method and approach has its own theory of language and theory of language learning. In what follows the theory of language on which the IWP approach is based.

THEORIES OF LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE IWP APPROACH

Theory of Language in the IWP Approach

The IWP approach is based on integrating three different theoretical views of language. The first one is the *structural view* where language is considered as a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The mastery of these elements in this system is the target of language learning. The elements of this system are defined as: phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations and lexical items.

The second view is the *functional view* where language is viewed as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning, and where the emphasis is on semantic and communicative dimension rather than on grammatical characteristics of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than elements of grammar and structure.

The third view is the *interactional view* where language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. This view has been added since "interaction" has been central to theories of second/foreign language learning and pedagogy for more than thirty years, when Rivers (1987) defines the interactive perspective in language education:

"Students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages that contain information of interest to both speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both" (p.4). In other words, the IWP approach can represent implications of the Sociocultural Theory in SLA (2012d).

Theory of Language Learning in the IWP Approach

In general, the IWP approach is derived from adapting three common and well known theories in the field of SLA, aiming at changing the theoretical frameworks of these theories into a pedagogical framework to be implemented and activated inside the classroom context. In particular, the IWP approach is based on integrating three well known theoretical approaches in

explaining second language learning namely: Behaviourism, Innatism, and Interactionism, which reflect the theory of language of the IWP approach. In detail, *Behaviourism* states that language learning is the result of imitation, practice and feedback, while Innatism gives priority to learners' innate characteristics (which Chomsky calls "Innatism Position"), and Interactionism focuses on the role the linguistic environment in interaction with the learner's innate capacities.

To be more specific, theory of language learning in the IWP approach matches with the Behaviourism theory which believes that learners receive linguistic input from speakers in their environment and which also outlines that language learners start off with the habits formed in L1 as they linked the second language learning with Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). CAH claims that when there are similarities between L1 and L2, the learners will acquire the Target Language with ease, but when there are differences, the learners will have more difficulties (Cook, 2001). This is what happens with Arab Learners of English due to significant differences between Arabic and English, and the crosslinguistic influence of L1 in the acquisition of L2 is indicated in the current empirical study. From this point, one part of the teacher's and of the learners' role is formed in the IWP approach.

The second theory on which the IWP approach is based is *Innatism*, which states that language learning is based on L1 acquisition not L2 acquisition, and that the Universal Grammar (UG) is based on language competence in the target language. According to the IWP approach the UG should be available to second/foreign language learners and at the same time language competence should not be practical without language performance in which foreign/second language learners transform their knowledge of the language into use of the language. Other linguists termed these changes as changing the declarative knowledge *that* into procedural knowledge *how* through practice (Anderson, 1995; De Keyser, 1998, 2003). In other words, the IWP approach is basically associated with the kind of learning which takes place in the classroom environment, where rules learning must be followed by practice, and when practice is not enough to get reasonable output, input should be reprocessed to be more understandable and more comprehensible until such time when the learners become able to use the target rules. From this point, another part of the teacher's and of the learners' role in the IWP approach is formed. Pica (2008) concludes that the more time is spent in treating the form, the more form is retained in learners' mind.

The third theory on which the IWP approach is based is the *Interactionism*. This theory is based on the first two theories mentioned above where the first one states that learning is based on receiving the linguistic input from the speakers in the learners' environment, while the second one states that learning is based on increasing the comprehensive input. The researcher thinks that these two theories cannot be performed or implemented without interaction. The interaction comes in the form of negotiation which will not concentrate on one aspect only whilst ignoring the other, but it will be negotiation of both *form* and *meaning* in the form of metalinguistic feedback following the processes of error analysis and contrastive analysis based on the type of learners' errors/mistakes.

Gass and Selinker (2008) claim that the interaction approach accounts through input *exposure to language*, production of language *output*, and *feedback* that comes as a result of interaction. They add that negotiation, recasts and feedback are items that involve in interaction. They also add that negotiation serves as catalyst for change because of its focus on non-target-like forms, by providing learners with information about non-target-like forms; negotiation enables learners to

search for additional confirmatory evidence (p.331). The negotiation is termed in the current method as metalinguistic feedback.

In conclusion, the theory of language learning in the IWP approach includes both *process-oriented theories* which are built on learning process, and *condition-oriented theories* which emphasizes the nature of learners and the environment where language learning takes place. We as researchers, have to have in mind the principle that to predict or to analyze the learners' errors may provide the teacher and the learners with many opportunities to interact, negotiate, and with valuable information in the areas of difficulties that learners may encounter. This might help learners develop their interlanguage grammar and, in turn, help them develop their internalized grammatical system. What links theory with practice or approach/method with procedures is what is called "Design". In what follows the design of the IWP method is discussed.

THE DESIGN OF THE IWP APPROACH

The design of the IWP approach includes: the objectives of the method, the content of the method, the syllabus, followed by the role of the teacher and the learners, and finally the role of the instructional materials.

The Objectives of the IWP Approach

As the IWP approach is based on process-oriented theories and condition-oriented theories, the objectives of the IWP approach are linguistically oriented, having in consideration the nature of the ALEs and the educational environment where language learning takes place. The objectives of the IWP approach are as follows:

- to improve learners' accuracy and fluency reflected in improving their speaking as well as writing;
- to present explicit grammar in a stimulating and motivating way using suitable teaching materials which attract the learners attention, e.g. picture-story writing;
- to increase awareness of contrastive aspects between L1 and L2 and to internalize these features as part of their L2 grammar;
- to transfer the explicit knowledge to learners' speaking abilities as well as their written work;
- to teach students how to notice their mistakes by interacting while speaking as well as writing.

Sets of picture-story writing can be selected as the basis on which the students are asked to write an essay; these writing tasks should be related to the learners' environment. These tasks could be designated as the teaching materials.

The Content of the IWP Approach

The IWP approach consists of seven main stages which involve the speaking process as well as the writing process. In what follows the stages of the suggested framework of the innovated writing process are described Figure 1.

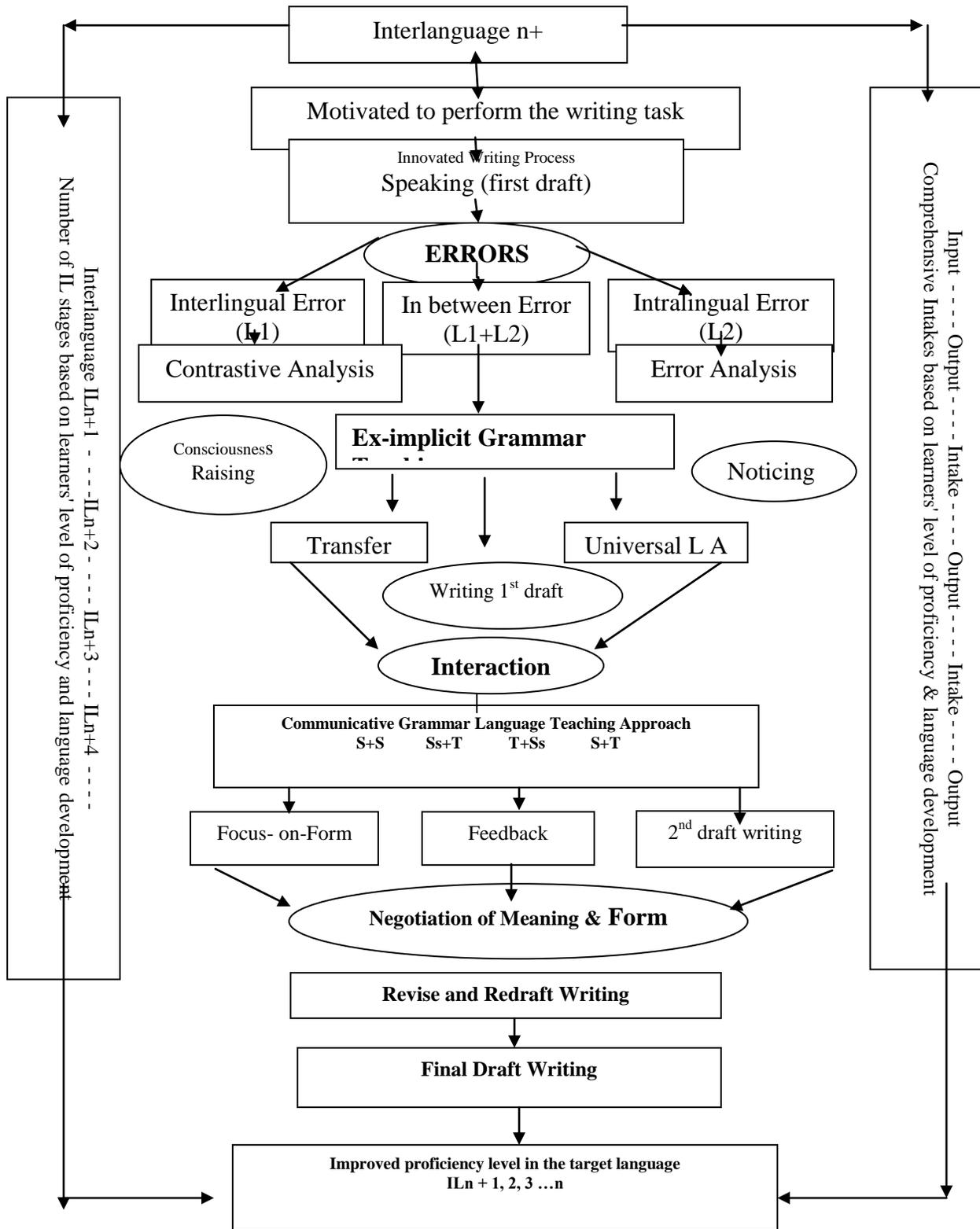


Figure 1: Framework of the Innovated Writing Process

The Main Seven Stages in the IWP Approach

Stage One (Discussion)

This stage includes open discussion inside the classroom; it can be in the form of small groups of four students or in pairs. The discussion is followed by brainstorming and making notes in addition to asking questions and suggesting ideas and sequences related to the target topic. The most important factor here is that the teacher should motivate all the students to participate in the activity/task; however, he/she should organize/control the discussion in order to avoid the drawbacks of the communicative approach (one of the drawbacks of Communicative approach is giving the opportunity to the learners to talk without control or correcting their mistakes).

Stage Two (Oral Feedback on Discussion and Analyzing Spoken Mistakes)

The teacher's role here is to render oral feedback on the speaking abilities of the students, explaining the mistakes that students made while speaking. The teacher starts analyzing the mistakes on the board following the Grammar Translation Method. The students are then asked to speak again about the same topic paying attention to the mistakes they had made previously. The teacher can interrupt students if they make the same mistakes in order to give his/her metalinguistic feedback on the non-target-like forms following the procedures of Communicative Language Teaching method (CLT) and Task-Based approach (TB). Although CLT and TB do not generally focus on mistakes, they might suggest ways in which mistakes can be highlighted and corrected through repetition and correction.

Stage Three (Planning)

Students are to select ideas individually, arrange the information and structure the text, followed by self-evaluation and participation in group-evaluation while planning the initial draft. The teacher's role is to give his/her oral/written feedback on planning for each group depending on the learners' output.

Stage Four (First Draft)

Following the first three stages, students are asked to write the first draft asking the teacher for help when it is required. If they are not able to finish the first draft during class time, they are allowed to complete it when after school. The teacher should ask students not to get help from others in performing this task: the first draft must be written by students themselves in order to find out what the gaps are.

Stage Five (Oral/Written Feedback on the First Draft)

The teacher asks students to have group/peer evaluation. The role of the teacher at this point is to give his/her general written feedback, based on the students' writing following the procedures and carrying out the role of the teacher and the role of the learners while performing the Task-Based approach in explaining and correcting the mistakes (Nunan, 2009, p. 66-67). It is suggested that oral feedback may be better in which the teacher presents the metalinguistic

feedback for all the students, however, some students prefer to get written feedback. It is the role of the teacher to keep the individual differences in mind.

Stage Six (Analyzing Written Mistakes and Writing up Second Draft)

After providing the feedback on the first draft, the teacher presents and explains the written mistakes on the board to all the students. The students are then asked to write their second draft based on the previous input they have already gained from the previous stages. This stage is an attempt to re-process the input for low/high level learners.

Stage Seven (Final Written and Spoken Draft)

If the students still make mistakes in their writing, the teacher should hold individual discussions during which he/she explains the mistakes to weaker student/s individually. After all students finish their final draft, they are asked to read their writing to all students. The teacher should ask students to comment on each piece of writing in a communicative and confident way. The researcher thinks that including the audience who are to listen to the speaker student in evaluation might motivate the ALEs to get more interest in interacting with the teacher and in turn to revise and redraft their writing whenever they feel they need to. Here they become aware of what they do and feel that they have to spend more time revising and redrafting their writing in order to produce a good piece of writing.

In what follows the learners' different settings in the IWP approach, the theories of SLA and proposals used in implementing the IWP approach and finally the integrated ELT methods and approaches followed in the IWP approach are discussed.

Learners' Settings in the IWP Approach

To discuss the learners' settings in the IWP approach, first it needs to be agreed that learning foreign/second language naturally is different from instructionally learned languages. In other words, learning from natural situations is different from learning in a classroom; and therefore, acquiring is different from learning with respect to Krashen's (1982) classification. Based on the drawbacks of different situations and different learning settings, the IWP approach exemplifies the advantages of the three different settings inside the classroom, aiming at creating a variety of settings to cover the different attitudes and the individual differences of the students inside the classroom. These settings are: natural setting, instructional setting and finally the communicative setting. In what follows the characteristics of each setting are described.

Natural Setting

This is the first setting followed in the IWP approach, where learners have their freedom to interact as if they were outside of the classroom. They should feel free to interact with each other. Following this setting, they will be exposed to a variety of vocabulary and structures. Each learner should interact using the foreign language to their best ability. The main goal of this setting is to improve learners' fluency and get rid of any anxiety.

Structure – Based Instructional Setting

In this setting, learners learn linguistic items one by one. The teacher presents the simple ones followed by more difficult ones. The learners' errors must be analyzed in order to improve their accuracy. To be more practical, the teacher asks questions which students answer, the teacher then evaluates the learners' answers – this is called Initiation/ Response/ Evaluations (IRE) exchange (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 112). This setting is essential in terms of the teacher's analysis of learners' errors following ex-implicit grammar teaching and giving the corrective feedback in the form of recast feedback, metalinguistic feedback and finally elicitation feedback. The weaker learners get the opportunity to participate actively in the writing task.

Communicative Instructional Setting

The third setting is a result of the first two settings, which both aim at improving learners' fluency and accuracy. The third setting aims at re-processing the input to be more comprehensive and understandable. It is considered to be the most important for learners in order to get the chance to interact effectively, correct their errors, arrange their ideas and produce appropriate piece of writing based on the outcome of the previous two settings. In this setting, the teacher focuses on meaning negotiation having ensured that learners have learnt the target structures related to the task in the previous settings.

Theories of SLA and Proposals Implemented in the IWP Approach

The four proposals in the IWP approach see Figure 2, have been suggested in order to develop and implement SLA theories inside the classroom. These four proposals match with the learners' settings mentioned previously and with the ELT methods and approaches which will be discussed later on. The four proposals are:

Let's Talk

This proposal emphasises the importance of access to both comprehensible input and conversational interactions between the teacher and the learners (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 150).

Get It Right from the Beginning

This proposal is selected because of the nature of the ALEs whose previous language learning experience was in grammar translation classes. Lightbown and Spada (2006) claim that teachers avoid giving opportunities for learners to speak freely because this would allow them to make errors (p.139). It is therefore better to give feedback directly and give the chance for learners to produce target-like language from the beginning. This will help learners to make fewer errors while using the language.

Teach What is Teachable

This proposal is the practical interpretation of Pienemann's (2005) developmental features and process ability theory explaining that some things can be taught successfully whereas other things seem to remain un-acquired. In other words, teachers should realize the stages through which learners may pass in learning linguistic items. It will be useless to try to teach a forward stage before a previous one, so in the IWP approach teachers should start with what is teachable and what is learnable first.

Get It Right in the End

This proposal is suggested in order to practically interpret both theories of SLA, namely: Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) and Meaning-Focused Instruction (MFI) as well as their importance in the IWP approach. It is also proposed in order to ensure and agree with the previous proposal "Teach what is teachable" which states that if teaching fails to take the learners' readiness into account, some things cannot be taught. This proposal also emphasizes that some aspects of language must be taught explicitly (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p.166).

The ELT Methods and Approaches Followed in the IWP Approach

In general, the IWP approach is designed to be followed and implemented in teaching writing; it aims at improving learners' fluency and accuracy. The IWP approach is the main outcome and the basic finding concluded from my own empirical study (Mourssi, 2012a). Therefore, the IWP approach is based on a systematic integration of four well known and common ELT approaches.

Audio-Lingual Approach

In the Audio-Lingual approach, following the opportunity for the learners to interact in the form of dialogues, specific grammatical patterns in the dialogues are selected based on the pictures provided and become the focus of various kinds of drill and pattern-practice exercises (Richards & Rodgers, 2006, p. 59). This supports Lightbown and Spada's (2006) theory which states that in Audio-Lingual approach there is little use of the first language, and learners are expected to learn mainly through repetition and habit formation: Audiolingualism is based on communicative approach where implicit learning is used (p.112).

Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)

The second method is the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). It integrates performing certain stages in the IWP method in explaining learners' errors. The main principle of the GTM is that the sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Richards & Rodgers (2006) mention that GTM is still widely practised; it has no advocates although it is a method for which there is no theory (p.7). While implementing the IWP method with ALEs, it is concluded that ALEs become highly motivated and participate effectively while following the GTM in analyzing and correcting their errors as GTM is based on grammar rules where explicit grammar learning is used.

Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)

The third approach is communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT). It is integrated with the previous approaches based on the characteristics of communicative view of language which

has theoretical base: where language is thought as a system for the expression of meaning, the basic and primary function of language is to allow interaction and communication, and finally the structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses (Richards & Rodgers, 2006, p. 161). These concepts are implemented and performed in the IWP approach following the suggested stages one by one shifting between the different methods mentioned above. Having in consideration communicative approach, it is proposed that learning a language can be through implicit and explicit learning.

Task-Based Approach

The last approach which comes at the end of the IWP approach is Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). The TBLT is selected to be integrated in performing the IWP approach, based on its assumptions assumed by Feez (1998, p. 17). Some of the assumptions are: the focus of the TBLT is on the process rather than product; the activities and tasks can be either those which learners might need to achieve in real life or those which have a specific pedagogical purpose, and finally the taught activities are sequenced according to the degree of difficulty and the previous experience of the learners, beside the complexity of the task, and finally the language required to undertake the task.

The Syllabus of the IWP Approach

The IWP method has no specific syllabus since it is a process-based method. Richards & Rodgers (2006) mention that term syllabus is less frequently used in process-based methods, in which consideration of language content are often secondary (p.26). However, the teacher's activities and the learners' activities can be formed as follows:

The Teacher's Activities

The teacher motivates, presents, evaluates, explains, and analyzes the errors, giving oral, written, direct feedback (giving the target-like form), indirect feedback (using recasting for example), and metalinguistic feedback in which the teacher explains the nature of the mistakes without providing the target-like forms for the learners.

The Learners' Tasks

Students revise and redraft their speaking in a speaking process (having space from the teacher to prepare and reformulate their speech before answering the target task) as well as writing in a writing process, notice their mistakes and interact with the teacher to fill in the gaps in their knowledge of L2.

The Roles of the Teacher and the Roles of the Learners in the IWP Approach

The role of the teacher and the role of the learners in the IW P approach are presented in Appendix 1.

The Role of Instructional Materials

Picture-story is one of the main forms of teaching materials in the IWP approach for the following reasons:

- pictures can motivate the students to pay attention;
- pictures can motivate the students to take part in the story;
- pictures can contribute to the context in which the language is being used;
- pictures can bring the outside world into the classroom;
- pictures can be used in many different ways;
- pictures can cue responses to questions;
- pictures can cue substitutions through controlled practice;
- pictures can provide information to be referred to in conversation and discussion (which serve improving speaking as well as writing).

Where the teacher is a stimulator/ pictures will be stimulating/ learners will be stimulated / teaching writing will be a kind of stimulation which tame and persuade learners to participate efficiently. However, the teacher can apply the IWP approach to other types of writing, e.g. general/academic writing.

PROCEDURES OF THE IWP APPROACH

The Procedures Focus on Presenting, Practice and Feedback (PPF)

Presenting

The teacher presents the target linguistic data through the task, e.g. the simple past tense forms is better presented by the picture-story writing.

Practice

Students practise speaking process and writing process following revising and redrafting in performing the task.

Feedback

Teacher follows the process of error analysis as well as contrastive analysis process by implementing the different types of feedback based on the type of the non-target-like forms produced and the level of the learners. The researcher can declare that implementing the IWP participates analyzing and investigates how how ALEs acquire the simple past tense, (Mourssi, 2012a, 2012c).

CONCLUSION

The interactional process, whether it is negotiated interaction, interactional feedback, noticing gaps in knowledge by learners as well as by the teacher, while speaking or while writing, can direct the learners' attention to many things which might have been stored in their memory (implicit knowledge) but that they have temporarily forgotten. The teacher's role is to activate this knowledge which can relate to lexical items, grammatical constructions, phrasal verbs,

prepositions, collocations, and so on. Different types of interaction promote development and lead to an actual improvement in learners' knowledge in the long term.

The IWP was presented (including ex-implicit grammar learning/teaching, feedback, negotiation, and interaction) as a form of Form-focused-Instruction which integrates a strong interactional component. This provides a rationale for the IWP and the Communicative Grammar Language Teaching Approach and how they can help improve the ALEs' written accuracy and fluency as well.

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Appendix A: The Roles of the Teacher and the Roles of the Learners in the IWP Approach

Teacher's Role in the IWP approach	Students' Role in the IWP approach
Getting the SS motivated to the task	SS get ready for the picture-story writing task, receive the question paper and think individually about how to perform the task, listen to the teacher's instructions, brainstorm and get ready to participate effectively in performing the task and ask questions based on the pictures
Teacher answers all students' questions related to the story in turn	SS write one or two verbs under each picture to be used expressing the events of the story, (in the simple past form) and define the subject
Teacher elicits and writes down students' mistakes while talking about the picture-story	SS ask questions related to the verbs used and the new vocabulary used in their writing
Teacher explains the students' mistakes following Grammar Translation Method, showing the differences between English and Arabic sentences (as an oral feedback on students' mistakes while speaking about the picture-story)	SS take notes about the unclear points; arrange their ideas and the sequence of the story events
Teacher asks students to revise and redraft their speaking based on target-like forms of the simple past tense and on the target-like forms of the English sentence which is different from the Arabic form	SS notice their mistakes related to the simple past form and the target-like structure of the English sentences
Teacher asks students to speak about the picture-story, revise and redraft their speaking together in pairs or in groups	SS revise and redraft their speaking after correcting their mistakes based on feedback received, and speak about the story
Teacher asks students to write the first written draft and gives his/her written feedback for each student	SS speak about their story after revising and drafting their story
Teacher analyses the students' errors following the intensive interaction with the students following communicative approach (after marking the first draft)	SS receive the teacher's written feedback and rewrite after revising and correcting
Teacher holds individual discussions with weaker students (whenever it is possible)	SS interact with the teacher and ask for clarification if they do not understand the feedback given
Teacher asks students to write the final draft individually and read their writing in front of the class; then other students are asked to give their feedback in a communicative way	Students write the final draft
Teacher gives the final grade for each student and asks them to write down their weak points to be considered in the following writing lesson	SS read the final draft loudly at the front of the class

CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: THE REPRESENTATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS IN *SUMMIT* SERIES

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the representation of social actors in *Summit* series from critical discourse analysis point of view. In order to do the analysis, van Leeuwen's (1996, 2008) framework is used and the textbooks in question are textually analyzed with an emphasis on *deletion*, *role allocation*, and *substitution*. The findings of this study indicate that the social actors are represented differently with respect to some discursive features. Males are portrayed as more included, prominent, active, and independent social actors than females. Considering jobs, however, both genders are represented as having high-status and ordinary ones. All in all, a female subordination can be implicitly understood from the textbooks.

KEYWORDS: Critical Discourse Analysis, Ideology, Representation, Social Actors, Discursive Features.

INTRODUCTION

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse that views language as a form of social practice and focuses on the ways social and political domination are reproduced in text and talk (Fairclough, 1989: 20). Also, Fairclough and Wodak (1997: 275) state that one of the central objectives of CDA is to consider the linguistic choices a text producer makes as a potential medium through which the ideological import of a particular discourse situation can be reproduced.

According to van Dijk (1998a), CDA is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political and historical contexts. In the same line, Fairclough (1992: 35) simply states that "CDA aims at making transparent the connections between discourse practices, social practices, and social structures, connections that might be opaque to the layperson."

The main assumption of CDA that makes the approach different from other approaches to text analysis is that it stresses not only the decoding of propositional meaning of a text, but also its ideological assumptions. Advocates of CDA are interested in how a text may influence and manipulate its readers by the use of presuppositions that stem from the author's own, particular view of the world and circumstances of a text production. Thus, the text interpretation should include a close analysis of context which is not represented only by: "the immediate environment in which a text is produced and interpreted, but also the larger societal context including its relevant cultural, political, social and other facets" (Huckin, 1997:79).

Regarding language learning, as Karimaghahi and Kasmani (2013: 27) mention, this ideological assumption is not directly imposed by curriculum to the learners; rather it is carried out through

the underlying “hidden agenda” which resides within the text. In other words, the dominant cultural group controls, classifies, produces, and transmits what kind of knowledge is to be learnt and what values and attitudes are acceptable in that society. This results in accepting a particular attitude and value as something normal and natural by learners.

In the context of learning a language, here English, as a foreign language (EFL) the norms of conduct, ideology, etc. are usually disseminated without the learner even being aware of being exposed to such norms. That is, s/he is exposed to a hidden curriculum (Skelton, 1997). Evans and Davis (2000) assert that though researchers and publishers have agreed upon using positive characteristics of different genders in their textbooks, the achievements have not been so significant. CDA takes language as a means of addressing problems of social change. In other words, without any exception, the language used in any text including EFL textbooks can be ideologically loaded although at first glance they may seem innocent. For instance, as Davatgarzadeh and Sahragard (2010: 69) state, studies of the portrayal of women in most EFL textbooks have shown that the stereotypical role of women as mothers and homemakers is still being perpetuated in many current language textbooks.

With regard to the effects of textbooks on learner’s attitudes and ideologies, the present study examines the ways in which social actors are represented in *Summit* series (2006) to uncover the hidden discursive structures. Hence, attempts are made to clarify the ways male and female social actors are represented in the *Summit* series (2006). The study draws on the work of van Leeuwen (1996, 2008) to formulate a framework which utilizes a socio-semantic inventory, in a systematic way. Specifically, the study seeks the answers to the following research questions:

1. Are social actors (men and women) represented differently in the textbooks and, if so, how is this achieved linguistically?
2. What ideological assumptions account for the differences?

METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

The data selected for this study came from four English textbooks used in many English language institutes in Iran for intermediate levels. The *Summit* series includes four books, 1A, 1B, 2A, and 2B, written by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher and were published in the United States of America by Pearson Longman Incorporation in 2006. Each book includes five units and each unit includes two conversations and one reading comprehension passage. In the present study, all the sentences in conversations and texts were extracted and analyzed through CDA, or more specifically, van Leeuwen’s (1996, 2008) framework.

Procedures

In this study, all the sentences in reading passages and conversations have been critically analyzed, focusing on each phrase, clause, and sentence separately and in conjunction with the neighboring phrases, clauses, and sentences. Van Leeuwen’s (1996, 2008) framework is used as

basis for the analysis of the textbooks under investigation to identify whether the features found in the abovementioned data follow an ideologically charged pattern and if so, what the nature of this ideological move can be. Also, to investigate the data statistically, chi-square tests have been used to determine whether the differences are significant.

Van Leeuwen's (1996, 2008) social actors are influenced by the policies and decisions of powerful organizations which either include or exclude them from the centers of power. He explains the principal ways in which social actors can be represented in discourse. In his view, CDA is the impact of power structures on the production of knowledge and the effect of this produced knowledge on identity and subjectivity of the members of the community. His (1996, 2008) framework consists of the following sections presented schematically in Figure 1 below:

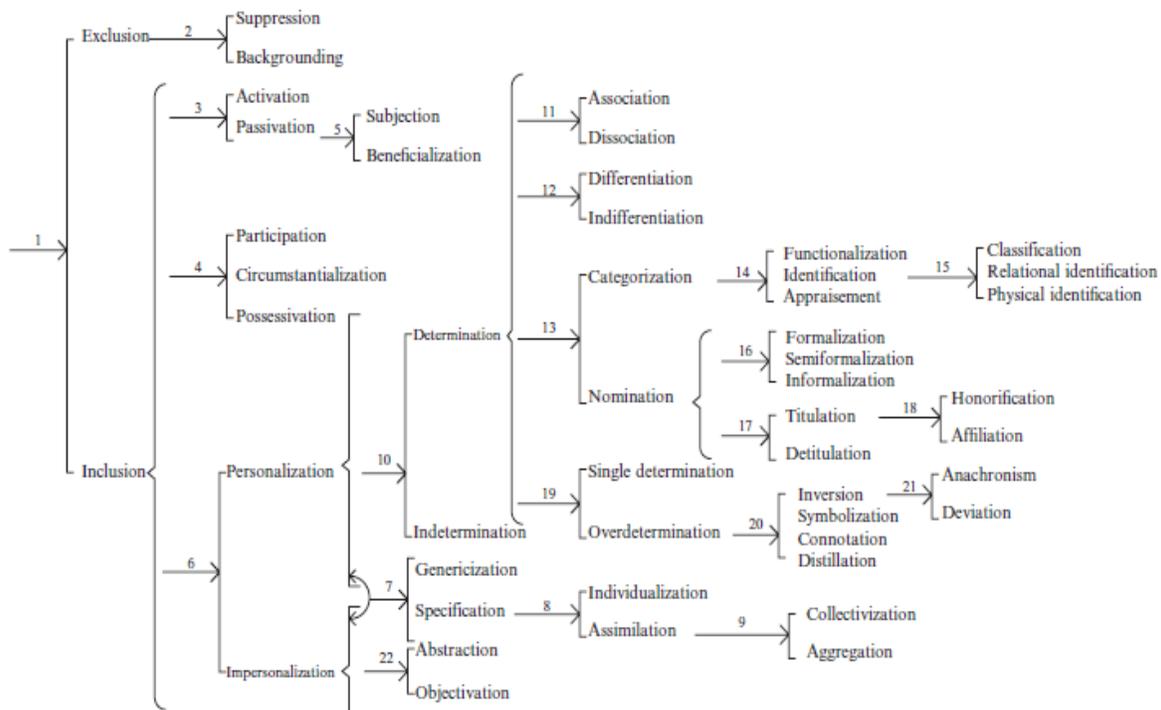


Figure 1: Social Actor Network

As can be seen in the “network”, van Leeuwen (1996, 2008) proposes three main types of transformation; deletion, rearrangement, and substitution. As Karimagahei and Kasmani (2013: 29) explain, “the ‘network’ shows whether the social actors were excluded or included; whether through rearrangements different roles were assigned to different social actors; and whether any substitutions were used in their representation.”

As one type of discourse (here an EFL textbook) does not include all the categories and modes of representation, for practical purposes, the following elements of van Leeuwen's framework (1996, 2008) are considered to function as the criterion for the analysis: *Exclusion, Inclusion, Activation, Subjection, Beneficialization, Functionalization, Classification, Relational Identification, Formalization, Semiformalization, Informalization, Indetermination, Abstraction, Objectivation, Genericization, Individualization, Collectivization, and Aggregation*. Van Leeuwen (1996: 32-69) and (2008: 23-54) define these elements as the following:

EXCLUSION/INCLUSION: Social actors are sometimes omitted or backgrounded to serve certain purposes.

ACTIVATION/PASSIVATION: Social actors can be activated, i.e. represented as the active, dynamic forces in an activity, or passivated, i.e. represented as undergoing an activity or as being the recipient. Passivation necessitates a further distinction: the passivated social actor can be *subjected* or *beneficialized*. Subjected social actors are treated as objects in the representation. Beneficialized social actors form a third party which, positively or negatively, benefits from the action.

FUNCTIONALIZATION: Functionalization occurs when social actors are referred to in terms of an activity, in terms of something they do, for instance, an occupation or role.

Classification: In the case of classification, social actors are referred to in terms of the major categories by means of which a given society or institution differentiates between classes of people.

RELATIONAL IDENTIFICATION: Relational identification represents social actors in terms of their personal, kinship, or work relations to each other, and it is realized by a closed set of nouns denoting such relations: “friend,” “aunt,” “colleague,” etc.

NOMINATION: Nomination is typically realized by proper nouns, which can be *formalization* (surname only, with or without honorifics), *semi-formalization* (given name and surname), or *informalization* (given name only).

INDETERMINATION: Indetermination occurs when social actors are represented as unspecified, anonymous individuals or groups.

ABSTRACTION AND OBJECTIVATION: The former occurs when social actors are represented by means of a quality assigned to them. The latter occurs when social actors are represented by means of reference to a place or thing closely associated either with their person or with the activity they are represented as being engaged in.

GENERICIZATION: Genericization occurs when social actors are represented as classes.

Individualization: Individualization occurs when social actors are referred to as individuals.

Collectivization: Collectivization occurs when social actors are referred to as groups which are realized by plurality, by a mass noun or a noun denoting a group of people but not treated as statistics.

AGGREGATION: It quantifies groups of participants by treating them as statistics. These elements will be dealt with in the next section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Deletion

The process of exclusion/inclusion, categorized under deletion, is a central concern for CDA. According to van Leeuwen (2008: 28) “representations include or exclude social actors to suit their interests and purposes in relation to the readers for whom they are intended.” Some exclusion may be “innocent”, details which readers assume to know already or which are deemed irrelevant to them; others tie in closely to certain ideologies which should be considered. Table 1, below, summarizes the inclusion and exclusion of males and females in *Summit* series:

Table 1: Inclusion and Exclusion of Male and Female Social Actors

Inclusion / Exclusion	Male (No. =393)	Female (No. =211)	X ²	Significancy
Inclusion	387 (98.47%)	203 (96.20%)	34.082	.000
Exclusion	6 (1.53%)	8 (3.80%)	.061	0.704

As Table 1 shows, male social actors are included with considerably more frequency than female ones and, on the other hand, female social actors are excluded more frequently. In the case of inclusion, as the statistics reveal, the difference is significant ($p < 0.05$). However, this difference is not statistically significant regarding exclusion ($p > 0.05$).

Out of 20 units analyzed, only 4 texts have been allocated to successful and famous women including Helen Keller, Jane Goodall, Dr. Janice Perlman, and Donna Paxton while more texts have been considered to introduce successful and famous men such as Paul Newman, Beethoven, Freud, Dr. Robert Ballard, etc. Furthermore, the series mostly reflect positive attitude toward males and negative toward females. In a conversation in Book 2A page 39 a female social actor is included as a grumbler:

Example 1. Meg: Oh, Carla's always ticked off about something or other.

In another conversation in the same book, on page 40, the authors have provided female characters to describe their *shortcomings*. But, in another conversation in Book 2B page 75 a male social actor is introduced as someone who turned his life around successfully:

Example 2. Olivia: That's the one. Well, he's apparently turned his life around. I just heard he's the CEO of MegaStar Foods.

With regard to the exclusion as an important factor of CDA, *Summit* excluded male and female actors in some texts:

Example 3. Newman was told that the salad dressing would sell only if his face were on the label. (Book 1A: 34)

Example 4. B: Well, everyone says she's bad news. (Book 1A: 6)

In most cases of exclusion, however, both male and female actors have been excluded. It is a common phenomenon in newspaper texts and political speech. In this way, both social actors and their activities are excluded. The following examples make the point clear:

Example 5. Maintaining a hopeful, positive, yet realistic perspective in the face of hard times can be a real challenge. (Book 1A: 8)

Example 6. It is estimated that as few as 1600 giant pandas remain in the wild today. (Book 1B: 70)

Role Allocation

In this section, the roles that social actors are given to play in representations are considered. In van Leeuwen's words (2008: 32-33), "representations can relocate roles or rearrange the social relations between the participants." He further points out that representations can endow social actors with either active or passive roles. As van Leeuwen puts it:

"Activation occurs when social actors are represented as the active, dynamic forces in an activity, passivation when they are represented as 'undergoing' the activity, or as being 'at the receiving end of it'." (2008: 33)

In this respect, the current study examines the representation of the two social actors with regard to their actions since they are inextricably related, especially considering the nature of actions in relation to which social actors are activated or passivated. The findings of the analysis are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Role Allocation of Male and Female Social Actors

Role Allocation	Activation	Passivation		Total
		Subjected	Beneficialized	
Male	314 (96.02%)	9 (2.75%)	4 (1.23%)	327
Female	184 (95.33%)	6 (3.10%)	3 (1.57%)	193

As Table 2 indicates in the textbooks both male and female social actors are mostly activated in activities (96.02% and 95.33% respectively) and in a few cases passivated (3.98% and 4.67% respectively). This much more activation of both social actors rather than passivation in *Summit* series may be due to the fact that the books are prepared for EFL learners whose knowledge of English is not supposed to be high.

Table 3: Chi-square Results for Male and Female Role Allocation

Role Allocation	Male	Female	X ²	Significancy
Activation (Total = 498)	314 (63.05%)	184 (36.95%)	22.434	.000
Subjection (Total = 15)	9 (60%)	6 (40%)	4.895	.018
Beneficialization (Total = 7)	4 (57.15%)	3 (42.85%)	1.857	.154

As can be seen in Table 3, the activation of male social actors is greater than that of females (63.05% and 36.95% respectively) and, also, the difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that *Summit* series represent males as active and dynamic actors in their social context. The following examples show male and female activation in the textbooks:

Example 7. Max: I want to get out and see the world. (Male Activation; Book 2A: 3)

Example 8. Olga: I think you're wrong. (Female Activation; Book 2B: 99)

In regards with passivation, i.e. subjection and beneficialization, both male and female social actors are passivated only in a few cases and as can be seen in Table 3, the difference between

male and female actors is not significant ($p>0.05$). As stated before, this might be due to the fact that these textbooks are compiled for intermediate EFL students.

Substitution

Social actors are represented through different discursive features under substitution. They are personalization (*functionalization, classification, relational identification, formalization, semiformalization, informalization, and indetermination*), impersonalization (*abstraction and objectivation*), genericization, and specification (*individualization, collectivization and aggregation*).

Social actors can be either represented as personalized actors or impersonalized ones. In the former, they are represented as human beings but not in the latter. Table 4, below, indicates male and female actors personalization and impersonalization in *Summit* series.

Table 4: Personalization and Impersonalization of Male and Female Social Actors

Personalization/ Impersonalization		Male (Total= 396)	Female (Total=340)	X ²	Sig.
Personalization	Functionalization	41 (10.35%)	34 (10%)	0.652	0.398
	Classification	45 (11.38%)	30 (8.82%)	2.01	0.076
	Relational Identification	36 (9.09%)	14 (4.12%)	9.431	0.001
	Formalization	38 (9.59%)	25 (7.37%)	2.667	0.102
	Semiformalization	124 (31.31%)	113 (33.23%)	0.018	0.805
	Informalization	83 (20.97%)	91 (26.77%)	5.470	0.008
	Indetermination	25 (6.31%)	27 (7.94%)	0.059	0.689
Impersonalization	Abstraction	3 (0.75%)	4 (1.17%)	000	1.000
	Objectivation	1 (0.25%)	2 (0.58%)	7.691	0.006

As can be seen in the table, in the texts under analysis male and female social actors are almost always personalized. Only in 10 cases males and females are impersonalized, i.e. abstracted or objectivated:

Example 9. Studies of time spent on instant messaging services would probably show staggering use. (Book 1B: 116)

Example 10. New Surveys suggest that the technological tools we use to make our lives easier are killing our leisure time. (Book 1B: 116)

Moreover, both social actors are frequently determined through functionalization, classification, relational identification, formalization, semiformalization, and informalization, males 92.69% and females 90.31%. Also, as Table 4 indicates, personalization is mostly realized by semiformalization (males 31.31% and females 33.23%) followed by informalization (males 20.97% and females 26.77%).

Concerning functionalization and classification as two types of categorization, males and females are almost equally functionalized (10.35% and 10% respectively) and classified (11.38% and 8.82% respectively). Also, qualitative analysis indicates that in *Summit* series both male and female actors are represented by both high-status and ordinary jobs. Moreover, they both are mostly classified in terms of their age and provenance. Chi-square test results, also, indicate that the difference between male and female social actors regarding functionalization and

classification is not statistically significant ($0.398 > 0.05$ and $0.076 > 0.05$ respectively). Here are some examples:

Example 11. Irish writer James Joyce spoke thirteen languages. (Book 2B: 76)

Example 12. Isabel Carter is a talented portrait painter. (Book 2A: 12)

Example 13. Rachel Kelsey, 34, and Jeremy Colenso, 33, both experienced climbers, had checked the weather forecast for a week before they set out. (Book 2A: 28)

Example 14. The lines above are from the song "Not Pretty Enough", written and performed by Kasey Chambers, an Australian folk-rock singer and song writer. (Book 1A: 46)

Considering relational identification in terms of their kinship and personal relations, male social actors are more identified in terms of their relations to other human beings than female ones. Also, Chi-square test results show that this difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Furthermore, in 11 cases females are identified in terms of their relations (kinship or personal) to a male, while in only 4 cases males are introduced in terms of their relations with females. Thus, the textbooks under analysis tend to represent males as more independent actors.

Example 15. He and his wife both work overtime, putting in long hours in order to make ends meet. (Book 1B: 95)

Example 16. Paxton realized that she would have to make a choice between having more money and having more time- time to spend with her two daughters, to contribute to her community, and to relax.

Nomination is one of the important factors employed to represent social actors. As Table 4 indicates, out of 463 instances of nomination, 245 cases (including 38 formal, 124 semiformal, and 83 informal) refer to males and 218 cases (including 25 formal, 113 semiformal, and 91 informal) refer to females. Considering the three instances of nomination, i.e. formalization, semiformalization, and informalization, female social actors are more frequently referred to informally than male ones. In fact, out of 174 cases of informalization, 47.70% of the total refers to males and 52.30% of the total refers to females. Chi-square test results, also, show that the difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). This shows that the textbooks may tend to represent male actors as more important people and show more respect toward them by using more formalization and semiformalization.

Genericization and specification are two other factors used to represent social actors. Genericization is achieved by representing social actors as classes; however, specification is achieved by representing them as specific, identifiable individuals. Regarding specification, the social actors are either individualized or assimilated (collectivized or aggregated).

Table 5: Genericization and Specification of Male and Female Social Actors

Genericization / Specification		Male (Total=464)	Female (Total=316)	X ²	Sig.
Genericization		10 (2.15%)	15 (4.75%)	1.333	0.284
Specification	Individualization	431 (92.89%)	285 (90.18%)	43.364	0.000
	Collectivization	15 (3.23%)	10 (3.17%)	3.232	0.134
	Aggregation	8 (1.73%)	6 (1.90%)	2.341	0.148

As Table 5 indicates, both male and female social actors are most frequently represented through specification and are mostly individualized (males 92.89% and females 90.18%). Also, male social actors are individualized more than female ones and this distinction is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). According to van Leeuwen (2008: 35) individualization is of primary significance in CDA. In *Summit* series male actors are more frequently represented as specific, identifiable individuals than female actors. In other words, individuality of males has been emphasized and it can be concluded that males are depicted as more independent individuals than females.

Concerning assimilation, finally, both social actors are represented by collectivization and aggregation. The latter treats social actors as statistics, but the former does not. Here are some examples of collectivization and aggregation:

Example 17. According to Chinese tradition, the elderly have always been honored and respected by the young.
(Book 1B: 94)

Example 18. But today an increasing number of single young adults face the difficult situation of caring for both their parents and their grandparents. (Book 1B: 94)

CONCLUSION

One of the important issues contributing to gender-role differentiation and gender inequality is the ways social actors are represented in the media including textbooks. Textbooks as a crucial tool in constructing social members' identities are used apparently to convey certain types of knowledge to the learners. However, in addition to transferring knowledge they may be used as influential tools to impose certain normative outlooks and identities on the members. Since at first sight the norms and values which underlie texts cannot be understood, it is the aim of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to make these ideological systems and representations clear and display their relations to the broader social order.

Among different approaches to CDA, van Leeuwen's framework (1996, 2008) was utilized to analyze *Summit 1A, 1B, 2A, and 2B* textbooks. The employed model consists of various discursive features to analyze and determine the ways social actors are represented through the texts. Based on the analysis, the discursive structures such as deletion, role allocation, and substitution provided a distinct representation and depiction of social actors in the textbooks. Concerning "deletion", the books used 'inclusion' extensively for both genders. However, male social actors were more frequently included than female ones and the difference was also statistically significant. On the other hand, females were more 'excluded' than males. This may

reveal a male oriented ideology present throughout the textbooks. With regard to “role allocation”, the texts mostly tended to use ‘activation’ rather than ‘passivation’. Also, male social actors were more frequently activated than female actors and the difference was statistically significant. This use of activation might be due to the fact that the textbooks are designed for intermediate EFL students whose knowledge of English may not be high. In regards with “substitution”, both male and female actors were almost always ‘personalized’ and rarely ‘impersonalized’. Concerning ‘functionalization’ and ‘classification’, both actors were represented by high-status and ordinary jobs; hence, depicting a rather neutral attitude toward both genders. However, under both ‘relational identification’ and ‘individualization’ category, males were represented as more independent actors and in both cases the difference between males and females was statistically significant. Regarding ‘nomination’, finally, female actors were represented more frequently through ‘informalization’ while male actors were mostly depicted by ‘formalization’ and ‘semiformalization’. This shows that the textbooks show more respect males and considers them more important.

All in all, the present study tried to depict the power relations and its inherent ideology regarding the representation of male and female social actors in *Summit* series. Such analyses can provide a wealth of additional information, including insights into both the curriculum developer and the teachers to interpret and respond to the propositional content of discourse. As Karimaghaei and Kasmani (2013: 36) put it, in this way learners find out how to read critically and understand the underlying ideological structures of the texts and comprehend better.

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THE DISCRIMINATION OF 'BLACK': A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF OPERA'S INTERVIEW WITH BARAK OBAMA

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ABSTRACT

A critical discourse analysis was applied to a short interview to reveal the hidden goals behinds these simple questions and replies. Both Opera and Obama were successful in including direct and indirect strategies in their turns. Van Valin's model was used as a model for finding out these ideologies used. Blackness, whiteness, racism, race discrimination, and racialization were focused on whether Clinton or Obama is regarded black enough than the other since 'black' is usually used out of the context of colour reference. The ideology of change evidently focused on his two subsequent campaigns, Obama covered both changes local and international, with their different senses and domains.

KEYWORDS: *Critical discourse analysis, Obama, the ideology of change, blackness, race discrimination*

INTRODUCTION

The US racial or ethnic classification 'black' refers to people with all possible kinds of skin pigmentation from the darkest through to the very lightest skin colors, including albinos, if they are believed by others to have African ancestry, or to exhibit cultural traits associated with being "African American". As a result, in the United States the term "black people" is not an indicator of skin color but of socially based racial classification. Relatively dark-skinned people can be classified as white if they fulfill other social criteria of "whiteness" and relatively light-skinned people can be classified as black if they fulfill the social criteria for "blackness" in a particular setting.

The notion of blackness can also be extended to non-black people. Hansen (2012) states clearly that Toni Morrison once described Bill Clinton as the first black president, because of his warm relations with African Americans, his poor upbringing and also because he is a jazz musician. Christopher Hitchens was offended by the notion of Clinton as the first black president, noting, "we can still define blackness by the following symptoms: alcoholic mothers, under-the-bridge

habits...the tendency to sexual predation and shameless perjury about the same". Some black activists were also offended, claiming Clinton used his knowledge of black culture to exploit black people for political gain as no other president had before, while not serving black interests. They note his lack of action during the Rwanda genocide and his welfare reform, which Larry Roberts said had led to the worst child poverty since the 1960s. Others noted that the number of black people in jail increased during his administration. The question of blackness also arose in the Democrat Barack Obama's 2008 presidential campaign. Commentators have questioned whether Obama, who was elected the first black President of the United States, is black enough, contending that his background is not typical, as his mother was white American, and his father was a black Kenyan immigrant. Obama chose to identify as black and African-American (ibid.).

The present paper is a critical discourse analysis of a short interview of Barak Obama, the first black American President. Racism and race discrimination, the Black and the White in USA are examined as the ethnic basis for this study. Shedding light on CDA and its tenets, and Van Dijk's approach is in the second section. A brief CDA is done in the third section.

RACISM AND RACE DISCRIMINATION

"Racism", as stated by Wodak and Reisigl (2001:372) is a stigmatizing headword and political "fighting word" that seems to be on almost everyone's lips today. Perhaps this is because the meaning of "racism" has become extraordinarily expanded and evasive. There is talk of a "genetic," "biological," "cultural," "ethnopluralist", "institutional," and "everyday racism," of a "racism at the top," of an "elite racism," of a "racism in the midst," of an "old" and a "new" or "neo-racism," of a "positive racism," and of an "inegalitarian" and a "differentialist racism." Racism involves the use of essentialist and biological understandings of people under the banner of race to limit, 'other,' or disenfranchise them. The power of 'science' in its attempts to explain and categorize human variation has continued to allow such biologically and physiologically essentialized understandings to endure in discourses of race (Henry & Tator, 2002:119f). He explains that this occurs because science provides a cultural and social "guarantee" of measurable and absolute difference among people that carry the same amount of authority as other systems of knowledge do. Further, though overt assertions of biological hierarchy in relation to race are now considered 'racist' in the Western world, *"the genetic, biological, and physiological definitions of race are alive and well in the common-sense discourse is for us all. The biological, physiological, or genetic definition, having been shown out the front door, tends to slide around the veranda and climb in the back through the window"* (ibid.). Consequently, common-sense continually relies on these biological and physiological understandings of race as 'science' even if these understandings have been largely assumed to be absent in everyday discourse, continuing the assumptions as race being related to essentialized understandings of bodies.

Democratic racism as racist discourse begins in the families that nurture people; in the communities that help socialize them; in the schools and universities that educate them; in the media that communicate ideas and images to them; and in the popular culture that entertains them. People learn this discourse at the very sites where every other form of learning is provided. Racisms also involve varying registers and have developed from overt forms of racial oppression to more subtle ones. Parker and Roberts (2005:75) argue, *"while classical racism has subsided, everyday racism has remained alive. This type of racism can be characterized as those mundane practices and events that are infused with varying degrees of racism"*. Racism is therefore not as outwardly prevalent in contemporary culture, but has developed to become more within the everyday practices, understandings, and the knowledge people use towards others, which are

contextually based. Furthermore, Henry and Tator (2002:121) explain that racist discourses in contemporary Western culture operate in a coexistence with democratic beliefs in justice and fairness, while simultaneously exhibiting negative beliefs and feelings about "*minority groups and discrimination against them*" which they term "*democratic racism*" (p.23f). These conflicting and coexisting discourses of democracy and discrimination are produced and reproduced in different sites of learning, considered 'official sites' and 'casual sites':

Racisms are therefore not simply personal, involving personal prejudices, as has been assumed in the past (see Hill, 2008), but are structural and contextual in nature. They rely on large social structures of domination and subordination and are continually enacted by all people, particularly the dominant (Leonardo, 2004). It is therefore vital to understand how such discourses of democratic racism are activated, favoured and perpetuated in all sites of learning, not simply those sites considered traditional or formal sites like institutions. The power of 'unofficial' sites of learning to influence and evolve these discourses must not be ignored. They are important sites of analysis for understanding how racisms continue to be enacted in contemporary culture. It is within these sites and structures of domination that essentialist discourses get enacted onto bodies, making them racialized. This process of becoming raced is known as *racialization*.

The process of racialization relies on ideologies and essentialism to position people and categorize them into particular groups related to assumed common traits (whether they be physical or social) that are considered concrete and distinguishable from other groups (Murji & Solomos, 2005). As Murji and Solomos state in their book on the theories and practices of racialization, racialization acts as a means of understanding as well as ideological and cultural or political practices and process through which race is given significance. Culture and political practices, they assert, have "*become the basis for the broader conception of racialization as expressing the ways in which social structures and ideologies become imbued with 'racial' meanings, so that social and political issues are conceived along racial lines*" (ibid.:11). However, how such practices actually engage race is not always clear as they can refer to processes of enacting 'race' in varying levels, degrees, and registers, whether it be very specific biological distinctions, processes of cultural differentiation or "*a code in which the idea or language of race*" is enacted (Murji & Solomos, 2005: 4). Further, as explained above between race and ethnicity, racialization is able to enact many different social and cultural divisions and 'classifications' to work on its behalf, these include "culture, ethnicity, language, sexual orientation, ability, religion and, of course, race and skin colour as ways of distinguishing groups for differential and unequal treatment. This process of racialization allows dominant bodies to suppress and dominate others" (ibid.). What is clear is the power infused within processes of racialization as they involve a practice of classification that is largely enacted by the dominant upon the dominated.

Therefore in reality, the social categories of race are complex, interrelated and changing social constructions. Race is not a single, fixed and deterministic category of identity and representation, but rather something that is enacted, placed upon bodies, and used to ensure social and political divisions through a process of racialization. Consequently scholarly analysis working with notions of race and racialization needs to pay particular attention to the social construction of race and its underlying power relations within subjugated knowledge as well as

the way race works discursively, as a language of understanding people (Rashidi, 2012:4ff). As racialization works within systems of domination and oppression to describe peoples within racial understandings, there is also a hierarchy within racialized understandings that provides some racialized groups more power than others. In the Western World, racialized whites are often afforded this dominant position (see also Schäffner & Wenden, 1995 56).

THE BLACK AND THE WHITE IN USA

Discrimination in the USA is by gradation. Whites discriminate against blacks and people of color. Men discriminate against women irrespective of color. Latinos (people from Latin America who see their near white pigmentation as a sign of superiority over blacks) discriminate against blacks. Black Americans, who are direct descendants of black slaves in America, discriminate against blacks from other parts of the world - especially those from Africa. And they discriminate against so called black people who are black by circumstance that they look every inch, white, but have a little black blood running through their veins. At the height of discrimination in America, blacks were openly stoned to death on flimsy reasons. At the peak of it, a black man could be lynched just for making a pass at a white lady, proven or not. How does a lynched dead, prove he did not have eye contact with a sacred white lady, you may wonder. He could also be shown the way out of an eatery simply because he strolled past an area reserved for people of superior color (see Rashidi, 2012).

Within definitions of race, and processes of racialization, a particularly interesting and elusive category is that of the white race. "White" was not initially considered a race, as it was the norm from which all 'other races' were understood. Whiteness consequently came to define itself largely through the negative of what it is not – it is *not the Other*. This definition is from a legacy of colonialism, where racial classification and understanding is rooted; where the colonizers, understood to be 'white,' were the sign post from which race was defined, therefore creating the discourse of white as *not* race, *not* Other (Johnson & Enomoto, 2007:78ff). Because of this 'non-race' beginning, whiteness has developed as a position of power, as the norm and at times invisible in relation to 'other races' as it is the center from which 'other' races are measured and defined (Frankenberg, 1993b). White does remain a race and therefore comes to have its own particular as well as common attributes of definitions of race (Frankenberg, 2004).

Whiteness is therefore particular because it is defined through its advantages and its privileges (ibid.), not through its disadvantages or lack of norms, as whiteness does not only incur disadvantage to racialized others by being the 'norm' it also allows those defined as white to have and gain advantages because of their racialization. Furthermore, whiteness has developed in conjunction with concepts of race, especially since the civil rights movements of the 1960s, to see itself within a conflicted ideology. Johnson and Enomoto (2007:5) explain that "*from the late 1960s on, white identity has been reinterpreted, rearticulated in a dualistic fashion: on the one hand egalitarian, on the other hand privileged; on the one hand individualistic and 'color-blind,' on the other hand 'normalized' and white*". Their characterization of white identity is an important one to understand how whiteness functions and is perpetuated as a racialized identity in popular culture. These dualistic characteristics of whiteness are important points of questioning and contention within the discourses of racialized popular culture.

The project of whiteness as a racial category in the North American context is therefore particularly interested in continuing to define itself through ideologies of fairness, egalitarian ideals and democratic understandings, but in order to do so, it engages in intricate policing of its

definitions and relations of power in relation to racialized others. How these dualistic characteristics play out reveal important registers of whiteness that enact differing levels of dominance, privilege, and democratic ideologies.

As Rashidi (2012) explains whiteness as a category is also measured in its comparison to blackness: Whiteness “*in the United States is measured not just of the melanin content in one’s skin but of one’s social distance from black-ness*”. What this means is that performances of whiteness by some people who can ‘pass’ as white allows them ‘white’ status, where the abstract (though understood as fixed and obvious) borders of ‘white’ and ‘black’ remain intact and racialized ‘in-betweens’ are required to perform their identities within these borders in a sort of third space of racial ambivalence and in-betweenness. This uncertainty is felt largely by Latinos (ibid.) but also by Jews (as the blog discussions make clear), which will be explained below. Performances of ‘race’ through representation occur through a variety of means and at a variety of degrees.

CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) as its names suggests first, is critical device. Although it is not attached to any special theory and philosophy, it calls itself merely as a method of analyzing the text. It mainly deals with the questions of inequality and power, power institutes and the relation of language and power so it is natural to conclude that it has a political attitude (Stubbe et al, 2003). Fairclough defines it as:

...relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony (1993:135).

Wodak (2006) describes it as an interdisciplinary knowledge and heterogeneous mass that cannot be put in one category. It is called interdisciplinary because it is located somewhere between sociology and linguistics and some linguists believe that a correct understanding of the relations between society and discourse is impossible unless linguistics and sociology approaches are totally combined. Van Dijk (2001:352) states that “*Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context.*”

Using the word of discourse in the title of this method means that there are many ways for discussing the social inequalities but the way that CDA proposes is based on the role of discourse in producing power, abusing it, and finally creating the inequality. Power which is produced by the elites, institutes or groups results in dominance and discourses reproduce this dominance or challenge it; in this condition an analyst examines the structures, strategies and other properties of the text or discourse to see how they work and (re)produce this dominance (Van Dijk, 1993b).

THE TENETS OF CDA

Fairclough and Wodak (1997: 271-280) summarize the main tenets of CDA as follows:

1. CDA addresses social problems
2. Power relations are discursive
3. Discourse constitutes society and culture
4. Discourse does ideological work
5. Discourse is historical
6. The link between text and society is mediated
7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
8. Discourse is a form of social action.

Furthermore, McKenna (2004:10-14) generally mentions eight characteristics for CDA as they follow:

Teleology

According to this feature, CDA has a teleological view to the questions of power, dominance, justice, fairness, etc. McKenna believes that “CDA claims, sometimes implicitly, sometimes explicitly, that its practice provides demystifying and emancipator effects” (2004:12). Although she asserts the quotation as a criticism about CDA, but it reflect the truth about the teleological aspect of CDA that tends to correct the affairs to turn onto the fair way. In this way, it is different from the other discourse analysis methods like conversational analysis, which mostly pays attention to the communication and dialogue in real situations. Through unifying theory and practice, it tries to bring about real social changes in the frame of that teleological attitude to the positive notion of society.

Theory of discourse

Marxian theories have placed a lot of concentration on the notion of discourse. The Marxian and neo-Marxian critical discourse approaches have been challenged by the Foucaultian poststructuralist ideas even to a point that they seemed to meet their end (ibid.: 11). CDA is a proper field for both of them to appear and simultaneously help each other to construct a better vision of the discourse and distinct it from other similar methods.

Materialism

The perception of the discourse, which is largely presented by CDA, is based on materialist conception even to that extent that “social context relates to textual production”. As a notion which is taken from a Marxian theory, Bakhtinian language theory, and Foucaultian discourse theories, Foucault – one the main figures who have had a great influence on the theoretical frame of the CDA (Van Dijk, 2001) – believes that language and context are interwoven concepts. In other words, language acquires life in real and concrete communicational environment not in an abstract linguistic system of language or in the speakers’ mentality. The main specialty of discourse which separates it from a simple speech act is that as Van Dijk says it takes place within a more extended frame of social practice. It is something which takes place “*within a framework of understanding, communication and interaction which is in turn part of broader sociocultural structures and processes*” (1997:21).

Historicity

Spatio-temporality of any textual production is provided by the historicity of the discourse. A discourse is not something that merely happens in the present time but it contains many ideas and

memories from the past and the groups, which have been involved in that discourse, too. Overall, it can be said that CDA looks at discourse as a diachronic process as much as it deals with the synchronic aspect of it. This idea finds its climax in discourse historical method of Wodak (2006) and intertextuality notion of Fairclough et al. (2006:87).

Constructionism and constructivism

The constructionism of discourse means that like what Wittgenstein means by the idea of “meaning is use”; there are different possible meanings for a word depending on the context in which the word is used. Although, sometimes, it has wrongly been understood as McKenna pointing to such misunderstandings writes, sometimes the conclusion has been drawn like that, “*we are free to construct any meaning we like.*” By the other side, constructivism means that, at the same time that language can reflect the reality it can produce reality. CDA believes that language can represent different layers of meaning dependent on the discourse in which it is acting and beside that one of the most important characteristics of language which appears in a discourse is the ability of it to represent and create realities (2004: 13).

Theories of subject

Because of the relation between subject as a concept with agency and constructedness, this notion is very important in CDA. McKenna believes that individuals should be counted as the agents of ideology by constructing of their subjectivities. Despite the Marxian who only daresay to the external subject, Foucault believed that there are two internal and external subjects (ibid.). The conclusion of that discussion would be this fact that the process of power as political technology is accomplished through making subjective and productive bodies. Because some of the main issues that CDA is going to investigate are the questions of power and ideology, the usage of power and its mutual relation with ideology, the speaker production of text or other interaction forms will be very important because through this production, they can be the agent of ideology.

Ideology

As already mentioned, individuals through construction of their subjectivity are the agents of ideology. According to that, social practices, during which individuals construct their subjectivity, represent the ideology that is constructed discursively. In this relation, many definitions and explanations have been given; for example, a definition of ideology by Bourdieu and Eagleton who believe that it is a “*spontaneous belief or opinion [that] . . . would seem unquestionable and natural*” (1992 :112) or “*things people accept without knowing*” (p.114) . By other side, Hodge and Kress define it as “*systemic body of ideas, organized from a particular point of view. Ideology so is subsuming category which includes science and metaphysics*” (1993: 6). All of these cases can be the reflex of this fact that how much the question of ideology is important for CDA. Generally, we can say that the ideology governing a discourse is responsible for a major part of the circumstances taking place in that discourse. It determines the attitude of participants and adjusts the nature of the relation, which is between them. It is also responsible for other involving factors within the discourse that have an unconscious impact on the participants. It is obvious that one of the main elements that every discursive analysis should pay attention to is the ideology behind the discourse. Just because of these, Rahimi and Sahragard (2007:12) believe that “*any theory of language which is serious about social functions must take it into consideration*”

Power

There is a tight link between discourse and power and in the same way between power and knowledge. Foucault rejects the structuralist Marxian ideas about power and their notion of state apparatus and ideological state apparatus while he cannot present a clear theory about power; despite this fact there are three points, which CDA has borrowed from his discussion about power: Discourse has the same capability to produce positive or negative outcomes. Power and power relations are produced in a system of social networks. There are certain criteria for any entity, which want to enter and influence the discourse (McKenna,14).

Fairclough categorizes the relation of power and discourse in two classes of *power in discourse* and *power behind discourse* which alludes to the power of institutes or groups which apparent within the text as the power in discourse and those which exist but their presence is not touchable and it is hidden (1993). Power is one of the basic notions of CDA and originally the very reason that justifies the existence of CDA is its tend to survey the power relationship and the dominance, which can result in inequality, injustice and abuse.

THE SELECTED APPROACH: VAN DIJK AND SOCIO-COGNITIVE MODEL

Van Dijk is one of the most recognized figures of CDA and his ideas seem to be very important to this discipline since if not in all but in most of the resources used for preparing this study there are some references to his works and probably elaborating on his works will define the features of the socio-cognitive direction of CDA. He has done remarkable works regarding the racism in the news, representation of minorities and defining the notion of *Us* and *Other* or *ingroups* and *outgroups* when he explains the models in ideologies which will be elaborated below. The most signalized characteristic of his works is that he has elevated the analysis of discourse to something more than the mere analysis of structures and determining the possible interpretations of the text – by the structural analysis of text, we mean the analysis of the grammatical component of the text. Rather he has dealt with the production and reception process of the news (Boyd-Barrett, 1994). Production process deals with the elements, which mostly are influential in the process of producing news like the financial or economic and social practices. Van Dijk believes that “Discourse is not simply an isolated textual or dialogic structure. Rather it is a complex communicative event that also embodies a social context, featuring participants (and their properties) as well as production and reception processes.”(1988a: 2).

These practices are taken-for-granted to be not only influential on the process of making news but also determinative for the major policies of the institute, which produces news. Reception process refers to the way that news is comprehended and understood by the addressee. As the result of what has been said, we can say that Van Dijk has proposed three levels of analysis, structure, production and reception and comprehension. He tries to tie these levels together and make smooth criteria for analyzing the text. These relationships according to him take place in two levels of microstructure and macrostructure levels. The earlier relates to the semantic relations of grammatical components of text which make it coherent and the other one deals with rhetoric elements such quotation, direct and indirect reporting, which make it to seem factual. However, macrostructure is the only level that Van Dijk pays more attention to it because it is relevant to the thematic/topic structure of news stories and their overall schemata. Van Dijk defines schemata as a pattern that contains a headline, story and consequences. This last one is the final comment and conclusions that exists within the news and regarding this part he thinks that headlines and lead paragraphs more or less contain the most general information and addressee memorizes them better (1988b:14ff).

The other major notion that Van Dijk has investigated so much is the notion of ideology and analyzing the discourse analysis as ideology analysis. As Van Dijk says ideologies are produced and reproduced in discourses and communications and even the non-verbal semiotic texts like pictures and so on can have an impact in this (re)production (1995: 17). Consequently, he proposes three levels of analysis for analyzing the ideologies within the text. Two of these analytical levels, including the social analysis and discourse analysis are the same with the traditional system of interpreting the text, in the sense that the social analysis is adopted to context analysis and discourse analysis is adopted to the text analysis in the traditional method (1995:18; 2006b:161; 2006c:115). However, the new gift of Van Dijk to CDA is the third level of analysis, the cognitive analysis. The sociocognition, which by itself is divided into social and individual cognition, is something between other two levels. He defines cognition as “the system of mental representations and processes of group members” (1995:18) following his definition of cognition, he defines ideologies as “systems” (Van Dijk, 2006c:166) that "indirectly influence the personal cognition of group members "(1995: 19).

The notions of ideology and context bring about the notion of *model*. Mental representation of individuals within a social action or interaction is called model. Defining the meaning of cognitive model he writes “*The meaning or 'contera' of discourse is controlled by subjective interpretations of language users of the situation or events the discourse is about, that is by their mental models*” (2006c:121). These models are so important in analyzing the role of ideologies within the society. They determine the norms within the society and the way that individuals think, behave and move. One of immediate results caused by recognition of individuals’ mental representation within the society is the possibility that helps to categorize the two major groups of Us versus Them where the participant or speaker generally tends to present oneself or one’s group in the positive terms and other groups in negative terms (Van Dijk, 1995: 22).

The way that CDA works is a top-down method that despite the fact that power relations are bilateral, it only pays attention to those aspects of power abusing and dominance which are imposed from top to down e.g. from institutes or elites to the society or from majority to minority, etc. Besides, CDA is macro-level discourse analysis methods, which means that instead of paying attention to the grammatical aspect of the text within the text, as a separated unit, it deals with those aspects of text, which are in relation with the discursive definition of it. Although more modern version of CDA try to decrease the distance between these two features of the text and make a kind of combination and unity between them in a way that they act as complementary instruments to give to hand a better vision of the discourse and what is going on there. In other words as Van Dijk believes these micro- level notions can direct the text to macro-level implications that helps to gain wider vision of the circumstance of power (re)production and other related subjects. Van Dijk states:

...it is theoretically essential to understand that there is no other way to relate macro-level notions such as group dominance and inequality with micro-level notions as text, talk, meaning and understanding. Indeed, the crucial notion of reproduction, needed to explain how discourse plays a role in the reproduction of dominance, presupposes an account that relates discourse structures to social cognitions, and social cognitions to social structures (1993, p.280).

It is obvious that text analysis can take place in two distinct levels of macro or micro. Micro level deals with the participants of the text or the conditions, issues or people that directly are related to the text within the context while macro level deals with more prominent and major issues that can be related to context in higher level and beyond the actual condition of the text. For example, in normal social behavior, the analysis devoted to the people involved in the behavior, the place and time of the behavior and physical description of that behaviour consists the micro level of the analysis while in a higher level describing and investigating the power relations among the people and groups or studying the possible ideology which exists behind the text is related to macro level of the analysis (Van Dijk, 2006c; Van Dijk, 2007).

In another view, maybe it is possible to say that macro level of analysis mostly is in relation with the groups, societies and the thinking and ideological bases that provide the groups and societies with intellectual resources and to a large extent it deals with the power relationships in these groups. At least, at one place, macro level analysis has been categorized to models of traditional and new macro analysis, which the first one is more based on the power relations, overall, seems to be more theoretical, and so farther than the micro level but, the later one is more in relation with the micro level and its components. In this sort of new macro analysis, the main emphasis is on the notion of interaction, which implies a stress on the relations between people within the context and their performances within the context. At the same time, from the viewpoint of the power relationships between the people as the participants of the context, the new macro method can determine which performances should be chosen for a specific situation. Regarding this point, Van Dijk writes,

Obviously, this formulation is in terms of traditional macro-level categories, such as the power of groups, organizations and institutions. Especially relevant for discourse analysis [,] is of course also the more local, situated micro-level of social structure, that of interaction (2006a:364).

THE CDA OF THE INTERVIEW

The Interview

The interview is held with Barrack Obama:

The president-elect (then Illinois state senator), who first brought the house down back in 2004 at the Democratic National Convention, takes a rare break from his 16-hour workday to tell Oprah about his multicultural upbringing, political plans and priorities, and loving family.

Note: This interview appeared in the November 2004 issue of O, The Oprah Magazine. It's a speech I'll never forget: Barack Obama, the Illinois state senator from Chicago, addressing the nation at the 2004 Democratic National Convention. "I stand here knowing that my story is part of the larger American story, that I owe a debt to all of those who came before me, and that in no other country on earth is my story even possible," he said with a fervor that could be felt through the airwaves. "Tonight we gather to affirm the greatness of our nation, not because of the height of our skyscrapers or the power of our military or the size of our economy," he continued. "***Our pride is based on a very simple premise, summed up in a declaration made over 200 years ago: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal.'***"

Oprah: There's a line in *The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pittman* [a 1974 TV movie based on Ernest J. Gaines's novel] when Jane is holding a baby and asking, "***Will you be the One?***" While

you were speaking, I was alone in my sitting room cheering and saying, "*I think this is the One.*"

Barack: That's so nice. I think *I'm one of the ones. I fight against the notion that blacks can have only one leader at a time. We're caught in that messiah mentality.* As a consequence, a competition is set up. Who's the leader of the Korean-American community or the Irish-American community? The reason we don't know the answer is that they've got a collective leadership—people contributing in business, culture, politics. *That's the model I want to encourage. I want to be part of many voices that help the entire country rise up.*

Oprah: How do you define yourself as a leader?

Barack: Though *I'm clearly a political leader now, I didn't start as one.* I was skeptical of electoral politics. *I thought it was corrupting, and that real change would happen in the grass roots.* I came to Chicago [after college graduation] *to work with churches organizing job-training programs. I thought the way to have an impact was through changing people's hearts and minds, not through some government program. So I did that for three and a half years, went to law school to become a civil rights attorney, and then wrote a book.*

Oprah: You were so young when you wrote *Dreams from My Father*. Why did you decide to write a memoir at 33?

Barack: I had the opportunity. When I was elected president of the Harvard Law Review, people were willing to give me money to write. That's a huge luxury. *I thought I had something interesting to say about how our cultures collide as the world shrinks. My family's story captures some of the tensions and evolution and crosscurrents of race, both in this country and around the globe. One of the contributions I thought I could make was to show how I came to terms with these divergent cultures—and that would speak to how we all can live together, finding shared values and common stories.* Writing the book was a great exercise for me because *it solidified where I'd been and set the stage for where I was going.*

Oprah: *When did you first realize that you were a little black kid? Was it the incident you wrote about, in the seventh grade, when someone called you "coon"?*

Barack: Because I grew up in Hawaii and then lived in Indonesia for a while, *I understood my affiliation to Africa and black people from an early age, but only in positive terms.* I became aware of the cesspool of stereotypes when I was 8 or 9. *I saw a story in Life magazine about people who were using skin bleach to make themselves white. I was really disturbed by that.* Why would somebody want to do that? *My mother had always complimented me: "You have such pretty brown skin."* (bold and italic are mine for the purpose of analysis).

Structure of the Interview

This interview is divided into the following parts:

Preliminaries: Opera mentioned some previous events related to electing Obama as Illinois state senate .Opera presented her expected ambitions in this senate. Setting was specified. Both, Opera

and Obama shared their dreams in the greatest of their nation , neither in the height of skyscrapers, nor the power of military , nor the size of economy; but in 200-years ago declaration

Opera: presented her old dream: finding out **The One! The One** who will save Jane Pittman, Opera, and many other blacks from racism and discrimination.

Barak: accepted these thanking statements of Opera, declaring the shared responsibility of the whole America to fight black discrimination.

Opera: certain questions related to the political and social life of Obama.

Barak: certain examples that prove his vitality and personality as both a writer and a leader.

ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEW

Since CDA deals with power, domination and social inequality, it tends to focus on groups, organizations and institutions, and thus requires an analysis of the social cognition – or the social representations – shared by these collectivities. Most important, according to Van Dijk, are knowledge (personal, group and cultural), attitudes (socially shared opinions) and ideologies (basic social representations of social groups) (Van Dijk 2001: 113f). To find out how language users exercise power in or by their discourse, one needs to examine those properties that can vary as a function of social power. Hence, Van Dijk suggests one should concentrate upon the following linguistic markers: stress and intonation; word order; lexical style; coherence; local semantic moves such as disclaimers (local meaning, lexical meaning, meaning of words, as well as the structures of propositions, coherence, implications, presuppositions, allusions and vagueness); topic choice (global meaning of the discourse, semantic macrostructures); speech acts; schematic organization; rhetorical figures; syntactic structures; propositional structures; turn takings; repairs; and hesitation (Van Dijk 2001: 99). According to Meyer (2001: 26), Van Dijk puts forth a six step-strategy on how to conduct the actual analysis (see also Van Dijk 2001: 101-08 for an example of how he uses this analysis). At any rate, Meyer's (2001: 26) summary is found below:

1. Analysis of semantic macrostructures: topics and macropropositions
2. Analysis of local meanings, where the many forms of implicit or indirect meanings, such as implications, presuppositions, allusions, vagueness, omissions and polarizations are especially interesting
3. Analysis of 'subtle' formal structures: here most of the linguistic markers mentioned are analyzed
4. Analysis of global and local discourse forms or formats
5. Analysis of specific linguistic realizations, for example, hyperbolas, litotes
6. Analysis of context

VAN DIJK'S SIX STEPS OF ANALYSIS

To be practical, these six steps are reflected in this interview as follows:

1. Macrosemantic structures: Topics and Macropropositions

- Memories (Opera's first four lines before the interview)
- America is the greatest nation (5th and 6th lines before the interview,
- Opera quoting Obama at the 2004 Democratic National Convention.

- American Dependence Declaration, 200 years ago, and Obama's pride of it (7th and 8th lines before the interview)
- Opera is quoting a very famous 1974 TV movie, based on a novel by Gaines: "Will you be the One?"
- Obama's Fighting black discrimination and racism
- A question by Opera concerning his leading personality
- Obama's considerations of America's election system
- Opera's question concerning his political status as a leader
- Opera's questioning about his decision to write a memoir
- Obama's response with details concerning major and minor themes like race
- Obama's concluding about his nation and family.

2- Microsemantic structures

Setting: after 16 hour-workday at the Democratic Convention

Interaction time: a rare break from a long day

Location: no clear mentioning, even two cities are mentioned: Illinois and Chicago.

Participants: two people Opera and Barak Obama

Identities: two very famous blacks: Opera and Obama

Roles: question –answer procedure to clarify Obama's concepts

Relations: personal powers, US President and famous TV presenter

Aims: to thank, praise, and then understand his ideology of Change (social and political)

Personal knowledge: both are highly educated, having charisma to influence others

Actions: both cited authentic resources like US Human Rights Declaration, a novel, and an autobiography to convince others

3- Formal structure

Simple sentences, complex sentences, Anaphora especially *One*, Definiteness, Passive structures

4- Local and Global discourse

The local discourse is related to themes of personal change to nation's and definiteness.

Global is related to themes like change, and fighting black discrimination

5- Specific linguistic realization

As in affirming, definiteness and the metaphor of Change and its multiple references and meanings.

6- Context

It is plausibly supplied by highly literary works, even with personal, as Obama's book *Dreams of My Father : A Story of Race Inheritance* (published in July 1995) and *The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pittman* (1971). Both heroes of these two stories are calling for change of their society as a whole

THE INTERVIEW BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

1-Action: This discourse (interview) is observed is to clarify, and then identify the ideology of change, from the self to the whole society. This is the 'inner' form of change. Obama, as perceived by the researcher, aims to move the society to be more flourished, economically, health, education, salaries, etc. It is a change from Bush's eight years of bad America to a nation full of prosperity and control. This is represented in the first decisions taken by Obama and his team.

2-Context: Even short, but this interview reflected clearly the dream of the other side of America; The Black who have old dreams to be represented in the whole aspects of the American society. Only some had farther dreams, like Obama's father, Opera, and Obama. Thus, the background, situation, conditions, and all actual and other participants (his father as a source of realistic potentials, and social-changing atmosphere as represented by his white mother) were existent positively.

3-History: this is very clear in all the active and other participants. Opera's dreams and ambitions, Obama's family and its history are actual records of the Black in America.

4-5-Power and ideology: The ideology of power is so evident in Obama's words: *change* and *fight*, encourage, want to be the model and *one of the ones*. This power is also reflected in his book, since moved from being an observer to an active critic and then a reformer.

THE IDEOLOGY OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Does this interview reflect Obama's ideology of change, as reflected in his slogans: "Change we believe in" or "We believe in Change"? This interview clearly reflects this policy or ideology by his first reply: I think *I'm one of the ones. I fight against the notion that blacks can have only one leader at a time. We're caught in that messiah mentality.* This ideology of change, in Obama's concept, is the responsibility of the society "I'm the one of the ones". This responsibility needs fighting these old notions in both behavior and mind. In other words, Obama declared his strategy of social reform, before being with political reference. The basic points to be inferred concerning this ideology from doing CDA for this interview are the following:

- i- Obama's first reply also has that sense of urgency in doing the action now.
- ii- Being aware that he was a black from the early years helped him positively to be determinant and productive.
- iii- Early instances lead him to be positive to his own personality, family, siblings, and then his nation.
- iv- His policy of change is inherent; to be the first American black president is a unique representation of his presidency slogan.
- v- This confidence was early postulated; his continuous encouragement from his mother led him to reject those attempts of his peers to be white.
- vi- Till now, his mother is a source of support and encouragement.

- vii- The title of the book reflects the unity of his family especially in being in direct touch with his father and then being a direct observer.
- viii- Opera was biased in her interview especially when she focused on those points that can reflect the developed mentality of that black one, moved to her confidence in being the one, her support of his slogan 'change'. Furthermore, she moved the interview to be a propaganda for the president's only positive sides.
- ix- Particular emphasis was on 'the one'. Even 'one' is a marker of indefiniteness, but being preceded by the definite article it is used as if Opera, and other blacks were really waiting that one. We notice the capitalization of 'O' in one for doubling its emphasis.
- x- It is so clear that Africa and Indonesia are more familiar with the other one, unlike America. Therefore, Obama wanted that one concept in Africa and Indonesia to be in America.
- xi- He criticized the routine of elections.

VAN DIJK'S SEQUENCE MODEL

Overall, Opera and Obama follow the sequence of situation – problem – solution scheme in this interview, which is presumably culturally and morally inspired Opera herself. Using this scheme, this is how this interview moves:

Situationx: Opera and Obama express their greetings and desire to find out possible solutions to their everlasting problem: black racism.

Problem: Opera and Obama carry similar heritage of racism, discrimination.

Solution: Dependency and Human Rights Declaration, Obama's book, Gaines's novel, and then being elected as the first Black American President, all present a local ideology of change and influence. Obama develops this ideology to have other forms like power, equality and dominance, to actualize his ideology of change. In his book, for example, in this lyrical, unsentimental, and compelling memoir, the son of a black African father and a white American mother searches for a workable meaning to his life as a black American. It begins in New York, where Barack Obama learns that his father -- a figure he knows more as a myth than as a man -- has been killed in a car accident. This sudden death inspires an emotional odyssey -- first to a small town in Kansas, from which he retraces the migration of his mother's family to Hawaii, and then to Kenya, where he meets the African side of his family, confronts the bitter truth of his father's life, and at last reconciles his divided inheritance. Opera cited the story of Jane Pittman as an example of those black ladies carrying from their early days the dream of change; a change that gives them some aspect of humanity. Opera herself was one of those, especially her early years were very dramatic since being raped before completing her eleventh. Thus, Opera found her and all her black nation's everlasting dream comes true, and finally her GODOT arrived, and

no more waiting. Moreover, Obama was very successful in this especially in his lexical selection. The best example is the choice of “I fight the notion”; a phrase repeated many times on the tongue of both Jane Pittman and Opera herself. The interesting thing here is that both Opera and Obama himself are under the influence of this novel and its adopted film (1974) which nominated to BAFTA AWARD and got nine EMMY Awards. Moreover, after Obama’s elect, this novel was reprinted in 2009, and about 3 million copies were sold.

INSTANCE OF BLACK DISCRIMINATION

The instances of black discrimination in this interview are the following:

- i- Opera who herself carries sad and dramatic discriminative reflections from early childhood.
- ii- Obama’s book which is memories of race and inheritance.
- iii- Obama’s personal experience
- iv- The incident mentioned by Obama concerning those peers looking for changing their skins; the famous pop singer Michael Jackson is one of them , for reasons related of employment , girls, and away-from discrimination.
- v- The novel mentioned by Opera concerning Jane Pittmon, who really suffered from both her black husband and white neighbours.

The Ideology of Political Change

As different as the notion of the founding documents are the concepts of *freedom* and *justice*. *Freedom* is a principle the American liberalism built on the *classical liberalism*, where it meant individualism and the notion of choice the individual has that is not restrained by tradition (Micklewait, 2005: 343). According to Taylor, the liberal *freedom* is defined largely in terms of the social and political rights of individuals as “immunity from interference by others in his life, either by state or church or by other individuals”. *Justice*, on the other hand, is “understood in terms of equality and the end of oppression in the social world – ‘fair play’.”

The American Revolution is seen as a fresh start for mankind to create a “better world”. The Democratic Party became the advocate for all the inequalities in the society, whether it is segregation and racial prejudice, women rights, gay rights or simply economic disparities stemming from unrestricted capitalism. The capitalism is, however, venerated in the liberal vision because it creates wealth, but it has to be regulated in order to serve the common good. “Progressive social change and an active role by the government are important, and initiatives such as the New Deal and the Civil Rights Movement are positive forces that improve society. Increasing wealth creates new opportunities to achieve fairness and justice.” (Morris 2004: 56) Therefore, the *American Dream* has also a different interpretation; in the view of liberalism it means equal opportunity for success for anyone.

According to Lakoff (2002: 108), the liberal model is a reflection of *the nurturant parent morality* model, where the government builds on mutual respect rather than on control, and where the “compassion” and “caring” are the keywords. In order to end the inequalities in the society, the government has to play a significant role in the lives of the people. Taxation is required for the common good of the society and in implication, a big governmental apparatus has to be

formed for a fair distribution of wealth. Schooling and welfare systems are the governmental responsibilities as well. The problem of liberal ideology is the concept *equality* that especially in the 20th century became linked with Marxist theories and their implementation after the Second World War. The Democratic Party therefore struggles to form a new narrative that would stress the differences with Marx, but at the same time, will be consistent with the Democratic Party's role of the correcting force in the course of American history (desegregation, civil rights, women rights, New Deal etc.).

CONCLUSIONS

Even the interview was very short ,no more than ten or eleven turns for both , but the critical discourse analysis specified many interesting points like sharing personal experiences ,the mentalities and how are being represented , and procedures to be followed by the first black American President to fight this typical racism in the American society. As a political personality, Barak Obama tried to shed some light on these negative factors in his society, believing that these negative points can be easily recovered by keeping America to its Anti-Discrimination Declaration, or also called American Human Rights Declaration, 200 years ago. Opera herself shed light on two forms of black racism by citing Jane Pittman, a young black slave, who, like Opera herself, suffered from rape in her early years, and being discriminated by her black husband and white neighbours. Finally, CDA is again proved a very useful tool and then mechanism to understand what is hidden between lines.

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The next issue to be published on
April 2013