People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research
Ibn Khaldoun University –Tiaret
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English

Module Taught:

Oral Discourse and Globalization

MASTER 01 LINGUISTICS STUDENTS

Dr. Khaled BELARBI

Maître de Conferences "A"

Academic Year 2024-2025

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

People'sDemocraticRepublic of Algeria

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research

جامعة ابن خلدون تيارت

Ibn Khaldoun University –Tiaret

كلية الاداب واللغات

Faculty of Letters and Languages

قسم اللغة الانجليزية

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Department of English

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A BRIEF EXAMINATION OF THE DOMAIN OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

University of Ibn Khaldoun

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English

Academic Year: 2024/2025

A BRIEF EXAMINATION OF THE DOMAIN OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Lecture 01: Introducing the study of Discourse

1. Introduction

In today's interconnected world, oral discourse is a fundamental aspect of communication that shapes social interactions, professional exchanges, and global relationships. As globalisation continues to influence how people communicate across linguistic and cultural boundaries, it is essential to understand how spoken language adapts to these changes. This course, Oral Discourse and Globalisation, explores the complex interplay between oral communication and globalisation, examining how language, culture, and digital technologies shape spoken discourse in various contexts, including business, diplomacy, education, and media.

The course will cover a wide range of topics related to oral discourse, including speech acts, conversation analysis, discourse strategies, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics**.** Special attention will be given to intercultural communication, where differences in language use, politeness strategies, and nonverbal cues can impact understanding. Additionally, the course will explore the role of English as a global lingua franca, the spread of multilingualism, and the effects of globalisation on endangered languages and linguistic diversity.

A significant part of the course will also focus on the impact of technology and digital media on oral discourse. The rise of video conferencing, social media, and artificial intelligence-driven communication has transformed traditional spoken interactions, creating new challenges and opportunities for global communication. Students will analyze real-world examples of globalised discourse, including political speeches, international negotiations, media interviews, and cross-cultural business meetings.

Through interactive lectures, case studies, role-playing exercises, and group discussions, students will develop key skills in effective oral communication, cross-cultural competence,

and critical discourse analysis. By the end of the course, students will have a deeper understanding of how oral discourse functions in a globalised world and will be better prepared to engage in meaningful and effective communication across diverse linguistic and cultural settings.

2. The Study of Discourse

Since the introduction of the term discourse into modern sciences it has been used to refer to different meanings, it is considered as an elastic term because it has a complex history. In addition, it is utilized in various disciplines. Originally the word discourse finds its root in the Latin word “discursus” which designates “conversation, speech” (Wisniewski, 2006).

Researchers from divergent fields do not have a unique vision of the term discourse since some of them use it to refer to written texts, whereas others claim that it represents speech. This can be demonstrated through the definition proposed by Crystal (1992:25) who states that discourse “is a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative”. Dakowska sees that the difference between these two types of discourses as a crucial indicator of the unity of the communicative intentionsbetween them.

3. Some Important Definitions of Discourse

In the literature on discourse, linguists give various definitions to this multidisciplinary word. However, all definitions agree on a social constructivist view that there are varying interpretations of the social world, including the understanding of discourse itself.

According to Schroder (2012:113), “Discourse constructs social reality, including discourse studies itself as a scholarly field. This means that different scholars in this field draw maps of the world of discourse studies that are to some extent different”. When we deal with text, which is a form of discourse, Fairclough (1995) asserts that it is not a purely representation. He says, “A useful working assumption is that any part of any text (from the media or from elsewhere) will be simultaneously representing, setting up identities, and setting up relations” (1998:5). Michel Foucault, who is credited for laying the groundwork for discourse analysis, goes one step further than Fairclough. According to Hall (1997:72) “Discourse, Foucault argues, constructsthe topic”.

Foucault elucidates the term ‘discourse’ as statements that influence the world and have common themes and effects on people even though it is also used more commonly to mean ‘discussion’ (Waitt, 2005). According to Hall (1992:293), “Foucault’s use of the term ‘discourse’ … is an attempt to side-step what seems an irresolvable dilemma – deciding which social discourses are true or scientific, and which are false or ideological”.

Cook (1990:7) says that “novels, as well as short conversations or groans might be equally rightfully named discourses”. Ferdinand de Saussure “the father of modern linguistics” divided the broad meaning of language into two components namely: langue and parole. The former referring to the abstract system of language, and the latter, referring, in essence, to speech or the "putting into practice of language". Following this division, discourse correlates more with parole since it always happens in time and is internally characterised by successfully developing expressions in which the meaning of the latter is influenced by the former, whereas langue is abstract.

Another contribution is proposed by one of the grand old men in discourse studies. Robert de Beaugrande (1981) (cited in Renkema 2004: 49), has formulated seven criteria for textuality, that is, criteria that a sequence of sentences must meet in order to qualify as a discourse.

1) **Cohesion**, the first criterion deals with the relationship between text and syntax. Phenomena such as *conjunction, ellipsis, anaphora, cataphora*or*recurrence*are basic for cohesion.

2) **Coherence,** it has to do with the meaning of the text. Here we may refer to elements of knowledge or to cognitive structures that do not have a linguistic realization but are implied by the language used, and thus influence the reception of the message by the interlocutor.

3) **Intentionality,** which relates to the attitude and purpose of the speaker or writer.

4) **Acceptability,** it concerns the preparation of the hearer or reader to assess the relevance or the usefulness of a given text.

5) **Informativness,** it refers to the quantity and quality of new or expected information.

6)**Situationality,** which points to the fact that the situation in which the text is produced plays a crucial role in the production and reception of the message.

7) **Intertextuality,** the last criterion refers to two main facts:

a) A text is always related to some preceding or simultaneous discourse;

b) Texts are always linked and grouped in particular text varieties or genres (e.g.: narrative, argumentative, descriptive, etc.) by formal criteria.

Today, not all of the above mentioned criteria are considered as equally important in discourse studies. As a result, some of them are valid only in certain fields of research.

Tischer et al. (2000) explain that the first two criteria (cohesion and coherence) may be defined as *text-internal*, whereas the remaining criteria are *text-external*. Those approaches oriented towards 'pure' Text Linguistics give more importance to text-internal criteria, while the tradition in Discourse Analysis has always been to give more importance to the external factors, since they are believed to play an essential role in communication.

Other authors, such as Halliday, believe that a *text* is everything that is meaningful in a particular situation: "By text, then, we understand a continuous process of semantic choice" (1978:137). In the "purely" text linguistic approaches, such as the cognitive theories of text, *texts* are viewed as "more or less explicit epi-phenomena of cognitive processes" (Tischer et al., 2000: 29), and the *context* plays a subordinate role.

It could be said that the text-internal elements constitute the *text*, while the text-external ones constitute the *context*. Schiffrin points out that all approaches within Discourse Analysis view *text* and *context* as the two kinds of information that contribute to the communicative content of an utterance, and she defines these terms as follows:

I will use the term "text" to differentiate linguistic material (e.g. what is said, assuming a verbal channel) from the environment in which "sayings" (or other linguistic productions) occur (context). In terms of utterances, then, "text" is the linguistic content: the stable semantic meanings of words, expressions, and sentences, but not the inferences available to hearers depending upon the contexts in which words, expressions, and sentences are used. […] Context is thus a world filled with people producing utterances: people who have social,

cultural, and personal identities, knowledge, beliefs, goals and wants, and who interact with one another in various socially and culturally defined situations. (1994: 363).

Some linguistic theorists such as Fairclough emphasize the linguistic aspect of discourses: "A discourse is the language used in representing a given social practice from a particular point of view. Discourses appertain broadly to knowledge and knowledge construction" (1998:56). Hall (1992:291) sees discourse as a "production of knowledge through language". Hajer (2009:60) on the other hand, explains discourse in terms of meanings given to phenomena when he describes it as "an ensemble of notions, ideas, concepts, and categorizations through which meaning is ascribed to social and physical phenomena, and that is produced in andreproduced in turn an identifiable set of practices".

Another problem appears when researchers try to describe the scope of study of Text Linguistics and Discourse Analysis and to make the differences between them. The problem is that the terms *text* and *discourse* are used in a variety of ways by different linguists and researchers: since there is a considerable number of theoretical approaches to both Text Linguistics and Discourse Analysis and many of them belong to very different research traditions, even when they share nearly the same basic tenets. In everyday popular use, we may understand that the term *text* is confined to written language only, while *discourse* is restricted to spoken language. However, modern Linguistics has presented a concept of *text* that incorporates every type of utterance; therefore a text may be a magazine article, a television interview, a conversation or a cooking recipe, just to give a few examples.

According to Schiffrin, Discourse Analysis involves the study of both text and context. We might conclude, then, that Text Linguistics deals only with the text, while Discourse Analysis is more complete because it studies both text and context. However, as we have demonstrated, there are various definitions of text that are very broad and include both elements, and that is why it would be very risky to talk about clear cut differences between the two disciplines. De Beaugrande's (2002) definition of Text Linguistics (hereinafter TL) as "the study of real language in use" does not differ from many of the definitions of Discourse Analysis (hereinafter DA) presented by Schiffrin within its functional approach, some of which are the following:

1. The study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use (Fasold 1990: 65).

2. The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs (Brown & Yule, 1983: 1).
3. Discourse… refers to language in use, as a process which is socially situated (Candlin, 1997: ix).

Thus, we see that the terms *text* and *discourse* are sometimes used to mean the same thing and therefore one might conclude that TL and DA are the same, too. It can be said, nevertheless, that the tendency in TL has been to present a more formal and experimental approach, while DA tends more towards a functional approach. Formalists are apt to see language as a mental phenomenon, while functionalists see it as a predominantly social one. As has been shown, authors like Schiffrin put together both the formal and the functional approaches within DA, and consequently, DA is regarded as an all-embracing term which would include TL studies as one approach among others.

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Lecture 02: Types of Discourse

1. Types of Discourse

In this section, we will talk about the major types of discourse namely: spoken versus written discourse and planned versus unplanned discourse.

1.1. Written versus Spoken Discourse

In order to define and describe the scope of study of Text Linguistics and Discourse Analysis and to establish the differences between them is not an easy task. Suffice it to say that the terms *text* and *discourse* aroused in a variety of ways by different linguists and researchers: there is a considerable number of theoretical approaches to both Text Linguistics and Discourse Analysis and many of them belong to very different research traditions, even when they share similar basic tenets. In everyday popular use it might be said that the term *text* is restricted to written language, while *discourse* is restricted to spoken language. However, modern Linguistics has introduced a concept of *text* that includes every type of utterance; therefore a text may be a magazine article, a television interview, a conversation or a cooking recipe, just to give a few examples.

These two components of language differ in a number of features that we will see in this section. The first obvious distinction between speech and writing is that writing has got a medium which keeps record of the conveyed message whereas speech comprises only air stream. There are other discrepancies which are less visible. Spoken language develops in time for that the speaker says what he wants to in speed and he has available to him the full control of the voice quality effects as well as facial expression, postural and gestural systems. Armed with these he can always override the effect of the words he speaks. In addition, talking can be spontaneous which may result in making mistakes, repetitions, and sometimes less coherent sentences may convey meaning. Another feature of spoken language is that

speaking is faster than writing, it is fragmented and the speaker can modify his utterances according to his interlocutor since he knows him or at least he is aware that he is being listened to. Last but not least feature of spoken language is that speech implies both listening and speaking, whereas literacy involves reading and writing.

Contrary to the spoken language, the written language develops in space because it necessitates a means to carry the information. Although handwriting is the slowest form of written communication, it allows the writer to integrate his thoughts and plan what he intends to write next. Besides, the writer can have a look to what he has already written, take the necessary time to choose his words, check their meanings in the dictionary if necessary, check his progress with his notes, reorder his ideas, and even replace a sentence by another one or correct the mistakes he makes. By contrast, the speaker is limited in time because of the period allotted to him. He undertakes a face to face conversation which means that all what he utters will be heard by his interlocutor and, if he makes mistakes, he should make quick, public repair.

Another feature of writing is that the author of a text cannot meet all the readers' specific expectations because he does not know exactly who is going to read his text. One other typical feature of writing, but never of oral discourse, is the organisation of tables, formulas, or charts which can be portrayed only in written form (Crystal 1995:291).

The last difference between speech and writing is that there are advantages for the speaker because he has the ability to see his interlocutor and, if he wants to adapt what he is saying to make it more accessible or acceptable to him. The writer does not have access to immediate feedback and simply has to imagine the reader's reaction.[1]

Finally, we can say that in spite of this division between speech and writing, it is possible to combine the two, for instance, when a teacher tries to explain a written text to his students, or a person prepares a long speech to be read in a ceremony.

1.2. Planned and Unplanned Discourse

When we talk about planning, we can say that it encompasses forethought and the idea of a preparation or organization for discourse. Unplanned discourse is a talk that has not been thought out prior to its expression, it is spontaneous. The communicator may or may not have organized how to express a set of ideas prior to the time of communication. On the other

hand, planned discourse has been thought out and designed prior to its expression, while unplanned discourse is discourse that lacks forethought and organizational preparation (Ochs 1979).

Interlocutors produce and listen to language that ranges along a continuum from unplanned to planned. Modes of discourse that occur in real time such as face-to-face speaking involve relatively little planning. More planning is possible in situations in which discourse can be drafted, edited, or rehearsed before interlocutors enter into interaction (Johnstone 2002).

According to Ochs (1979), "discourses vary not only in the extent to which they are planned but also in the extent to which they are plannable. Spontaneous conversation is relatively unplanned and it is difficult to predict the form in which entire sequences will be expressed (57). The content may be even less predictable. On the contrary, in writing, the writer can rewrite any number of times, given that he or she has more time to think out what he or she is going to say, and how to say it.

Ochs (1979: 62-75) also describes four features that distinguish relatively unplanned and planned discourse of English speakers, and suggests that certain communicative strategies used by children are retained by adults in their unplanned (typically spoken) language, even while their planned (typically written) language makes use of strategies acquired later.

"Feature 1: In relatively unplanned discourse more than in planned discourse, speakers rely on the immediate context to express propositions. Speakers rely less on syntax to articulate semantic relations between referents."

"Feature 2: In relatively unplanned discourse more than in planned discourse, speakers rely on morphosyntactic structures acquired in the early stages of language development. Relatively planned discourse makes greater use of morphosyntatic structures that are relatively late to emerge in language. In unplanned discourse speakers tend to avoid using grammatical structures that are late to emerge in language development."

"Feature 3: In relatively unplanned discourse more than in planned discourse, speakers tend to repeat and replace lexical items in the expression of a proposition. In most cases, repetition and word replacement within a speech act reflect trouble spots in the communication."

“Feature 4: In relatively unplanned discourse, the form and content of sequentially arranged social acts tend to be more similar than in relatively planned discourse. There is another form of repetition in which parts of previously expressed social acts are incorporated in subsequent acts. Two or more lexical items can be repeated, both occupying the same grammatical roles in the sequence in which they appear.”

The language of TV, radio or broadcast news is formal, compact, and planned even though it is spoken language. Before broadcasting, script for news stories involves planned written discourse. Also, in newspapers and magazines, journalists plan their discourse to appear.

2. Production and Perception in Relation to Oral Discourse

Oral discourse, encompassing all forms of spoken communication, involves a dynamic interplay between production and perception. Understanding this relationship is crucial for analyzing how meaning is constructed, conveyed, and interpreted in verbal interactions.

2.1. Production in Oral Discourse

2.1.1. Definition and Elements:

Production in oral discourse refers to the actual act of speaking. It involves several components, including phonetics (sound production), syntax (sentence structure), semantics (meaning), and pragmatics (contextual meaning). Effective production requires not only linguistic competence but also sociolinguistic awareness—knowing how to adapt language use based on the audience, setting, and purpose of the communication.

2.1.2.Factors Influencing Production:

Speaker's Background: A speaker's age, education, cultural background, and social identity significantly influence their speaking style, choice of vocabulary, and level of formality. For instance, a speaker may adjust their language when addressing peers compared to speaking to authority figures.

Context: The situation in which discourse occurs—be it a casual conversation, a formal presentation, or a public debate—affects how language is produced. Context dictates not only the content but also the tone, pace, and structure of the discourse.

Cognitive Load: When speakers are under cognitive load, such as during high-pressure discussions or when discussing complex topics, their production may become less fluent or more error-prone. This can reveal the challenges involved in processing language in real time.

Perception in Oral Discourse

1. Definition and Elements:

Perception in oral discourse involves how listeners process, interpret, and respond to spoken language. This includes understanding the linguistic content, as well as recognizing non-verbal cues such as intonation, stress, and body language.

2. Factors Influencing Perception:

Listener's Background: A listener's knowledge, experiences, and cultural context shape their interpretation of discourse. For instance, familiarity with specific jargon or cultural references can affect comprehension and engagement.

Active Listening: Effective perception requires active listening skills, where listeners not only hear words but also engage with the speaker's intent, emotions, and underlying messages. This engagement is crucial in constructing meaning and responding appropriately.

Contextual Clues: Listeners rely on contextual clues to interpret meaning. This includes the physical environment, the relationship between speakers, and prior knowledge of the topic. For example, humor or sarcasm may be missed if the context is not adequately recognized.

Interplay Between Production and Perception

The interaction between production and perception is fundamental to successful oral discourse:

Feedback Loop: As speakers produce discourse, they often adjust their delivery based on the listeners' reactions, creating a feedback loop. For instance, a speaker may elaborate or clarify based on the audience's non-verbal cues, such as nodding or puzzled expressions.

Shared Understanding: Effective communication relies on a shared understanding of language and context. Misalignments between what is produced and how it is perceived can lead to misunderstandings, emphasizing the importance of clarity and adaptability in speech.

Cultural Sensitivity: Awareness of cultural differences in both production and perception can enhance communication. Speakers who understand the cultural backgrounds of their listeners are better equipped to produce language that resonates and is appropriately interpreted.

Pronunciation and Prosodic Features in Relation to Oral Discourse

Pronunciation and prosodic features are fundamental components of oral discourse that significantly influence communication. Together, they shape how spoken language is produced and perceived, affecting clarity, meaning, and engagement in conversation.

Pronunciation

1. Definition and Importance:

Pronunciation refers to the way in which words are articulated, including the correct production of sounds, syllables, and word stress. It plays a crucial role in ensuring mutual intelligibility, allowing speakers and listeners to understand each other effectively.

2. Factors Influencing Pronunciation:

Accent and Dialect: Variations in pronunciation often stem from regional accents and dialects. These variations can impact how easily speakers understand one another, especially in multicultural or multilingual contexts. For example, a speaker from the UK may pronounce certain words differently than a speaker from the US, leading to potential misunderstandings.

Language Proficiency: Non-native speakers may struggle with pronunciation due to unfamiliar phonetic systems. Their ability to produce sounds that do not exist in their first language can hinder effective communication. Consequently, pronunciation training is essential in language learning to improve fluency and comprehension.

Speech Clarity: Clear pronunciation, characterized by proper articulation and enunciation, is vital in professional and academic settings. Poor pronunciation can obscure meaning and lead to miscommunication.

Prosodic Features

1. Definition and Elements:

Prosodic features encompass the rhythm, intonation, stress, and melody of speech. These features contribute to the overall expressiveness of spoken language, affecting how messages are conveyed and understood.

Intonation: The rise and fall of pitch in speech can change the meaning of a sentence. For instance, a rising intonation at the end of a statement can indicate a question in some languages (e.g., “You’re coming?”). Intonation also conveys emotions and attitudes, such as excitement or sarcasm.

Stress: The emphasis placed on particular words can alter meaning. For example, stressing different words in the sentence “I didn’t say she stole my money” can convey different implications about who is being accused.

Rhythm and Pausing: The rhythm of speech, including the use of pauses, affects comprehension and engagement. Strategic pauses can provide listeners with time to process information, highlight important points, and create emphasis.

2. Impact on Communication:

Clarity and Comprehension: Effective use of prosodic features enhances clarity and aids comprehension. For instance, appropriate intonation and stress can help listeners identify the main ideas and nuances in conversation, making it easier to follow complex arguments or narratives.

Engagement and Emotion: Prosodic features contribute to the emotional quality of speech, influencing how engaging and persuasive a speaker is. A varied pitch and dynamic rhythm can capture listeners' attention, while monotone delivery may lead to disengagement.

Interplay Between Pronunciation and Prosodic Features

The relationship between pronunciation and prosodic features is integral to effective oral discourse:

Mutual Reinforcement: Accurate pronunciation supports the effective use of prosodic features. For example, if a speaker mispronounces words, it may distract listeners and detract from the intended prosodic effects. Conversely, strong prosody can enhance the impact of well-pronounced words, making the message more compelling.

Cultural Variations: Different cultures may place varying levels of importance on pronunciation and prosody. For example, in some languages, intonation patterns are critical for distinguishing between statements and questions, while in others, pronunciation may be emphasized more. Understanding these cultural nuances is essential for effective intercultural communication.

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Lecture 03: Characteristics of the English Language

Specificities of Spoken English

Spoken English possesses unique characteristics that differentiate it from written English. These specificities manifest in various aspects, including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and discourse structure. Understanding these features is essential for effective communication in everyday conversations, academic settings, and professional environments.

1. Vocabulary

Informality: Spoken English often employs a more informal vocabulary compared to its written counterpart. Common colloquialisms, slang, and idiomatic expressions are frequently used in conversation. For example, phrases like "gonna" (going to) and "wanna" (want to) are typical in spoken contexts but are usually avoided in formal writing.

Repetition and Redundancy: In spoken discourse, speakers may repeat words or phrases for emphasis or clarity. This redundancy can help listeners understand key points, especially in fast-paced conversations.

Contextual Vocabulary: Spoken English often relies on context for meaning. Certain words may have different interpretations based on the situational context, necessitating an understanding of the conversational environment.

2. Grammar

Simplified Structures: Spoken English frequently employs simpler grammatical structures than written English. For instance, speakers may use fragments or incomplete sentences, especially in informal conversations. An example might be responding to a question with just "Yeah!" instead of a complete sentence.

Use of Ellipsis: In conversation, speakers often omit parts of sentences that can be inferred from context. For example, in response to "Are you coming to the party?" one might simply say "Maybe," omitting the subject and verb.

Frequent Use of Contractions: Contractions like "I'm," "you're," and "they've" are prevalent in spoken English, contributing to a more casual tone. This contrasts with the more formal structure typically found in written English.

3. Pronunciation

Variability of Accents: Spoken English encompasses a wide range of accents and dialects, influenced by geographical, social, and cultural factors. These variations can affect pronunciation, intonation, and even vocabulary, making it essential for speakers to be aware of different English varieties.

Intonation and Stress: The use of intonation patterns and stress is crucial in spoken English. Intonation can convey emotions, indicate questions, or signal the end of a statement. For example, a rising intonation at the end of a sentence often indicates a question, while falling intonation typically suggests a statement.

Connected Speech: In spoken English, words often blend together, creating a fluid sound. This connected speech can include phenomena such as assimilation (where sounds change due to neighboring sounds), elision (where sounds are dropped), and linking (where one word connects to another). For instance, "What do you want?" may be pronounced as "Whaddaya want?"

4. Discourse Structure

Conversational Turn-Taking: Spoken English relies heavily on turn-taking, where speakers alternate in contributing to the conversation. Understanding the norms of turn-taking is essential for effective dialogue, as interruptions or overlapping speech can disrupt communication.

Use of Pauses and Fillers: Pauses and fillers (such as "um," "uh," "you know," and "like") are common in spoken discourse. They serve various functions, including giving speakers time to

think, signaling hesitation, or managing the flow of conversation. While often viewed as hesitations, they can also indicate that the speaker is still engaged in the conversation.

Contextual and Cultural Nuances: Spoken English is often influenced by cultural context, affecting how topics are introduced, how politeness is expressed, and how humor is used. Understanding these nuances is key to effective communication, especially in multicultural environments.

Various Styles in English Conversation

English conversation encompasses a wide array of styles, each shaped by factors such as context, purpose, audience, and cultural norms. Understanding these conversational styles is essential for effective communication, as they influence how messages are conveyed and received. Here, we explore several distinct styles of English conversation.

1. Formal Conversation

Characteristics:

Structured Language: Formal conversations often use complete sentences and standard grammar. Vocabulary tends to be more sophisticated and less colloquial.

Politeness: Formality is marked by the use of polite forms of address (e.g., "Mr.," "Ms.," "Dr.") and respectful language.

Purpose-Driven: This style is typically used in professional, academic, or ceremonial contexts, such as business meetings, presentations, or academic discussions.

Example: “Good morning, everyone. Thank you for attending today’s meeting. I look forward to discussing our project’s progress.”

2. Informal Conversation

Characteristics:

Casual Language: Informal conversations utilize colloquialisms, slang, and contractions. Speakers often use a relaxed tone.

Personal Touch: This style is characterized by personal anecdotes, humor, and emotional expression, creating a friendly atmosphere.

Conversational Flow: Informal conversations often involve overlapping dialogue, interruptions, and turn-taking that reflect a more spontaneous interaction.

Example: “Hey! How’s it going? Did you catch the game last night? It was awesome!”

3. Narrative Style

Characteristics:

Storytelling: This style focuses on recounting events or experiences, often using descriptive language and vivid details to engage the listener.

Structure: A clear beginning, middle, and end help organize the narrative, making it easier for the audience to follow.

Emotional Engagement: Effective narratives evoke emotions and connect with the audience on a personal level.

Example: “So, last summer, I went hiking in the mountains. The view from the top was breathtaking, but the climb was tougher than I expected!”

4. Persuasive Conversation

Characteristics:

Argumentative Structure: This style is characterized by presenting arguments, supporting evidence, and logical reasoning to convince the listener of a particular viewpoint.

Rhetorical Techniques: Persuasive conversations often employ rhetorical questions, repetition, and emotional appeals to strengthen the argument.

Call to Action: The speaker typically aims to inspire the listener to take a specific action or adopt a particular belief.

Example: “We must invest in renewable energy. Not only will it reduce our carbon footprint, but it will also create jobs and ensure a sustainable future for generations to come.”

5. Collaborative Style

Characteristics:

Cooperative Dialogue: This style emphasizes teamwork and collective problem-solving, with speakers actively building on each other’s ideas.

Open-Ended Questions: Collaborative conversations often involve asking open-ended questions to encourage input and discussion from all participants.

Consensus Building: The aim is to reach an agreement or find a common solution, fostering a sense of community and shared responsibility.

Example: “What do you all think about our current strategy? Are there any suggestions for improvement?”

6. Interruptive Style

Characteristics:

Frequent Interruptions: This style is marked by speakers interrupting one another, often to express enthusiasm or disagreement.

Dynamic Exchange: While it can create a lively and engaging atmosphere, it may also lead to misunderstandings if not managed carefully.

Cultural Variability: In some cultures, interrupting is seen as a sign of engagement, while in others, it may be considered disrespectful.

Example: “I really think we should change our approach—” “Absolutely! But what about the budget constraints?”

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Lecture 04: Formal/ Informal Communication

The Formal/Informal Continuum in English Communication

The formal/informal continuum is a concept that describes the range of language styles used in communication, from highly formal to completely informal. This continuum is essential for understanding how context, audience, and purpose influence language choices in both spoken and written English.

1. Understanding the Continuum

At one end of the continuum, formal language is characterized by adherence to standard grammar, sophisticated vocabulary, and a structured approach. In contrast, informal language is marked by casual expressions, colloquialisms, and a more relaxed tone. Between these two extremes lies a spectrum where different styles can be employed based on the situation.

2. Characteristics of Formal Language

1. Structure and Grammar:

Formal language typically adheres to strict grammatical rules and uses complete sentences. It avoids contractions and slang, opting instead for precise vocabulary.

2. Vocabulary:

The vocabulary used is often more complex and technical, suitable for professional or academic contexts. Terms are chosen for their clarity and specificity.

3. Tone:

The tone is serious and respectful, often employing polite forms of address. This style is common in official documents, academic papers, and professional settings.

Example:

“Dear Ms. Smith, I am writing to formally request your assistance with the project proposal due next week.”

3. Characteristics of Informal Language

1. Casual Structure:

Informal language may include fragmented sentences, colloquialisms, and the use of slang. Speakers often use contractions and may omit certain grammatical elements.

2. Vocabulary:

The vocabulary is more conversational, incorporating everyday language and expressions that resonate with the audience.

3. Tone:

The tone is friendly and approachable, often reflecting personal opinions and emotions. Informal language is prevalent in casual conversations, social media interactions, and personal correspondence.

Example:

“Hey, Sarah! Just wanted to see if you’re free to grab a coffee this week.”

4. Contextual Influences

The choice of language style along the continuum is heavily influenced by context:

1. Audience:

The background and expectations of the audience play a critical role. For instance, speaking to a professor or in a business meeting typically requires a formal style, while chatting with friends allows for a more informal approach.

2. Purpose:

The intent behind the communication also dictates the level of formality. Formal writing is often used for reports, proposals, or academic essays, whereas informal language is suitable for personal emails, text messages, or casual discussions.

3. Setting:

The environment in which communication occurs—whether it's a professional setting, a classroom, or a social gathering—can determine the appropriate style.

5. The Middle Ground

Many communicative situations require a blend of formal and informal language, often referred to as semi-formal or neutral language. This style maintains professionalism while being accessible and relatable.

Example:

"Hello everyone, I hope you're doing well. I wanted to discuss our upcoming project and hear your thoughts."

6. Implications for Communication

Understanding the formal/informal continuum is crucial for effective communication:

Adaptability: Being aware of the continuum allows speakers and writers to adjust their language according to the audience and context, enhancing clarity and connection.

Cultural Sensitivity: Different cultures may have varying expectations regarding formality in language. Recognizing these differences is essential for effective intercultural communication.

Building Relationships: Using the appropriate level of formality can help establish rapport and trust, whether in professional settings or personal interactions.

Standard English vs. Dialectal Varieties

The distinction between Standard English and dialectal varieties is a significant topic in sociolinguistics, reflecting the complexities of language use across different social and regional contexts. Standard English is often viewed as the "correct" or "prestigious" form of English, while dialectal varieties encompass the diverse ways in which English is spoken across different communities.

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Lecture 05: Standard English and Oral Discourse

1. Definition of Standard English

Standard English is defined as the form of English that is widely accepted as the norm in formal settings, such as education, government, and media. It is characterized by specific grammatical rules, vocabulary, and pronunciation that are considered appropriate for formal communication. This variety is often associated with social class and education, as it is typically used by those in positions of authority or influence [1].

2. Characteristics of Dialectal Varieties

Dialectal varieties of English include regional and social dialects that differ from Standard English in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. These dialects can reflect local culture, history, and identity. For example, Southern American English and African American Vernacular English (AAVE) are recognized as distinct dialects with their own grammatical rules and lexical choices [1][3].

Grammar: Dialects may exhibit unique grammatical structures. For instance, AAVE often uses the construction "He be working" to indicate habitual action, which differs from Standard English [3].

Vocabulary: Dialects can include words and phrases that are not found in Standard English. For example, the use of "y'all" in Southern dialects is a common plural form of "you" that is not present in Standard English [1].

Pronunciation: Accents and pronunciation patterns vary significantly across dialects. For instance, the pronunciation of vowels in Northern English dialects can differ markedly from those in Southern dialects [1].

3. Social Perceptions and Attitudes

The perception of Standard English as superior to dialectal varieties is a common societal attitude. Many speakers of dialects face stigma and are often perceived as less educated or less competent due to their language use. This perception can lead to linguistic discrimination, where speakers of non-standard dialects are unfairly judged based on their speech [1][2].

Researchers like Trudgill (1990) argue that no dialect is linguistically inferior to Standard English, emphasizing that all dialects are rule-governed systems with their own internal logic [1]. Furthermore, sociolinguists like Paul Kerswill have noted that social mobility can lead to dialect leveling, where distinct regional features diminish as speakers interact more frequently with one another across different dialects [1].

4. The Role of Education

Education plays a crucial role in the relationship between Standard English and dialectal varieties. Studies have shown that children who speak non-mainstream dialects may face challenges in academic settings, particularly if their dialect differs significantly from the Standard English used in schools. This can contribute to the achievement gap observed among different socioeconomic and racial groups [3].

Research indicates that dialect shifting—where speakers adjust their language use depending on the context—can occur, particularly among students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds who may adapt their speech to align more closely with Standard English in educational settings [3].

Towards Oral Discourse Competence

Oral discourse competence refers to the ability to effectively engage in spoken communication, encompassing various skills such as fluency, coherence, appropriateness, and responsiveness. Developing competence in oral discourse is essential for successful interactions in both personal and professional contexts. This competence involves not only linguistic proficiency but also an understanding of the social and cultural nuances of spoken communication.

1. Components of Oral Discourse Competence

1. Fluency:

Fluency refers to the ability to speak smoothly and effortlessly, with appropriate pacing and rhythm. Fluent speakers can express their thoughts clearly without frequent pauses or hesitations. This skill can be developed through practice, such as engaging in conversations, participating in discussions, and giving presentations.

2. Coherence:

Coherence involves organizing thoughts logically and connecting ideas in a way that makes sense to the listener. Competent speakers use cohesive devices, such as transitional phrases and signposting, to guide the listener through their discourse. For example, phrases like "firstly," "on the other hand," or "in conclusion" help indicate the structure of the conversation.

3. Appropriateness:

Appropriateness refers to the ability to adapt language and style to suit the context, audience, and purpose of the discourse. This includes choosing the right level of formality, using culturally relevant references, and being sensitive to the listener's background and expectations. For instance, the language used in a job interview should differ significantly from that used in a casual chat with friends.

4. Responsiveness:

Responsiveness is the capacity to engage actively with others in conversation. This involves listening attentively, providing relevant feedback, and demonstrating understanding through verbal and non-verbal cues. Good conversationalists are adept at asking questions, paraphrasing, and summarizing to ensure clarity and engagement.

2. Strategies for Developing Oral Discourse Competence

1. Practice and Exposure:

Regular practice is crucial for developing oral discourse competence. Engaging in conversations with diverse speakers, participating in discussion groups, and practicing public speaking can enhance fluency and confidence. Exposure to different contexts and styles of speaking also broadens one's understanding of appropriate discourse.

2. Active Listening:

Active listening skills are vital for effective oral discourse. This involves focusing fully on the speaker, understanding their message, and responding thoughtfully. Techniques such as nodding, maintaining eye contact, and using verbal affirmations (e.g., "I see," "That makes sense") can improve interpersonal communication.

3. Feedback and Reflection:

Seeking feedback from peers, instructors, or mentors can provide valuable insights into areas for improvement. Recording and reviewing one's own speaking can also help identify strengths and weaknesses, allowing for targeted practice.

4. Cultural Awareness:

Understanding cultural differences in communication styles is essential for effective oral discourse. Awareness of how various cultures approach conversation, turn-taking, and non-verbal cues can enhance cross-cultural interactions and prevent misunderstandings.

3. The Role of Education

Educational settings play a critical role in fostering oral discourse competence. Incorporating activities such as debates, group discussions, and presentations into the curriculum can provide students with opportunities to practice and refine their speaking skills. Additionally, language courses that emphasize communicative competence can help learners build confidence and proficiency in oral discourse.

4. Challenges to Oral Discourse Competence

Despite the importance of oral discourse competence, learners may face challenges such as anxiety, lack of practice opportunities, and linguistic limitations. Addressing these challenges is essential for fostering a positive learning environment. Encouraging a supportive atmosphere where mistakes are viewed as learning opportunities can help reduce anxiety and promote engagement.

The Importance of Audio-Visual Means in Learning Spoken English

Audio-visual aids have become integral to language learning, particularly in acquiring spoken English. These resources enhance the learning experience by providing dynamic and engaging ways to practice listening and speaking skills. Here, we explore the significance of audio-visual means in learning spoken English and how they contribute to effective language acquisition.

I. Enhanced Listening Skills

1. Exposure to Varied Accents and Dialects:

Audio-visual materials, such as films, podcasts, and videos, expose learners to different accents and dialects of English. This exposure helps learners develop their listening comprehension skills, making them more adaptable to various English-speaking contexts.

2. Contextual Understanding:

Videos and audio recordings often present language in context, allowing learners to understand how words and phrases are used in real-life situations. This contextualization enhances comprehension and retention, as learners can see and hear how language functions in different scenarios.

II. Improved Speaking Skills

1. Modeling Pronunciation and Intonation:

Audio-visual materials provide clear examples of pronunciation, stress, and intonation patterns. Learners can imitate native speakers, which is crucial for developing accurate

speaking skills. This modeling helps learners grasp the nuances of spoken language, including rhythm and pitch.

2. Opportunities for Repetition and Practice:

Learners can pause, rewind, and replay audio-visual content, allowing them to practice speaking at their own pace. This repetition reinforces learning and builds confidence, as learners can focus on specific phrases or structures that they find challenging.

III. Engagement and Motivation

1. Interactive Learning:

Incorporating audio-visual materials into lessons makes learning more interactive and enjoyable. Engaging content, such as films, music, and interactive videos, can capture learners' interest and motivate them to participate actively in their language studies.

2. Visual Contextualization:

Visual elements, such as images, animations, and on-screen text, support comprehension and retention. They help learners make connections between spoken language and visual cues, facilitating better understanding and recall.

VI. Cultural Awareness

1. Insights into Cultural Contexts:

Audio-visual materials often reflect the cultural nuances of English-speaking communities. By watching movies, documentaries, or TV shows, learners gain insights into cultural references, humor, and social norms, which are essential for effective communication.

2. Exposure to Real-Life Situations:

Learners encounter authentic situations in audio-visual materials, such as conversations, interviews, and everyday interactions. This exposure prepares them for real-life communication, enabling them to navigate social contexts more effectively.

V. Development of Critical Thinking Skills

1. Analysis and Discussion:

Audio-visual materials can serve as prompts for discussions, debates, and analyses. Learners can critically engage with content, formulate opinions, and articulate their thoughts, thereby enhancing their speaking skills and confidence.

2. Integration of Multiple Skills:

Using audio-visual aids encourages the integration of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. For instance, learners might watch a video, discuss its content, and then write a summary, fostering a more holistic approach to language learning.

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Lecture 06: Earliest Studies about Discourse

1.3. Discourse Analysis: Definitions, Origin and Earliest Studies

To trace back the origins of the discipline of discourse Analysis is not an easy task since it has been the subject of study of different academic fields. Consequently, the terms discourse and discourse analysis are used to mean different things by different researchers. Originally, the concept of 'discourse analysis' was first introduced by Zellig Harris (1952)[2], who published his influential article in the journal *Language*. He defines discourse analysis as "a method for the analysis of connected speech (or writing)" that, firstly, goes beyond the limits of a single sentence and, secondly, correlates culture (in a meaning of non-linguistic behaviour) and language. Harris views discourse as the next level in a hierarchy of morphemes, clauses and sentences. His view has been criticized due to the results shown by researchers like Chafe (1980, 1987, 1992), who rightfully argued that not all the units used by people in their speech can be categorized as sentences. People generally produce units that have a semantic and an intentional closure, but not necessarily a syntactic one.

In studying the emergence of this field, we can say that it is not the result of linguistic research only, but there are a great number of researchers who engaged in other domains of enquiry such as anthropology, ethnography, micro-sociology, cognitive and social psychology, poetics, rhetoric, stylistics, semiotics, and other disciplines in the humanities and social sciences interested in the systematic study of the structures, functions, and processing of text and talk.[3]

Consequently, the field of DA crosses the linguistics border into different and varied domains. As Van Dijk (2002: 10) notes:

…discourse analysis for me is essentially multidisciplinary, and involves linguistics, poetics, semiotics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, history, and communication research. What I

find crucial though is that precisely because of its multi-faceted nature, this multidisciplinary research should be integrated. We should devise theories that are complex and account both for the textual, the cognitive, the social, the political and the historical dimension of discourse.

When they analyse discourse, researchers are not only concerned with "purely" linguistic facts; they pay equal or more attention to language use in relation to social, political and cultural aspects. Because of this reason, discourse is not only within the interests of linguists; it is a field that is also studied by communication scientists, literary critics, philosophers, sociologists, anthropologists, social psychologists, political scientists, and many others. As Barbara Johnstone puts it:

… I see discourse analysis as a research method that can be (and is being) used by scholars with a variety of academic and non-academic affiliations, coming from a variety of disciplines, to answer a variety of questions. (2002: xi)

Slembrouck (2005:1) points out the vagueness of the term *discourse analysis* and provides another extensive definition:

The term discourse analysis is very ambiguous. I will use it in this book to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of *naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse*. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study *larger linguistic units*, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with *language use in social contexts*, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers.

As mentioned above, not all researchers use and believe in the same definition of *text* and *discourse*. In this work, we are going to adopt the general definition of DA as the study of language in use, and we shall follow Schiffrin in including both *text* and *context* as parts of discourse, in which case we will consider the term *text* in its narrow sense, not in the broad sense that could place it on a part with the term *discourse.*

The approach that seems most purposeful in relation to the aims of this project is discourse analysis, which is utilized within many different fields of research, and for multiple purposes. A common trait across disciplines is that discourse analysts are interested in looking at language at a higher level: 'Discourse analysis has moved the description of structure up a level, looking at actual stretches of connected text or transcript and providing descriptions of

the structure of paragraphs, stories, and conversations' (Johnstone 2002:5). Media discourses, which form the material to be studied here, are indeed longer stretches of connected text, and discourse analysis therefore seems appropriate to utilise as a means of revealing different linguistic traits in the Algerian mass media.

The theory is useful for the purposes of this investigation, as the goal is to investigate how language is used to portray reality, and to investigate texts from the different media types. In order to be able to find salient features in the media discourses, the language needs to be investigated thoroughly. The term 'discourse analysis' is rather elusive, and one which tends to be defined differently by researchers within various fields of research, such as linguistics, social science studies, cultural studies etc. Given the broadness of the term, it may be a challenge to narrow down the exact method and to link it to theory in a fruitful manner. We will therefore attempt to make clear to which degree the present utilized framework is grounded in discourse analysis.

In the present thesis, discourse analysis is seen as a theoretical framework and as a practical methodological approach simultaneously. In *Discourse Analysis*, Barbara Johnstone stresses that discourse analysis should not be seen as a discipline, but: 'as a research method that can be (and is being) used by scholars with a variety of academic and non-academic affiliations, coming from a variety of disciplines, to answer a variety of questions' (2002:xi). The elusiveness of the term makes it a widely applied label for studies within a great range of fields.

Johnstone also provides a straightforward definition when she claims that: 'discourse analysis is the study of language, in the everyday sense in which most people use the term' (2002:2). Further she states that: 'Texts and their interpretations are shaped by the structural resources that are available and the structural choices text-builders make' (2002:12). As the aim here is to achieve insight on language use in media discourses and the linguistic choices made, it seemed appropriate to opt for a methodology based on discourse analysis.

The realm of which discourse analysis is applied in the present thesis is a multidisciplinary field on the boundaries of linguistics, media studies and cultural studies. To define discourse analysis within the realms which it will be used for the present purposes, a quote collected from *A Dictionary of Media and Communication Studies* is appropriate. Here, discourse analysis is described as a:

Form of MASS COMMUNICATION analysis which concentrates upon the *ways* in which the media convey information, focusing on the LANGUAGE of presentation – linguistic patterns, word and phrase selection (lexical choices), grammatical constructions and story coherence. In particular, discourse analysis sets out to account for the textual form in which the mass media present IDEOLOGY to readership or audience.[4]

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Lecture 07: Earliest Studies about Discourse

The latter point of ideology will be returned to, but as far as discourse analyses of media texts are concerned, the tendency is that researchers have a critical approach, where language is seen as a tool for expressing different overt or covert agendas. The present framework also builds on the work of critical linguists, and a brief presentation of what that entails is therefore in order. Roger Fowler is for many deemed as one of the first scholars to advocate this kind of critical perspective. He introduced the term in 1979, when he was co-author of *Language and Control*, which indulged to explore how language functions in social and political practice (1979:1). Fowler continued and further developed this tradition in his book *Language in the News. Discourse and Ideology in the Press* from 1991, where he claims to approach media studies by using a specific linguistic model which he labels critical linguistics. According to him: 'critical linguistics simply means an enquiry into the relations between signs, meanings and the social and historical conditions which govern the semiotic structure of discourse, using a particular kind of linguistic analysis' (1991:5). In other words, Fowler does not see language as innocent and neutral signs of communication; he assumes that: 'each particular form of linguistic expression in a text – wording, syntactic option, etc. – has its reason' (1991:4). He thus sees different ways of saying things as distinctive and not random. Fowler also adheres to M.A.K Halliday's systemic functional approach to linguistics, which is specifically occupied with relating structure to communicative function (1991:5).

The core of Fowler's perspective is that it is impossible for language to be value-free, and based on this he believes it to be: 'justifiable to practise a kind of linguistics directed towards understanding such values' (1991:5). In both *Language and Control* and *Language in the News, Discourse and Ideology in the Press*, he examines different texts where he looks at, for instance, the relationship between participant sand in general how the language conveys socially constructed values. At a later stage, the approach called Critical discourse analysis grew out of this critical tradition.

Schiffrin et al. note that all the definitions fall into three main categories:

1) Anything beyond the sentence

2) Language use

3) A broader range of social practice that includes non-linguistic and non-specific instances of language.[5]

Some scholars such as Leech and Schiffrin distinguish between two main approaches: The first one is the formal approach, where discourse is defined as a unit of language beyond the sentence, and the second one is the functional approach, which defines discourse as language use.

Functionalists give much importance to the purposes and functions of language, sometimes to the extreme of defending the notion that language and society are part of each other and cannot be thought of as independent (Fairclough, 1989; Foucault, 1980). Functional analyses include all uses of language because they focus on the way in which people use language to achieve certain communicative goals. Discourse is not regarded as one more of the levels in a hierarchy; it is an all-embracing concept which includes not only the propositional content, but also the social, cultural and contextual contents.

As explained above, Schiffrin (1994) proposes a more balanced approach to discourse, in which both the formal and the functional paradigms are integrated. She views discourse as "utterances", i.e. "units of linguistic production (whether spoken or written) which are inherently contextualized" (1994: 41). From this perspective, the aims for DA are not only sequential or syntactic, but also semantic and pragmatic.

Within the category of discourse we may include not only the "purely" linguistic content, but also sign language, dramatization, or the so-called 'bodily hexis', i.e. the speaker's disposition or the way s/he stands, talks, walks or laughs, which has to do with a given political mythology. It can thus be concluded that discourse is multi-modal because it uses more than one semiotic system and performs several functions at the same time.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the development of discourse analysis witnessed a great influence from other scholars such philosophers of language or those dealing with pragmatics.

Among other contributors of this field was the Prague school of linguists, who showed the connection of grammar and discourse by focusing on the organization of information in communicative products.

Another important contribution to the progression of discourse analysis was made by the British and the American scholars. In the UK, the work on discourse insisted on studying the social functions of language, such work created an exhaustive account of communication in different situations such as doctor-patient talk, service encounters, interviews, debates and business negotiations, and monologues, giving importance to the intonation of people participating in talks as well as manners particular to circumstances. Such work follows structural linguistics in isolating units and framing rules for defining well-formed sequences. It also leans on speech-act theory.

One of the most influential figures in British scholars was M. A. K. Halliday whoemphasised the social functions of language and the thematic and informational structure of speech and writing. Also influential were John Sinclair and Malcolm Coulthard, who devised a model for the description of spoken interaction in school classrooms, based on a rank-scale of units of discourse, from larger stretches of talk termed *transactions* to individual *acts* of speech. Central to the Sinclair-Coulthard model is the *exchange,* the minimal unit of interaction.[6]

Americans, on the other hand, focused on the examination of small communities of people and their discourse in genuine circumstances, forms of talk such as storytelling, greeting, and verbal duels in different cultural and social settings. The field often referred to as *conversation analysis*. Here the emphasis is not on models of structure but on the behaviour of participants in talk and on patterns recurring over a wide range of natural data.

Other important works were done by E. Goffman, D. Sudnow, H. Sacks, E. A. Schegloff, and G. Jefferson which were crucial in the study of conversational rules, turn-taking, and other features of spoken interaction. The description of turn-taking classically illustrates the approach. William Labov's studies of oral narrative have contributed to a more general knowledge of narrative structure. Such work has generated a variety of descriptions of discourse organization as well as studies of social constraints on politeness and face-preserving phenomena. These overlap with British work in pragmatics.

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1.4. Areas of Interest for Discourse Analysts

Generally speaking, most discourse analysts explore the use of language in context; accordingly they are fascinated by what speakers/writers do, and not so much in the formal relationships among sentences or propositions.

We deduce that discourse analysis has a social dimension, and it represents for many analysts a method for studying how language "gets recruited 'on site' to enact specific social activities and social identities" (Gee 1999: 1).When there is a problem to delimit a discipline, as is the case with DA, we can find out a great deal about its field of concern by looking at what specialists do. When we scrutinize what discourse analysts do, we find that they inspect topics such as:

• Turn-taking in telephone conversations

• The language of humour

• Power relationships in doctor/patient interviews

• Dialogue in chat rooms

• The discourse of the archives, records or files of psychoanalysts

• The conversation at a dinner table

• The scripts of a given television program

• The discourse of politicians

• The study of racism through the use of discourse

• How power relations and sexism are manifested in the conversation between men and women

• The characteristics of persuasive discourse

• Openings and closings in different types of conversations

• The structure of narrative

• Representations of black/white people (or any race) in the written media (magazines, newspapers, etc.)

• The strategies used by speakers/writers in order to fulfil a given discourse function

• The use of irony or metaphor for certain communicative aims

• The use of linguistic politeness

• The discourse of E-mail messages

• Legal discourse used in trials

• How people create social categories like "boy" or "immigrant" or "lady" as they talk to, about, or among each other, etc…

Here we mentioned only a few examples which echo the concerns of discourse analysts, but they represent a proof that researchers in DA are certainly regarded by the study of language in use.

Johnstone (2002) asserts that the discipline is called discourse *analysis* (and not, for instance, "discourseology") since it "typically focuses on the analytical process in a relatively explicit way" (2002: 3). The process of analysis can be accomplished by splitting up long stretches of discourse into parts or units of different sorts, relying on the initial research question, and it can also involve looking at the phenomenon under study in a variety of ways, by performing, for instance, a given set of tests.

We can say that discourse analysts have helped to throw some light on the way writers and speakers organize their discourse in order to indicate their semantic intentions, as well as on how readers and hearers interpret what they read, hear or see. In addition, they have also participated in finding important answers to some research questions which have led, for instance, to the identification of the cognitive abilities involved in the use of symbols or semiotic systems, to the study of variation and change, or to the description of some aspects of the process of language acquisition.

So as to be able to work on their analyses, discourse analysts are obliged to work with texts. The latter constitute the corpus of any given study, to name a few examples we mention the transcriptions of a recorded conversation, a written document or a computerized corpus of a given language. Nowadays most discourse researchers depend on the use of corpora which has become a very widespread practice, and obliges any discourse analyst to get enough basic knowledge of how to manage the data and how to work with corpora.[7]

Another important contribution is provided by Fulcher, E. (2005) who defines discourse analysis as a way of understanding social interaction. Moreover, he assumes that the aim behind discourse analysis is to examine how people use language to construct versions of their experiences, and it is based on the assumption that people draw on cultural and linguistic resources in order to construct their talk in certain ways to have certain effects.

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Lecture 09: types of analysis within discourse studies

Van Dijk (1992) cited by Silva (1997), says that in the analysis of the oral discourse the focus is on the dynamic aspects of the spontaneous interaction in the "Social Science Perspectives". However, analyzing the oral discourse in the current investigation implies exploring three main aspects which are semantic, pragmatic and cognitive; these areas will be discussed below:

1.4.1. Semantic Analysis of the Oral Discourse

The semantic analysis of discourse is meant for a number of criteria which will be explained in detail in the following sections.

. Coherence or cohesion: refers to the semantic property which focuses on the sequence that sentences have. So, a sequence of sentences is considered coherent, if the sentences satisfy certain semantic relations (Dijk, 1983). There are two aspects of coherence according to Dijk (1983); they are the local coherence and the global coherence.

. Local coherence: it means the semantic relation between individual sentences of the sequence. The analysis is done on individual sentences looking at the sequence among each sentence of the whole discourse.

. Global coherence: Thisrefers to the semantic relation of the discourse as a whole. Regarding the semantic lineal coherence, other researchers supported by Van Dijk (1983) distinguish the two types of semantic lineal coherence namely: the linguistic semantic and the intentional semantic. To recognize the global coherence of a discourse, it is very crucial to distinguish the macro-rules of suppression, generalization, and construction. These three macro-rules are

used to transform information from a whole discourse in order to get macro structures which are propositions that summarize the global content of the discourse (Dijk, 2005).

. Macro-rule of Generalization: it is to put information together and construct a more general proposition of the discourse.

. Macro-rule of Suppression: it means to avoid the details that do not affect the global meaning of the discourse; those details that do not have an important role in the interpretation of the other propositions.

. Macro-rule of Construction: suppresses information that makes part of our knowledge of the world to construct a proposition that implicitly contends the abstracted information.

1.4.2. Pragmatic Analysis of the Oral Discourse

According to Dijk, V. (1983) the oral emissions either words, sentences or speeches are used in communicative contexts and so that, they have specific functions in such contexts. To understand the functions, it is required to bear in mind that the emissions are used to perform actions. Pragmatic analysis is in charge of analyzing the way in which the context affects or influences the meaning interpretation. In addition, it scrutinizes the extra linguistic elements that influence the production or comprehension of the speech act. According to Speech Act Theory (Searle, 1969) while talking, people accomplish acts such as promising, agreeing, and threatening. Furthermore, Searle (1980) distinguishes five types of speech acts in relation to their functions: affirmative or representative, expressive, directive or appellative, Commissives, and declarative.

. Affirmatives or representatives: When speakers affirm of deny something with the aim of explaining what is wanted to say or inform. For instance, to explain, to communicate, to agree, etc.

. Expressive: When the speaker wants to transmit his/her emotional and affective state. This can be expressing compliments, apologies, advice, etc.

. Directive or appellative: When speakers want to persuade the listeners and get them to do specific actions. It could be an order in the form of a question, request or imperatives. For instance, requests, commands, questions, etc.

. Commissives: When speakers assume a commitment independently whether or not it is fulfilled.

. Declarative: The speaker looks for modifying any situation. The speaker has some kind of authority, and he/she has an official or public acknowledgement (a judge, a priest, a policeman, and so forth) to pronounce some specific words. As every speech act has its intention, these speech acts are essential to study the discourse in terms of production and interpretation, because the discourse is completely understood if the intended meaning is delivered with clarity. Searle (1980) also, presents two types of speech acts: direct and indirect. The former is when the intention of the speaker is totally expressed and understood without explanation. And the latter, is when the intention is not explicitly expressed and the hearer can get confused.

. Satisfactory Speech Acts: Besides, Van Dijk (1980) proposes a property of the speech actions "the satisfaction" of the speech acts. He states that the general conditions of the SA (satisfaction) is that, one person does something and that the result and/or the consequences of that result are similar or the same to the ones that the speaker wanted to cause in the listener by his/her doing. In other words, if the result and the consequences agree with the intention and the purpose of the speaker, it says that the action is satisfactory. This is to say, the coherent sequence in the speech acts is given by the accomplishment of the satisfaction of the speech act in terms of the speaker intention.

. Global Pragmatic Coherence When talking about speech acts analysis, it is convenient to highlight that there are macro speech acts which are defined as the result of the performing of a sequence of the speech acts connected. Macro speech acts allow the reader or listener to understand and recognize the global intention of the discourse. This means that all the discourses produced by people have a particular intention in the listener; this particular intention is called macro speech act which means that despite of all the speech acts encountered within a same discourse, there is always a principal intention.

1.4.3. Cognitive Analysis of the Oral Discourse

Researchers say that the cognitive aspect is in charge of studying the mental models or cognitive representations of the speaker/listener in the production and interpretation of a discourse. Those models include beliefs, values, shared knowledge, experiences, opinions,

and so forth. Nevertheless, the cognitive analysis does not reject the social aspects since the mental representations are constructed socially.

In accordance with Van Dijk (2000), there are five elements of cognitive analysis which are helpful to examine the coherence in the speech, they are the following: topic, implicatures and implications, presuppositions, local coherence, and lexical meanings or connotations.

. Topics or (macro) propositions: It is the global meaning assigned to or inferred from (fragments of) discourse by language users. In other words, language users often provide their (own, subjective) summaries of a text, and such a summary in many respects expresses the macrostructure of the text.

. Implicatures and implications: They are the propositions inferred from (the meaning of) actually expressed words, phrases, clauses or sentences of discourse. Thus, spelling out the (cognitive) implications of a proposition expressed in the text, means to list (some of) the propositions that may be derived from this propositions given a relevant domain of knowledge. The implications and implicatures may be our assumptions about the intentions of the speaker/writer. In that case we say: By saying A, the speaking probably implies that B, C and D. Or we can specify our own model of the context, and say: For me, A implies E, F or G.

. Presuppositions: These are simply the set of meaning conditions of a sentence: what we must know in order to understand a sentence (or sequence of sentences). This is to say, presuppositions are not just any odd piece of knowledge, we may have to understand a part of discourse, but the fact that there are expressions in the text that express or otherwise signal such presupposed propositions. Following the same line of thought, Ramirez (2008) points out that it is a set of knowledge, interests, and conditions of the listener that speakers propose to the listeners as a departing point to the production of the discourse. For example, when someone says to the other: “I lost my money” she is giving to the listener some knowledge, the presupposition that the other knew which money he was talking about (Ramirez, 2008).

. Local coherence: Any discourse is coherent not only when it is globally coherent (has a topic), but also when its respective sentences (propositions) are locally or sequentially coherent. In other words, A is able to imagine a situation in/for which the text could be true. That is, when cognitively analyzing the coherence of the text, we examine the relations

between its subsequent propositions, and establishing relation to what mental model the text makes sense.

. Connotations: are the specific implications that a word meaning may have and that are usually part of the cultural knowledge of the participants.

Regarding all the aspects mentioned before, the cognitive representations that people have in their minds about cultural issues related to their own culture and to the culture of the foreign language enable them to understand a discourse produced in both languages. This type of knowledge that speakers and listeners possess, should be common in both participants of a conversation in order to understand the discourse and its intentions; also, to produce a coherent discourse that the speakers know the listeners will understand.

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Lecture 10: The Study of Communication

1.5. Meaning of Communication

Communication is worldwide. Everybody communicates, everything communicates. Communication is not an activity that is specific to human beings only. All creatures on the earth, from worms to humans, communicate with each other in order to express their needs, feelings, etc... It is a prevalent phenomenon.

Among the best definitions of communication, there is one that states that it is a technique by which information, ideas, emotions, skills, knowledge are transmitted using symbols, words, gestures, and visuals and so on. Accordingly, the act of communication is used to signify 'transmission'.

As sated above that communication is a universal phenomenon which is related all the human activities, we managed to find answers to all the following questions so as to have a clear understanding of this concept. What is communication? Why is it important to human beings? How does it work? What are the elements involved in the process of communication? How do they relate to each other? What are the different types of communication?

To start, the word communication emerged from the Latin word '*communis*' which denotes '*common*'. Communion, community, communism, commonality, and communalism etc. All these listed words are related words since they have the same linguistic roots. Nowadays there are a lot of newer terms which are invented since the notion of communication gains more importance day after another. One can mention few examples such as communication technology, communication media, communication age, communication management etc.

The term communication has various purposes, but its fundamental ambition is to produce commonness between the communicator and receiver of the message who enter into

a mental agreement. By doing so, they accomplish their aim, which may be expressing an emotion or transmitting an idea. When referring to the term 'communication', a lot of concepts such as Transaction, interchange, interaction, dialogue, discussion, sharing and contact may come up in our minds.

According to Oxford English Dictionary, communication is 'the activity or process of expressing ideas or feelings or of giving people information: speech is the fastest method of communication between people'[8]

1.6. Elements of Communication

The different elements of communication can be summarized in the definition proposed by Joseph Devito who states that 'communication refers to the act by one or more persons, of sending and receiving messages distorted by noise, within a context, with some effect and with some opportunity for feedback to find out the essential elements of communication.[9]

From the above definition, we can number the following eight elements namely: Sender, message, channel, receiver, noise, feedback, context, and effect

Giving details about each element and illustrating with examples will provide us with a very clear image about the entire process of communication.

1.6.1. Sender

As a starter, the sender is the idea generating component in the communication process. In human communication, the sender may be a person or persons who create or formulate the message to be sent to the receiver. Because he represents the first element of the message, the sender can be also labeled as source.

When dealing with the mass media, the news reporter is considered as the sender or source as he/she constructs the message (news story). However, in a musical performance, the singer or the performer is the sender as his message is enjoyed by the audience.

One of the most important components of communication is the sender with his/her social background, personality status and education influences the quality of the message he/she creates. The message is originated from the idea created in the mind of the sender. This idea of generation process is called encoding.

The source/sender has three functions:

a) First, to decide what is to be communicated.

b) Second, encoding which means putting the idea in such a way that the receiver understands it.

c) Third, transmitting the message to the receiver.

1.6.2. Message

The second component of communication is the message which refers to any verbal or non-verbal method that produces meaning in the mind of the receiver. Simply, there is a meaning which is being transferred from the sender's mind to receiver's mind. There are mainly two ways to transmit meaning: verbal and non-verbal methods.

a) **Verbal messages** refer to the written or the oral messages. The latter are constituted of words. Example: A newspaper report or a lecture by a teacher.
b) **Non-verbal messages** represent the sum of messages which are transmitted through our behaviour, movements, actions, clothes, style of conversation, gestures and pitch of the sound etc.

An important element in any message construction is the compatibility between the sender and the receiver for the code used for it. If the receiver fails torecognise the language or the meaning of the message, the communication will be defective.

1.6.3. Channel

We mean by channel the mechanism by which the sender communicates his/her message to the receiver. As human beings, we are equipped with five senses which are hearing, touching, smelling, tasting and seeing. The latter represent the basic natural channels of human communication and can be classified on this basis.

They are:

a) **Tactile communication**: This communication is related to the touch or taste.
b) **Olfactory communication**: Means communication by smell.
c) **Audio communication**: This communication can be through sound waves.

d) **Visual communication**: the last communication can be through visual elements or properties.

In our daily life, we use any technically developed devices such as television, newspaper and books with the help of one or more of these five senses. The same happens when the sender uses one or more channels to magnify the communication outcome. We can mention as an example the multi-media classrooms where the teacher utilises projector, blackboard, lecture, gestures etc. simultaneously.

1.6.4. Receiver

The second person or persons in any communication process is called the receiver. A person may be at the receiving end. As compared to the sender's role the receiver's role is also very crucial in the communication process. The receiver has also three roles to play:

a) To receive the message.

b) To decode the message.

We mean by decoding the process of obtaining a message from a code then interpreting it. As mentioned above, both the sender and the receiver should have an agreement about the code (for example: language) used in communication.

c) To reply to the message through feedback.

The kinds of receivers are very diverse such as audiences watching movies, persons listening to music, students attending a lecture or a computer getting an e-mail from a remote server. The communication process may fail or remain faulty if the message is rejected or misinterpreted by the receiver.

1.6.5. Feedback

We mean by feedback the information or message which is fed back to the source. Examples of feedback may include the clapping for a singer. Questions asked by students in a classroom for more information is another example for feedback.

Sometimes the feedback may start from the sources' own message, and we call this type self feedback. An example of self feedback is when we talk to somebody; we can both hear

ourselves and evaluate our tone or pitch. Thus, we may modify our tone, pitch or text by sharpening or softening them depending on our own feedback.

The second type of feedback is the one which is generated from the receiver. Examples of this type of feedback may take the form of answers, questions, applauses, puzzled look etc.

When waiting for a feedback, we may get a negative or positive, immediate or delayed feedback.

We get a negative feedback when the receiver shows the sender that his/her message was not well received is. Examples of negative feedback may be looks of indifference, rejection or boredom may.

When the sender receives favourable responses like acceptance, applauses, we can say that he/she gets a positive feedback. We call the feedback which takes place at the time of the communication itself or just after an immediate feedback. An example of immediate feedback is the applause a singer gets during the performance. The last type of feedback the sender receives relatively much after the communication is called delayed feedback. Examples of delayed feedback are letters to the editor.

1.6.6. Noise

We call noise or communication barrier anything that distorts the message. It can happen at any of the elements of communication such as sender, message, channel, context, and receiver.

We notice that there is noise when the message sent differs from the one received. Noise is very essential in any communication; however its consequences can be decreased using diverse techniques such as good grammar, clear voice, simple language, quality signal etc.

Specialists divide noise into different types depending on the nature and reasons of the distortion. The four types of noise are:

a) **Psychological noise:** This type refers to any communication error due to the psychological reasons. An example of psychological noise is a fearful audience which can’t enjoy the musical programme.

b) **Semantic noise:** The second type is related to language problems in communication. Examples of semantic noise can be poor grammar, complex sentence structure, and rare vocabulary etc.

c) **Contextual noise:** This type of noise occurs when time or place in which communication takes place are in appropriate; therefore the message is not well delivered. The best example is when someone wants to wish compliments during a funeral function, or an outdoor meeting at noon in a hot summer.

d) **Channel noise:** The last type of noise is the one related to medium communication barrier. An example of channel noise is poor signal affecting picture clarity of television.

1.6.7. Context

It is very important that every communication takes place in a context. The latter is sometimes recognizable and at other times not. There are many factors such as time, place, culture, physical and social condition and psychology of the participants that play an important role in determining communication outcome. In trying to interpret a message out of its context, we may have a completely different meaning which may result in communicationerror.Two factors which play an important role in communication context are rules and roles.

Rules: They represent the norms we must adhere to while communicating in different situations. The best example is our communication behaviour in various situations such as when we are in the classroom, market or prayer hall, depending on the rules each situation dictates on us.

Roles: They stand for the persons or part each participant in communication has to perform. An example for roles is in family communication situation, father plays a leader's role. In classroom, students play the receiver's role.

1.6.8. Effect

Effect is the most desired consequence by our communication. The sender's intention is to make some effect on the receiver's answer. No communication act is without effect on the person/s. Every effect may be either positive or negative. We can say that communication is

successful when we accomplish the intended effect. There are three types of Communication effects:

a) **Cognitive effects:** They represent the consequences which happen in the receiver's mind because of communication. An exampleisknowledge acquisition.
b) **Affective effects:** They are the outcomes which occur in the feelings of the persons due to communication. Examples are compassion, love etc.
c) **Behavioural effects:** They stand for the changes in the receiver's conduct or actions due to communication. Example: during political campaign and change that happens in the voters'behaviour or the effects of advertisements that influence the customers' purchasing habits.

Graphical representations of communication process are also called communication models. Here we mention them but without going deep in their explanation.

Aristotle's Conception of Communication, Lasswell Model of Communication, Osgood and Shramm Model, David Berlo's Model of Communication, Shannon and Weaver Model of Communication, Dance's Helical Model of Communication.

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Lecture 11: Mass Communication

1.7. Defining Mass Media

According to Wilbur Schramm 'a mass medium is essentially a working group organized around some device for circulating the same message, at about the same time, to a large number of people'.[12]

We understand from this definition that behind each mass medium there is a well-structured system. An example of this organized process is the production of a newspaper that is made everyday with the collaboration of a lot of people using different information sources ranging from local reporters to international news agencies. The same thing happens forthe distribution of the newspaper in which every person from the circulation manager to the local newspaper boy is actively involved in smooth circulation of each copy of a newspaper. In addition, every county has its own policy, laws, and telecommunication systems to facilitate mass media.

As a result, the messages are distributed to a large number of people around the world i.e. *Mass.* We call them also the audience. Without a sufficient number of audiences no media can survive.

Wilbur's definition talks about devices of circulating messages. The latter represent all the technological facilities through which messages are communicated to the audience. Devices include printed documents, television, radio, DVD, cassettes, the internet etc.

1.8. Components of Mass Communication

In order to get a better understanding of the nature of mass communication, we have to analyze its two basic components: the mass and the communication media.

1.8.1. The Mass

First, specialists define the concept "*mass*'' in mass communication as a large, heterogeneous, assorted, anonymous audience.[11]

'Large' means that we do not have an exactly idea about the number of the members of audience and we can not count them. It is rather large but it does not mean that the audience comprises all people.

'Heterogeneous' this means that the audience of mass media encompasses all types of people – the rich, the poor, farmers, bureaucrats, politicians and so on.

'***Assorted***' means that the audience of mass media is not necessarily limited to a specific geographical area. They may be distributed everywhere. For example, a newspaper may have readers in every nook and corner of the world.

'Anonymous' the last component of the concept mass means that we can't specifically identify a reader of a newspaper with his certain characteristics. A reader may prefer a particular newspaper today. Tomorrow, he may modify his reading habit. Any person at any time may be a member of mass media audience.

There are channels of communication that produce and distribute news, entertainment content, visuals and other cultural products to a large number of people. Specialists classify mass media into three major groups on the basis of their physical nature.

They are:

Print Media such as newspaper, magazines and periodicals, books.

Electronic like radio, cinema, television, video and audio records.

Digital Media like CD ROMs, DVDs and the Internet facilities.

1.8.2. The Media

Nowadays people are affected to a great extent by mass media more than any other cultural institution. They represent the main sources of news and entertainment for people. They define their buying decision, votingbehaviour, academic accomplishment and so on.

Due to this all-encompassing influence of mass media, politicians, businessmen and government agencies depend on them to manipulate people. First during election time, a lot of politicians invest huge sums of money for political campaign through mass media. For business firms, the same process is followed as in politics since they also spend billions of dollars to sell their products with the help of mass media advertisements. As audience, we get knowledge about the policies of our governments via newspapers and electronic media. Similarly, people also utilise mass media to express our needs, complaints and wishes to the authorities. All in all, we can not escape from the influence of mass media because they are omnipresent in our life.

1.9. Mass Communication Process

According to the above mentioned definition, we notice that mass communication is a complex system made up of senders such as (the authors, reporters, producers or agencies) who transmit messages like (the book content, the news reports, texts, visuals, images, sounds or advertisements) through mass media channels such as (books, newspapers, films, magazines, radio, television or the Internet) to a large group of receivers which include (readers, viewers, citizens or consumers) after the filtering of gatekeepers such as (editors, producers or media managers) with some chance for feedback which may be (letters to editors, phone calls to news reporters, web-site postings or as audience members of talk shows or television discussions). The result of this procedure is the formation of public opinion, acceptance of a particular cultural value, setting the agenda for the society and the like.

1.10. Types of Mass Communication

Specialists classify mass media according to their physical form, technology involved, nature of the communication process etc. Below we study the major categories of mass media.

1.10.1. Print Media

The first type of mass media is print media which flourished thanks to Johannes Gutenberg's invention of the moveable metallic type in the fifteenth century. The use of moveable types initiated the method for mass production of texts. Books were expensive materials affordable only for the aristocrats and royal families, before the invention of the printing press. The introduction of printing decreased the price of books and made them

available for all people. The duplication of thousands of copies of handy texts led to the innovation of modern newspapers.

Specialists classify print Media into three basic categories; they are:

a) Newspapers
b) Magazines
c) books

1.10.1.1. Newspapers

The first type of print media is newspapers. The latter are periodically published documents which aim to bring recent information about the society. In the old days, newspapers were not published everyday as they are now. Their publication was weekly or bi-weekly. The reason behind this was the absence of enough technology and newsgathering system. The beginning of the19thcentury witnessed the invention of power press which led to fast printing. The invention of the telegraph and the teleprinter has helped newspapers' makers by gathering news from remote places. The latter facilitated the introduction of daily newspapers.

The principal mass medium from which people receive news are newspapers. Researches have shown that newspapers arrive to more people than any other medium can do. Their industry overpowers all other media, first in the advertising income and in the number of audience.

By contrast to other mass media, newspapers have a great influence on people in many significant ways. A newspaper article is valued more than television or radio programmes. And, newspaper content is considered more viable and accurate. Another important feature of newspapers is their capacity to be used for future reference and that makes them people's favorable medium. Diversity of content is another feature of this medium. We can find a rich mixture of news, features, articles, columns, cartoons, graphics, editorial, TV programmes etc. As a result, readers are free to select what they want from the entire content. As is the case for some who people prefer sports page and they read it first while others look for political news and some other for stock market. Selectivity and content diversity make newspapers a real mass medium.

Newspapers are considered as part of the culture of any society and their social system. People have a great esteem about newspapers and talk about them affectionately because they give them information, education, entertainment, moreover ways for socialization and legitimisation of new values. In a democratic society, the Press is the Fourth Estate. At primary level, the Press means newspapers.

Compared to the rest of print media, newspapers are the most read one. Research results show that 3 out of every 4literates read newspapers. For advertisers, a newspaper is a medium of choice because it captivates the attraction of active readers (active audience) compared to any other media.

Today newspapers are confronted to many challenges from electronic media and new media. Newspapers are printed products made on a regular basis (daily or weekly) and published in multiple copies, carrying principally updated information about happenings in the world.

1.10.1.1.1. Features of Newspapers

First of all newspapers are print media although digital age has given birth to new types of newspapers such as online newspapers and e-newspapers. This is why it has all the features that any print medium has. Major features of mass media are givenbelow:

a) **Predominance of news-oriented content**: Content is divided into three types in newspapers they are: news, views and advertisements. Among them news dominates the rest since newspapers are principally intended for the distribution of news.
b) **Regular periodicity:** In general newspapers are published daily or weekly. Periodicity may vary, but regularity should be kept. Every newspaper keeps a particular regularity in publication.
c) **Future reference facility:** Newspapers can be kept for future use because we can preserve them for a long time. This archiving ability makes newspapers one of the main sources of historical research.
d) **Choice of the time of use**: Contrary to television and radio, people have the possibility to read newspapers at any time. While some people read in the morning others read in the evening after work. As a result, the popularity of newspapersincreases.

e) **The Literates' medium**: Another feature of newspapers is that they need literacy from the part of the audience which is not the case for television and radio.
f) **Low cost**: Newspaper is a very cheap medium. Any person can buy a newspaper as it needs no hidden charges or other accessories. Unlike electronic media which demands power supply and the new media need digital technology.
g) **Multiple Users**: A copy of newspaper can be read by many people simultaneously or separately.
h) **Textual Medium**: Text is the soul of newspapers, though they carry images and graphics.

1.10.1.2. Magazines and Periodicals

Contrary to newspapers, magazines are periodical publications carrying non-news items. At the beginning of their appearance, magazines were as expensive as books. Consequently, they were affordable only to the wealthy people. Invention of power press led to the exponential growth of magazines across the world. The majority of the first magazines were initiated by newspaper organizations. Magazines are considered as mass medium that spread culture and nationalism.

The word magazine comes from the French language which means storehouse. In journalistic terms, a magazine is a gathering of materials like stories, ads, poems, and other items that editors think will be of interest to audiences. The first full-fledged magazine in English called *Spectator* was published by Joseph Addison in 1711.

In the United Kingdom, regular publication of magazines started in the eighteenth century as a result of enhanced freedom allowed by the Parliament, for public discussion and arguments about government. The first magazines concentrated on literary and political affairs. Most of the famous writers of the day participated in the magazines.

During the initial period, magazine reading remained limited to the elite since most people were illiterates and magazines were costlier. After England, the culture of magazine publishing and reading spread to the British colonies over the world. Specialists do not

consider earlier magazines as mass media because they were limited only a small section of the society.

1.10.1.2.1. Features of Magazines

Here is a list of some of the important features of magazines.

Contrary to newspapers which are published daily, magazines are not. Periodicity for magazines is longer than that of normal newspapers. They are published weekly, biweekly or monthly.

Magazines are produced as bound volumes, unlike loose sheets of newspapers.

The main purposes of magazines are light reading and entertainment, rather than serious reading for information gathering as in the case of newspapers and books.

Content in magazines is very diverse extend from poems to comics and cartoons to photo feature.

Magazines are made to deal with areas such as culture, politics, current affairs, health, wealth, women's and children's life.

Unlike newspapers which are printed using cheap newsprints because they are used for one day, magazines are printed in high quality papers since they are meant to be used for a longer period.

Magazines do not have different editions as in the case of newspapers. They have only one print cycle, except for some international news and financial magazines like News Week, Time, Forbes, and Fortune which publish various regional editions for Asia and Africa.

Magazines contain a lot of analysis and criticism as the publishers get more time for preparation.

The last feature of magazines is the easiness of preservation rather than newspapers.

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Lecture 12: types of mass media

1.10.1.3. Books

Unlike newspapers and magazines, books are tied pages of printed messages of an important length, most of the time on one topic. Because books are meant for circulation, they are made using durable materials and in a portable form. The *Papyrus (*from which the word *paper* is derived*)* rolls of the Chinese are considered as ancestors of modern books.

Both China and in Babylonia knew the notion of books around 3000 B.C. The Chinese used papyrus rolls made of bamboo strips, whereas the Babylonians used clay tablets. However in Rome, books were made from animal skins. With the introduction of paper production, the book manufacture advanced a lot. Because of the absence of an easy printing method, its mass production was blocked. So, earlier books were handwritten and they were called manuscripts.

The first people who invented a method for printing were the Chinese using wooden blocks around 400 A.D. But, it was not sufficiently developed to print books. With the invention of moveable metallic types by Johannes Guttenberg printing revolutionized, thereby book production.

Books were expensive and large in size, before the invention of moveable metallic types.

They were affordable only to the wealthy, aristocratic people like political and religious leaders and businessmen. Guttenberg's invention transformed the situation. Consequently, printers could reduce the price and books were made available to more people. The Bible was the first book published using the metallic moveable types.

1.10.1.3.1. Features of Books

Features of books are the following:

The first feature of books is that they are portable and compact, and thus have an advantage over other media forms.

Contrary to other print media, books most of the time treat only a single subject. As a consequence, people can read a book piece by piece for days or weeks with convenient intervals, without losing concentration.

Unlike newspapers and magazines which become old very quickly because of their time limitations, books stay afresh as they deal with subjects significant for a longer period.

Books can be stored for longer period in public or private libraries, which is not the case for magazines and newspapers.

Books have an organized content which is intended to help readers access to the interested parts easily.

Books also contain an index which gives readers some sort of navigation from one subject to the other.

Books are meant to be used for future reference.

Before their publication, books pass through a qualified verification and research. As a result, their content is more authentic than that of newspapers and magazines.

The last feature of books is related to language level since it is an audience specific and subject specific, while newspaper or magazine language is general in nature.

1.10.2. Electronic (Broadcast) Media

The second type of mass media is electronic media; their history began when Marconi invented radio. After that, electronic communication media history saw the invention of cinema. Following cinema, television broadcasting was introduced in the US on an experimental basis during 1920s. However, the dramatic impact of television as a mass

medium started in 1950s. At the same time, recording industry was rapidly growing in the western countries. The term electronic media refers mainly to:

· Radio

· Movies

· Television

1.10.2.1. Radio

In 1842, Samuel Morse invented the telegraph which urged scientists to discover ways to transmit messages over air. In 1895, Italian inventor Guglielmo Marconi succeeded in the effort.

In order to develop that mechanism, he began the Marconi Company in England and started commercial production of radio transmitters for military purpose. After Marconi, Reginald Fessenden[13]made his device more sophisticated by transmitting sound over radio transmitters, rather than textual signals.

In the 1920s, the first radio stations were installed in Pittsburg, New York and Chicago. Following the USA, the European countries also created radio stations for broadcasting news and entertainment content. In the early years of 20thcentury, the colonial powers such as Briton and France set radio stations in Asian and African countries.

Nowadays, the Radio is present everywhere as its signals reach every nook and cranny. It is a wonder to hear that there are 6.6 radio receivers on average in the American homes.

John Vivian, describing the ubiquity of radio, says: “People wake up with clock radios, jog with headset radios, and party with boom boxes and commute with car radios. People listen to sports events on the radio even if they are in the stadium.” According to Arbitron, a company that surveys radio listenership, more people receive their morning news from radio than from any other medium.

1.10.2.1.1. Features of Radio as a Mass Medium

By contrast to other mass media, radio possesses a lot of advantages; they are technical and message wise so as to reach the maximum number of people.

a) Radio is a cost effective medium

Unlike the old days when radio sets were not affordable for common people, today they are not a luxury at all. With the development of technology radio production and transmission became less expensive than it used to be. Contrary to other media, the production format is a sound which can be produced at a minimum rate.

b) Radio is a Public Medium

An unlimited number of people can access radio simultaneously without much technical equipment. Any body can listen to radio transmission as it functions as a background medium.

c) Radio is accessible for the Illiterates

Since literacy is not obligatory for listening to the radio, it becomes a popular medium in the developing and under developing countries because of this characteristic. A great majority of the population in those countries is illiterate which pushes them to have an unusual attraction towards radio as they consider it as a way to overcome their deficiency of illiteracy through radio programmes.

d) Radio is a Mobile Medium

People have the possibility to listen to radio wherever they are. As Vivian explained earlier, we can listen to radio while driving car, jogging, walking or doing any job

e) Radio is a background Medium

What we mean by background medium is that we can listen to radio while doing other jobs. At home housewives listen to radio while preparing food. Given this feature, radio has been now available with home appliances like refrigerator, washing machine etc.

f) Radio is an Audio Medium

Because it is an audio medium, radio is attainable to the visually challenged also.

g) Radio needslessEnergy

Because radio consumes very less energy, it is considered as an environment friendly medium. Radio enjoys a great popularity in distant villages without electricity, as there is not need for power supply for operation radio sets.

h) Radio is a Speedy Medium

Since it requires less time for the preparation and the transmission of news, radio is the fastest medium. Instant live broadcasting with less equipment is possible in radio section. These characteristics broaden the sphere of radio as a mass medium.

1.10.2.2. Film

Film is an audio visual medium. It was considered as the most popular medium in the last century. The Lumiere brothers Lois and Auguste were the first who invented the cinema. However, their invention of the moving picture technique was just an extension of photography. Their equipment called 'cinematographe' was a compact, portable machine with an inbuilt camera and projector. They demonstrated actualities in life like arrival of a train, workers leaving a factory and such real events with their equipment.

The motion picture technology was introduced by Georges Melies of France who usedit to tell stories and to show magical events, fantasies and dream like 'events' using elaborated sets and editing techniques. Thanks to the efforts done by Melies cinema became a mass medium. His film *Voyage to the Moon* produced in 1902 was famous for its novelty in treatment.

1.10.2.2.1. Cinema as a Mass Medium

Research results show that the film influences the society more than any other medium. Its effect is easily visible in the popular culture. All the fashion and life styles of the masses are defined by the films. Unlike news media which provide people with information, films entertain them. Because of this feature of the medium, film is called a cultural medium.

Film is not only considered as a mass medium but also as an industry since it deals with billions of dollars everyday. Film industry necessitates a lot of extravagant technology and huge financial transactions. In addition, films were and are still used as political tools, especially for propaganda. The best example is Adolph Hitler's propaganda films during the world war. Today, the cinema is regarded more business than a political tool. Because of the phenomenon of globalization, films cross borders and operate as transmitters of culture and method of financial flow.

1.10.2.3. Television

When we define television broadcasting, we can say that it is the transmission of visual images accompanied with sound, in the form of electromagnetic waves that can be reconverted into visual images when they are received. On January 23rd, 1926, the world's first public demonstration of a mechanical television apparatus was given by John Logie Baird[14]of Scotland to the members of the Royal Institution at his laboratory. On April 7, 1927 Bell Telephone Labs gave a USA public mechanical television demonstration over both wire and radio circuits. At that time pictures and sound were sent by wire from Washington D.C., to New York City. But, it took further eight years for the beginning of practically feasible television broadcasting.

Between 1935 and 1938, the world's first regular television service was operated by the Nazi government under Adolph Hitler in Germany, with propaganda broadcasts to specially equipped theatres. In 1946, just after the end of World War II, commercial television started in the United States. In the same year, Peter Goldmarkinitiatedcolour television system. His system produced colour pictures by having a red-blue-green wheel spin in front of a cathode ray tube. In 1948, Cable television was introduced in Pennsylvania as a means of bringing television to rural areas. Cable television is the process of sending TV signals to subscribers through wires or fiber optic cables. In 1950s, television gained widespread acceptance in the United States and in some European countries.

The development of satellite television in the 1970s allowed for more channels and encouraged businessmen to target programming toward specific audiences.

Until now, television continues to be one of the most popular inventions of the last century. Everyday people spend long hours watching television. It is a reality that we cannot imagine a day without television consumption. Our imagination of the world is formed with television.

1.10.2.3.1. Features of Television as a Mass Medium

a) Audio Visual Medium

While radio is an audio medium television is audio visual, which means that it carries moving pictures and sound at the time.

b) Live Medium

Because of its numerous magical features, television allows people to see the events any where in the world live while sitting at home.

c) Domestic Medium

Most of us watch television in home environment because this medium is fabricated to be so. So, itiscalled a domestic medium.

d) Popular Medium

While newspaper reading requires literacy, it can not be a barrier in watching television. Any person either literate or illiterate can get information and entertainment from television. In that sense, it is really a popular medium that can be used by any type of people.

e) Transitory Medium

People can read today's newspaper in the morning or in the evening. However, television programmes are to be watched while they are sent. Television has not archival facility. So, it is called as a transitory medium. Radio has also the samecharacteristics.

f) Expensive Medium

In the real sense of the term, television is an expensive medium. Television set is costlier than a radio set or newspaper.

Constructing a television station needs a lot of money. Transmission facilities and programme production also require a lot of money.

g) Air waveDelivery

By contrast to newspapers which are distributed door to door, television messages are transferred via air waves. So, itdoes not have complicated distribution system.

h) Good for Documentary Information

Television can be used for information dissemination, like any other medium. With its audio-visual capacity, television is more apt for supplying documentary information as we can detail functions, process and other details in a 'live' mode.

1.10.3. New Media

We mean by new media all the online and digital means of producing, transmitting and receiving messages. The term new media comprises computer mediated communication technology. It includes the use of desktop and portable computers as well as wireless and handheld devices. In the computer industry every company is involved with new media in some manner. In the digital world the forms of communicating include:

· CD-ROMs

· DVDs

· Internet facilities like World Wide Web, bulleting boarding, email etc.

We can define new media as interactive forms of communication that use the Internet, including podcasts, blogs, social networks, text messaging, wikis, virtual worlds and all other computer aided communication formats available online. With new media it is possible for anyone to create, modify, and share content and share it with others, using relatively simple tools that are often free or inexpensive. All what is needed with new media is a computer or mobile device with Internet access. People use new media tools in order to do a lot of things such as:

• Connect people with information and services.

• Collaborate with other people—including those within their organization or community.

• Create new content, services, communities, and channels of communication that help people deliver information and services.

• Hypertextuality: Through hyperlinks new media can link one format of information with other formats and sources of information.

• Interactivity: With new media people can have human-machine communication system.

• Multimediality: Contrary to traditional media, new media can hold various types of media format on one platform. We can watch television and listen to radio, and read newspapers on a webpage.

• Cost effective: Unlike other media, webpage production is cost effective and environment friendly.

• Extended Access: We can get access to the web or new media sources wherever we are.

1.10.3.1. Features of New Media

When we compare new media to the traditional media like newspapers, television and radio, we notice that they have the following advantages:

• Though they are limited with screen size, downloading time, server capacity, new media have the capacity to overcome the lack of time and space.

• Flexibility: New media can handle a variety of forms for the information it presents – words, pictures, audio, video, and graphics.

• Immediacy: With new media information can be delivered immediately, often as events are unfolding.

• Immediacy is a variety: New media can cover different aspects of news at the same time.

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Lecture 13: Functions of Mass Media

1.11. Functions of Mass Media

As we have mentioned above, mass media have great effects on our personal and social life. The role and scope of mass media in our society can be found in the following areas:

a) Information
b) Education
c) Entertainment
d) Persuasion

1.11.1. Information Function

The first function of mass media is that they deliver a lot of information which are important for our daily life. From mass media people can have information about exam results, weather forecasts, current affairs, traffic regulations, last dates, precautions, government policies etc. The essence of media's information function is done by the media content called news. The place or time dedicated for news in a mass media is called news hole. The most consumed item of any media is news. The latter are presented as reports on different domains that people want or need to know in which they must include accuracy, objectivity and completeness. Biased or incomplete reports will keep the audience away from the media.

Advertising is also mass media's information function. We get much useful information from classified advertisements.

1.11.2. Education function

Unlike information which is meant to give news. Education is systematically organized information with predefined purposes. The principal source of education in every society is

schools or colleges. Researchers confirm that media canfulfil the functions that educational institutions do. Mass media are life-long educators for the whole society. They provide us extensive knowledge of chosen topics. Non-news content or news-based content like editorials, articles, columns in newspapers provide people with complete idea of a subject. Health Magazines and other kinds of magazines represent examples for education through media. Furthermore, there are various television channels devoted for mass education.

1.11.3. Entertainment function

In spite of their different types, mass media are remarkable entertainers. All of them have entertainment content. We can see that newspapers publish cartoons, comics, puzzles, special weekend supplements in order to amuse people. Lion share of magazine content such as short stories, novels, satires and cartoons are for entertainment. Movies represent another big stock for entertainment. If we turn to audio-Visual media such as television and radio we notice that they are also primarily concentrating on entertainment function through their programmes based on sports, film, and fashion shows etc.

1.11.4. Persuasion

We mean by persuasion influencing people's attitudes or opinions. All mass media have their ways to persuade people. Most people form their opinions from information they get from the media. The latter use both direct and indirect methods for persuasion. So as to form public opinion, mass media use many techniques such as editorials, news analysis and commentaries. In these cases, the aim is clear and direct. The clearest method of persuasion is advertising. Advertisements are direct methods to influence the purchasing behaviour of the public. Some media publish events hiding their vested interests in news. Such biased, subjective reports are meant for persuading people to form favourable attitudes towards them or their interests. Opinionated news is an undirected method of persuasion. It's against the ethics of responsible journalism. News and opinion should be given separately.

1.12. Nature of Mass Communication

In studying the different models of communication, we can easily identify the following features of mass communication.

1. All mass communication experience is a public one. It means that anybody can be a part of this communication process at any time without much effort or permission.

2. It is a mediated communication act. The nature of the media implicated in the process defines the mediation in mass communication. For instance, television can transmit news instantly since it is a fast medium; however, newspaper takes time to bring the same news report to the public because of its limitations. This is how the nature of the media defines the mediation process in mass communication.

3. Mass communication is filtered communication. The process of filtering is called gate keeping. For instance, a news report in a newspaper or on a television channel is filtered or controlled at different level by the reporter, sub editor, news editor, and editor.

4. Mass communication is the most complicated form of communication because it utilizes complex technology like satellites digital networks, management structure, marketing chain.

5. Mass communication has the power to change the way the society thinks about events and attitudes.

6. Mass communication experience is fleeting. This means that once you used a message (for instance, a news report or a film) you may not use it again. The message is meant to be used once and it is gone.

7. Mass communication remains most often as one-way communication. As receivers, how many of us write letters to the editor (sender). However, in interpersonal communication, senders and receivers are in active conversation sending feedback to each other.

8. Contrary to other communicators, mass communicators cannot see their audience. The reason why they cannot change their style of presentation or mode of communication instantly as people do in interpersonal or group communication.

1.13. The Importance of the Mass Media

This section highlights the importance of mass media in the society, their informant role in the context of urban planning, their duty as a platform of discussion and their significance as evaluators of government performance on urban issues. Mc Quail (2010) says that in spite of the changes that are happening in the information technology, mass media are still very

vital to the society. This section by discussing their importance indirectly legitimizes the usage of media discourse for the purpose of understanding public discourse.

Kovach and Rosenstiel (2007) say that while the main objective of journalism is to give information so that people can become sovereign, it also helps supervise the powerful and give voice to the unrepresented. According to them, throughout history, awareness of what is happening around them allowed people to be in control of their own lives and gave them a sense of safety. As a consequence, they state that the importance of journalism, which their authors say is essentially a continuation of people's conversation, is determined by the significance news has in people's lives. Other authors have a different opinion of the media. Conboy (2008) says:

"one of the comfortable myths associated with journalism is that it has, as a form of public writing, enabled an informed citizenship to emerge from the shackles of authoritarian modes of communication control" (P. 254). He presents Boyce's (1978) argument: "Boyce argues that journalism would understand itself and its place in society better if it was more candid about the nature of its integration within power structures" (P. 255).

With respect to what the media do for the public, George Gallup said, "The newspapers and radio conduct the debate on national issues, presenting information and argument on both sides, just as the townsfolk did in person at the old town meeting" (quoted in Bengston& Fan, 1999, p. 518). Iyenegar and Kinder (2010) argue that Americans form opinion about a variety of things without having a firsthand experience by relying on the information and analysis provided by the mass media.

According to Kovach and Rosenstiel (2007), the mainstream media are not the only source of information in the 21st century. People have the possibility to learn about things from social and new media. The authors say what separates the mass media is their ability to provide verified information; something the public may not have the time, money, or skill to deliver. The media are also said to represent a fuller picture of what is happening.

Jones (1975, 360) scrutinizes the role of the mass media in urban policy and describes it as the "rough-and-readily-available measurer and evaluator" of the conditions of the metropolis and policy outcomes. According to him, the media inform the public about what is happening in the metropolitan area and about the government's efforts and policies to

improve conditions. He also explains that public officials may learn things from social indicator reports but the public does through the media. Jones (1975) argues that if evaluations of the government's performance remain in privileged environments such as universities or government institutions, they will become a secret; "If the masses are to know (and thereby hopefully improve the intelligence of democracy), then the mass media must tell them".

The media also indirectly inform the public on important issues. Johnson and Graves (2011) observed that some reality TV shows unintentionally address urban planning issues; for example *Amazing Race* about public transportation, *Wife Swap* about suburban versus urban life. In fact, Johnson and Graves (2011) state that the use of television has positive results in creating interest in planning issues and engaging citizens.

Filion (1999) credits newspaper articles as comprehensive and better chroniclers of planning history than planning documents and statistical data: He says that newspapers discuss issues ranging from proposals to urban development to planning process and outcomes. Bengston and Fan (1999) credit the media for their role as a setting of debates and discussion for their case study and observed discussion happened in the form of editorials, letters to the editors, and summaries of the debates happening elsewhere. They also comment that the discussion reflected public opinion.

1.14. The Influence of Mass Media on Opinion

Many authors agree on the influence of media even though their views on how it influences may vary. Talbot (2007, 3) says, "Very few of us, if any, are unaffected by media discourse. The importance of the media in the modern world is incontrovertible". Fan (1988) claims that information has the power to influence public opinion and if the information comes mainly from the press, that makes the press a major effect on perceptions. He argues that government censorship on press proves the media's importance on public opinion.

Iyengar and Kinder (2010) claim that the media mould public opinion. Furthermore, Jones (1975) says that it is usually believed that media coverage influences upper level government officials even though he admits that it is not a tested theory. Both authors (Fan, 1988; Jones, 1975) say media's effect is cumulative and occurs over a long-term; i.e. each news story may not influence opinion over short-term.

In their case study research, Bengston and Fan (1999) emphasized a slightly different nature of the media, they said that the media mirrored public opinion just like opinion polls and surveys with the magnitude of coverage reflecting what was happening in the social realm. Cohen (1963) says, "The press is significantly more than a purveyor of information and opinion. It may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its reader what to think about" (1963, P.13, Quoted in Iyengar& Kinder, 2010, P.2).

McQuail (2010) offers an opinion that addresses the various views above:

> While by now, there is much more knowledge and also scepticism about the direct 'power' of mass communication, there is no less reliance on mass media in the spheres of advertising, public relations and political campaigning. Politics is routinely conducted (and also reported) on the assumption that skilful media presentation is absolutely vital to success in all normal circumstances. (P.53)

Iyengar and Kinder (2010) say that there is research to support that mass media only "strengthen or reinforce the public's existing beliefs and opinions". However, they think that the above opinion is mistaken. In their opinion, TV news shapes American opinion. They claim that the Americans form opinion about a variety of things without having a firsthand experience by relying on the information and analysis provided by the mass media. For that reason, they say the media set the agenda as there is a tendency for people to take the stories that receive the major coverage as the most important one. Therefore, the authors state that this gives the media their power to shape public opinion. Following the same line of thought, Van Dijk (1988b) says that the media's influence is beyond setting the agenda.

Being the central purveyors of public discourse, the news media provide more than the agenda of public topics and discussions. The influence of the media is, therefore, more indirect and more structural. News reports do not necessarily prescribe the concrete opinions of readers. Rather they are the main form of public discourse that provides the general outline of social, political, cultural, and economic models of societal events, as well as the pervasively dominant knowledge and attitude structures that make such models intelligible.

1.15. Limitations of the Media

Despite of the fact that the primary research doesn't deal with the reasons for the limitations in media discourse, it was decided to include this in the literature review to give a context to media practices that affect discourse.

The media are accused of unethical conduct such as partisanship and propaganda. According to Anderson (1997, 50), "one of the most common charges is that news possesses a "political bias". Both right-wing and left-wing politicians accuse the news media of political partisanship". In fact, Hauptman (2011) says that the public does not have a lot of respect for journalists. According to the literature, some of the criticized practices of the media are deliberate while others are inadvertent. Fairclough (1998,36) explains, "[A]n account of communication in the mass media must consider the economics and politics of the mass media: the nature of the market which the mass media are operating within, and their relationship to the state, and so forth". This section examines some of the realities of media practices that cause the limitations, intentional or otherwise, as discussed in the literature.

One of the media practices discussed that result in imperfections in media discourse is decision of what is newsworthy. Fairclough (1998,4) says, "In any representation, you have to decide what to include and what to exclude, and what to 'foreground' and what to 'background'". There are others like Donsbach (2004, 145) who say that decision is influenced by the audience, "Some of this influence is picked up by the institutional objectives to cater for audience taste …. But journalists have their own conceptions of the audience and its taste". Similarly, Kovach and Rosenstiel (2007) say that it is journalists who make the decision what story to run and how to frame it by speculating what interests the public. That has significant consequence according to Iyengar and Kinder (2010,63), "By calling attention to some matters while ignoring others, television news influences the standards by which governments, presidents, policies, and candidate for public office are judged". Iyengar and Kinder (2010, 4) say, "Our studies show specifically that television news powerfully influences which problems viewers regard as the nation's most serious".

Hauptman (2011) talks about the implication of time constraints on media message since most newspapers are daily. He says that immediacy results in limitations: less editing and fact checking compared to books and academic journals and limited time to do a thorough research on a story, makes the media unable to find out every side of the story and reach out

its different participants. Edey et al. (2006) also imply that what seems to be the media's favouring of a certain group may be because journalists are limited by their tight deadlines to explore more.

According to Richardson (2007, 7), journalism is a business. However, he says that this fact only needs to be "the starting point of analysis". Mc Quail (2010, 217) says, "Although the media have grown up in response to the social and cultural needs of individuals and societies, they are largely run as business enterprises". Similarly, Fairclough (1995) says, "The press and commercial broadcasting are pre-eminently profit making organizations, they make their profits by selling audiences to advertisers, and they do this by achieving the highest possible readerships or listener/viewer ratings for the lowest possible financial outlay". Even though the research doesn't explore these issues in the case study, it is important to give this as a background to understand media practices.

1.16. Communication in the Mass Media

Nowadays mass media are part of today's culture in most societies. Print and electronic media represent two distinct media channels of communication. We can mention newspapers and magazines as examples of print media or the press which uses written language and printing production technologies whereas radio and television are the dominating electronic broadcasting media types using spoken language (Fairclough, 1995: 38). Recently, with the development of technology, the internet and other forms of social media are gaining great popularity among people. According to Johnson &Ensslin (2007: 11), in addition to the common classical channels of media, such as newspapers/magazines, radio, cinema, television, and the new electronic media, the term "media" points to any tools and techniques to perform precise signifying practices, which can be explicit or implicit. Spoken and written discourses are also different.

According to Chouliaraki&Fairclough (1999: 43), writing is a specialization of spoken discourse, and written discourse can be kept as a permanent record immediately. Special skills for writing are needed; therefore writing is a mediated discourse as it increases time-space distantiation.

Fairclough (1995: 36) claims that mass media's communicative event is also different from face-to-face communication, since the time and place of media texts' production is not the

same as the time and place of consumption by audience. Because media communicative events involve mass audiences, there is no simultaneous feedback from audiences which give rise to the questions of media producers' manipulation, cultural domination, imperialism and ideology (Fairclough, 1995: 40).

Thornborrow (2002: 50) says that the media have different purposes as they are means to gain information, to provide entertainment and to offer education. Accordingly, the mass media have a powerful force through their multiple accesses to societies as they are capable of producing and circulating social meanings which can be selected or controlled by the media (Thornborrow, 2002: 51). The media have various functions which encompass "public agencies of observation, interpretation, performance, representation and dissemination", therefore, a mix of conative, emotive and conceptual meanings are used by media producers to reach to the target audience (Johnson &Ensslin, 2007: 13).

1.17. Language and the Media

There are many reasons which motivate researchers to study media language. Bell (1991:1) claims that media language is a huge production which can reach mass audiences, and because of that, "media are dominating presenters of language" in today's lives. Bell (1991: 3) also presents a list of reasons to study media language. The first reason he gives is that language has various uses in the media; the second reason is because of the ability of media generating language to be heard by many people. The next reason is because language is a tool which provides content to media language. Media language also has a unique feature of communicating with mass audiences compared to face-to-face communication. Other reasons include the availability of media language which makes it easier to collect, and the quality of radio or television recordings being similar to their original production. According to Talbot, Atkinson and Atkinson (2003: 9-10), media language is distinguishable because addressers and addressees are not physically present so their relationship is different, and may entail a one-sided communication.

Thornborrow (2002: 52-56) claims that the media can use the language to represent particular social and political group through linguistic representation, and has the power to select how people and event appear in news using various linguistic structures. Johnson &Ensslin (2007:6) links the study of language in the media with the concept of *Meta language*, which refers to then language that is used to talk about language. Meta language intersects with

language ideology and language representation in the media. One of the ways language ideologies in the media can be traced is by looking at linguistic or discursive practice which refers to what people actually do with language (Johnson &Ensslin, 2007: 10).

According to Fairclough (1995: 4), media producers employ various stylistic choices such as media genre, semiotic modes, participants, foregrounding and backgrounding, and textual discourse. Fairclough also asserts that media language is diverse, available and accessible everywhere, therefore, the language of media is significant to analyze as there is *signifying* power held by the media I which the media are able to *represent* things in certain ways (Fairclough, 1989; 1995). He also notes that knowledge, beliefs, values, social relations, and social identities are represented in the media's discursive *construction*, and *contestation.* Besides, Fairclough adds that language choice in the media is 'ideologically significant'. Media discourse also, according to him, provides an ideal audience, *subject positions,* in which a negotiation is possible to take place in the relationship between the audience and the positions offered.

Richardson (2006: 6) explores the use of critical discourse analysis in analyzing newspapers as well as the role played by newspaper discourse in indexing and (re)producing class inequality. He comes up with five fundamental assumptions of language: language is social, language use enacts identity, language use is always active, language use has power and language use is political (Richardson, 2006: 10-13). The next section looks at various discourses analytical researches involving representations of Muslims and issues with Islam in the media, followed by some studies on Muslim gender issues as represented in the media. These studies provide the background to some gender and religious issues found in Malaysian English media texts.

1.18. Media Discourse

Nowadays mass media play a very important role in this complex contemporary framework of social, economic and cultural forces; they also have a great influence on the society and its diverse fields such as markets, politics, policies, exploitation and marginalization. In addition, a large number of ideologies which are largely produced by the mass media require the production and reproduction through public text and talk.

The mass media are so omnipresent that people hear more language from them than they do from direct conversation, and they also talk a lot about what they read, see, and hear from the mass media and the internet. Writing and printing were the dominant media of communication during the last century. However, at the beginning of the 21st century, electronic media became predominant. Radio, cinema, and television influence the ways people get their news and learn about the world around them.

The applications of discourse analysis in media research are as diverse as the very fields of discourse studies and mass communication themselves. Some works are of a linguistic orientation, such as the early stylistic studies of Leech (1966) and Crystal and Davy(1969), and the later critical linguistics approach of Fowler *et al.*(1979), Fowler (1991), Kress (1985), and Chilton (1985; 1988). Most of these works, as well as recent work on social semiotics have been influenced by Halliday's systemic grammar (Halliday, 1978; 1985).

Since the domain of media is so far-reaching throughout the whole world, globally situated and influential, there is no surprise that it turns to be the theme of a great deal of intellectual scrutiny. Researchers have taken it as their subject of study in a number of academic areas such as cultural studies, media studies, critical theory, semiotics, rhetoric, film studies, and the like. The effects, roles and cultural reproductions of what is broadly labeled "media" are dissected and deconstructed.

In dealing with media discourse, we notice that it is made of two key components: the first one is the news story, or spoken or written texts, and the second one is the process by which these texts are produced. The former dimension, which refers to the text, is of great importance for most media researchers nowadays, especially because the text encompasses values and ideologies that impact on and reflect the larger world. The latter dimension, which is related to the process, including the norms and routines of the community of news practitioners, has been on the research agenda for the past several years.

Rodman (2006) claims that all types of message transmitted through a medium rather than face-to-face is mediated communication. Media incorporates three different types: firstly the 'print media' such as books, magazines, and newspaper; secondly the 'broadcast media' such as television and radio; thirdly the 'digital media' such as the Internet and computer-based; and finally the 'entertainment media' such as movies and video games. Furthermore, convergence across with between media brings mediated interpersonal messages, including

telephone text-messages, instant messages, and e-mail. The internet – the communication network known as the World Wide Web – is a prime example of a converging medium.

Media language is the only tool for the expression of a great number of media messages. The reason behind this is that it supplies the linguist with data which are in some ways less problematic than face-to-face communication, because the data are already packed as messages meant for mass public consumption. Furthermore, media message provides consistently good recording quality of spoken language, since direct-line recording off radio or television means that the recordings can be as good as the originals in quality. Finally, media language reflects the society and culture at a wider extent, as a consequence of the previously-mentioned significance of media discourse across cultured genres. Even some cultural theorists look at the media as an environment for culture.

As far as linguists are concerned, media language can provide data appropriate to questions of theoretical importance; in communication studies, media language is indispensable to understanding the messages that the media construct.

To sum up, we can say that media language is the outcome of multiple voices, and it is necessary to understand the processes by which it is modified in order to approach analysis of news text, form, and context.

1.18.1 Van Dijk's Study of News as Discourse

One of the most important works in media studies is van Dijk's*News Analysis. Case Studies of International and National News in the Press* from 1988. As a discourse analyst, van Dijk believes that 'news reports (…) constitute a particular type of discourse' (1988:1) and he wishes to examine it as a specific type of language, and also socio-cultural practice (1988:2). In the book mentioned above, van Dijk presents a study which aims to explore newspapers from the Third and the First World, and their coverage of the assassination of president-election BechirGemayel of Lebanon in 1982. One of van Dijk's goals was to show that: 'a qualitative analysis, based on a theory of news discourse structures and processing, provides a more adequate approach to the study of news than classical content analysis' (1988:31).

In his study, van Dijk chose a sample of 250 newspapers from 100 countries was narrowed down to more than 700 articles from 138 newspapers. To achieve knowledge on

how culture and language could affect the portraying of world events and news in general was evidently an important objective in van Dijk's study.

Van Dijk promotes several hypotheses, of which three are the most important. The first hypothesis: 'predicts that cultural, historical, social, political, ideological, or institutional differences between different newspapers, countries, or regions must necessarily result in differences in news discourse about a given world event' (1988:32). In the second hypothesis van Dijk promotes the complete opposite view and thereby anticipates a: 'similarity of news accounts (…). This prediction would be based on an analysis of the influence of a globally shared or imposed set of news production routines and values' (1988:32). Thirdly, van Dijk presents several intermediary hypotheses, of which the one that predicts: 'different results depending on the type of newspaper' (1988:32).

In his case study, Van Dijk's focused on multiple quantitative issues such as, for instance, frequency and size of the coverage, number of photographs, type of article, content categories and sources. In addition, a detailed qualitative description of thematic structures for instance style and rhetoric. Based on the quantitative data, van Dijk found that: 'the overall differences between the First and Third World press are only minimal', and that: 'Variation is substantial only among regions, countries, and newspapers' (1988:72). As for the qualitative analyses of thematic structures, they backed up by the quantitative results, and the overall conclusion seems to be that: 'Most differences in thematic selection, size, ordering, or development, can be explained by the type of newspaper rather than by differences between countries, regions or ideologies' (1988:91). The hypothesis which anticipated similar and standardized news accounts was thus confirmed, in addition to the one that expected differences to occur between different types of newspapers.

1.18.2. Other Relevant Studies

Many other previous studies have dealt with the language of newspapers, and especially different types of British newspapers. Here we mention a few which relate to the present in different ways, namely studies by Allan Bell, Andreas H. Jucker, Monika Bednarak, Tony Trew and Hilary Hillier. In his book entitled *The Language of News Media* in 1991, Allan Bell explored media language thoroughly. He examined the influence of the production process of news, the role of the audience and the structure of news stories. Bell's presentation showed how 'popular' and 'quality' British newspapers differ in content and visual styles as

well as in the language used. By examining the deletion of determiners in appositional naming expressions in seven British newspapers in 1980, Bell found that the presence or deletion corresponded to the social status of the newspapers' readership. He discovered that the 'quality' newspapers *The Times*, the *Guardian* and *Daily Telegraph* deleted few determiners, whereas the 'popular' ones, the *Daily Mail*, the *Express*, the *Mirror* and the *Sun*, deleted determiners to a larger extent (Bell 1991:107). The type of newspaper was thus discovered to be a determining factor which had impact on the usage of a specific linguistic trait.

Andreas H. Jucker claims that 'it is true to say that the British press not only reflects but actually exaggerates the differences in social class and education of the nation as a whole' (1992:51). In *Social Stylistics, Syntactic Variation in British Newspapers* from 1992, he explores the stratification of the noun phrase as a style marker in British newspapers, and he anticipates that the different socio-economic profiles of the newspapers will result in differences in language use. Jucker therefore correlated a linguistic feature with the non-linguistic factor of the socio-economic status of the targeted readership of the different papers. He discovered that: 'There are big differences between the broadsheet papers and the tabloid papers, and there are also considerable, albeit slightly smaller differences between the two categories of tabloids, the mid markets and the down-markets' (1992:251). As regards the results for noun phrase modification, Jucker found that: 'Some pre-modifiers are highly significant style markers whereas post-modifiers are far less stylistically salient' (1992:253).

In 2006, Monika Bednarek's study of newspaper language was published in *Evaluation in Media Discourse. Analysis of a Newspaper Corpus*. Her wish was to examine how news writers' opinions are manifested through language, and did this by identifying quantities of certain selected evaluative parameters present in the examined news texts. Specific issues Bednarek attended to include differences between broadsheet and tabloid newspapers, and whether they differ in their way of expressing opinion (2006:3). She discovered that: 'Overall the broadsheets (…) contain fewer evaluations than the tabloids' (2006:203). As for whether news writers for the tabloids evaluate more than the ones for the broadsheets, she concludes that: 'there are far fewer differences between the broadsheets and the tabloids than might be expected' (2006:216). Finally, Bednarek states that: 'much more systematic linguistic research is needed into the difference between tabloids and broadsheets' (2006:215). She thus inquiries about more large-scale comparisons that focuses on several linguistic aspects, and

mentions explicitly that this may broaden the scope of research that have only focused on limited aspects, such as Jucker's study of noun phrases (2006:215).

There were other previous studies of news discourse such as the one performed by Tony Trew, and published in *Language and Control*, a book he co-authored with Roger Fowler among others in 1991. In one of his works, Trew's contributions deals with linguistic variation and ideological differences in newspaper language, where he attempts to: 'develop more systematic ways of isolating ideology in discourse, to illustrate further aspects of the linguistic expression of the relations of newspaper and ideologies to social processes' (1979:118). Accordingly, he sees a determinate relation between ideology and language, and as Fowler, opts for a critical stand in language research. In his study, Trew examined different newspapers' coverage for the same event, with a special focus on functional choices, inspired by Halliday's approach. One of his discoveries concerned the presentation of processes and participants in British broadsheet and tabloid papers. He discovered that the *Sun* used more active participants, where, for example, the *Morning Star* tended to present the processes without participants: 'in particular those that were the occasion of the police action' (1979:148). In addition, he found that: 'the reports vary widely in the way they categorize those in conflict with the police, and the processes they are involved in' (1979:150). The newspapers which are usually considered as broadsheet, such as the *Guardian*, *The Times* and *Financial Times* differentiate themselves by deleting active participants to a very large extent than is the case for tabloid papers such as the *Daily Mirror* or the *Sun*, where responsible participants are more present (1979:150f). Trew's results thus seem to state that different newspapers do indeed convey variant linguistic representations of the same event.

There was an additional study of the language of news reports introduced by Hilary Hillier in *Analyzing Real Texts. Research Studies in Modern English Language* 2004. In one of the chapters, shescrutinizes news extracts of the same incident as appearing in three British broadsheets and three British tabloids. The chosen event relates to the British coal industry and the miner's strike of1984, which started a period of serious industrial and political conflict in Britain (2004:38). It is perhaps thus likely to expect different news accounts as the newspapers may express opposing political views and ideologies which may be demonstrated in the language. Hillier fulfilledfunctional analyses to inspect the way linguistic choices can impact on how different views of the same happening are represented, and examined voice, agency, processes and participants. The consequences according to Hillier, show: 'a notable

tabloid versus broadsheet dichotomy: the three "most biased" extracts (...) are all tabloids and the remainder (...) are all broadsheets' (2004:57). Altogether, her study is yet another which supports the notion that the language of different newspapers is indeed different.

Conclusion

Discourse studies is a multifaceted and interdisciplinary field that has significantly enriched our understanding of how language and communication shape and reflect the social, cultural, and political dimensions of human experience. By examining the intricate patterns, structures, and functions of language use in various contexts, discourse scholars have shed light on the complex ways in which power, ideology, and identity are constructed, negotiated, and challenged through the medium of discourse.

At the core of discourse studies lies the recognition that language is not merely a neutral tool for conveying information, but rather a dynamic and performative system that both reflects and constitutes the realities in which we live. Through the analysis of texts, conversations, and other forms of communicative interaction, researchers in this field have uncovered the ways in which discourse can be employed to legitimize or subvert dominant narratives, to include or exclude certain voices, and to shape the very boundaries of what is considered "normal" or "acceptable" within a given social context.

The insights gleaned from discourse studies have had far-reaching implications, informing a wide range of disciplines, from linguistics and anthropology to critical theory and social justice activism. By illuminating the nuanced and often invisible workings of language, discourse scholars have equipped us with the tools to deconstruct and challenge the taken-for-granted assumptions that underpin various systems of power and oppression.

As we navigate the increasingly complex and diverse landscapes of the 21st century, the continued advancement of discourse studies will be crucial in fostering a more equitable, inclusive, and democratized public sphere. By empowering individuals and communities to critically examine the discursive practices that shape their lived realities, this field of study can contribute to the creation of a world where marginalized voices are heard, dominant ideologies are interrogated, and the transformative potential of language is harnessed for the betterment of all.

Ultimately, the significance of discourse studies lies in its ability to unveil the intricate connections between language, power, and the human condition. As we move forward, the ongoing cultivation and application of this rich and multifaceted field of inquiry will be essential in our collective pursuit of a more just, inclusive, and empowered global community.

Second Semester Lectures

Globalization Issues

University of Ibn Khaldoun

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English

Academic Year: 2024/2025

Lectures 01: Globalization defined

Globalization is the process of increasing global interconnectedness and interdependence among people, companies, and governments worldwide. It involves the flow of goods, services, capital, information, and ideas across borders, facilitated by advancements in transportation, communication, and information technologies.

The term "globalization" emerged in the early 20th century, replacing the earlier French term "mondialisation," and gained widespread usage in the 1990s to describe the unprecedented global integration following the end of the Cold War. However, the origins of globalization can be traced back to the 18th and 19th centuries, driven by technological advances in transportation and communication.

Economically, globalization has led to the expansion of global markets, the liberalization of economic activities, and the removal of cross-border trade barriers, making the formation of global markets more feasible. The development of technologies such as steam locomotives, steamships, jet engines, container ships, the telegraph, the internet, and smartphones have been major factors in driving this process of economic and cultural integration worldwide.

Globalization has not only impacted economic activities but also has social and cultural implications, as it has facilitated the exchange of ideas, beliefs, and cultural practices across the globe. However, globalization has also been accompanied by disputes and international diplomacy, as countries and regions navigate the challenges and opportunities presented by increased global interconnectedness.

While the term "globalization" gained widespread usage in the late 20th century, its origins can be traced much further back in history. Some scholars argue that the roots of globalization can be found as early as the third millennium BCE, long before the European Age of Discovery and the voyages to the New World.

However, large-scale globalization is generally considered to have begun in the 1820s, with a rapid expansion of global connectivity in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. This period saw a significant increase in the flow of trade, capital, people, and knowledge across borders, facilitated by advancements in transportation and communication technologies.

In 2000, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) identified four key aspects of globalization: trade and transactions, capital and investment movements, migration and movement of people, and the dissemination of knowledge. These globalizing processes have had far-reaching impacts on various domains, including business and work organization, economics, sociocultural resources, and the natural environment.

Academic literature commonly divides globalization into three primary areas: economic globalization, cultural globalization, and political globalization. Economic globalization refers to the integration of national economies into a global marketplace, while cultural globalization encompasses the spread and exchange of ideas, beliefs, and practices across the world. Political globalization involves the increasing interconnectedness and coordination of governance mechanisms at the international level.

The term "global city" was later popularized by sociologist SaskiaSassen in her work "The Global City: New York, London, Tokyo" (1991), highlighting the emergence of strategic urban hubs that serve as centers of global economic and cultural influence.

Overall, the phenomenon of globalization, with its deep historical roots and multifaceted dimensions, continues to shape the modern world in complex and far-reaching ways.

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Lecture 02: Etymology and Usage

The term "globalization" has a rich and evolving history in the English language. While it was used as early as the 1930s in the context of education, the term failed to gain widespread traction at the time. Over the following decades, the term was occasionally employed by scholars and media, but its definition remained somewhat nebulous.

One of the first usages of the term in a more recognizable modern sense was by French economist François Perroux in the early 1960s, who used the French equivalent "mondialisation" (literally "worldization"). However, it was Theodore Levitt who is often credited with popularizing the term and bringing it into the mainstream business audience in the mid-1980s.

It's worth noting that in French, the term "globalization" is seen as a stage that follows "mondialisation," implying the dissolution of national identities and the abolishment of borders within the global network of economic exchanges.

Since its inception, the concept of globalization has inspired competing definitions and interpretations. Its origins can be traced back to the extensive trade and imperial movements across Asia and the Indian Ocean from the 15th century onwards. In 1848, Karl Marx observed the increasing level of national interdependence brought about by capitalism, predicting the universal character of the modern world society.

Sociologists have offered various definitions of globalization, with Martin Albrow and Elizabeth King describing it as "all those processes by which the people of the world are incorporated into a single world society." Anthony Giddens, in "The Consequences of Modernity," defines globalization as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which

link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa."

In 1992, sociologist Roland Robertson, an early writer in the field, described globalization as "the compression of the world and the intensification of the consciousness of the world as a whole." This encapsulates the multifaceted and evolving nature of this complex phenomenon that continues to shape our global interconnectedness.

In the definition of globalization from David Held and his co-authors in the book "Global Transformations." They state that globalization refers to the "widening, deepening and speeding up of global interconnection." However, they note this definition requires further elaboration. Globalization can be seen as a continuum, with one end representing local and national social/economic relations, and the other end representing regional and global relations.

Held et al. define globalization as the "transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transactions—assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact—generating transcontinental or inter-regional flows." This definition was cited as "probably the most widely-cited" in a 2014 report.

The text then presents other definitions of globalization. Swedish journalist Thomas Larsson describes it as the "process of world shrinkage, of distances getting shorter, things moving closer." Sociologist Paul James defines it as the "extension of social relations across world-space."

Manfred Steger identifies four main empirical dimensions of globalization - economic, political, cultural, and ecological - underpinned by an ideological dimension of norms, beliefs, and narratives about globalization itself.

The text also discusses different "forms" of globalization identified by James - embodied (movement of people), agency-extended (circulation of institutional agents), object-extended (movement of commodities), and disembodied (transmission of ideas/information). It notes the most embodied forms are becoming more restricted, while the most disembodied are the most deregulated.

The journalist Thomas Friedman popularized the concept of a "flat world" to describe how globalized forces have transformed the world. Economist Takis Fotopoulos distinguished between economic, political, cultural, and other types of globalization.

Overall, the definitions highlight the growing interconnectedness, interdependence, and spatial transformations across the global sphere that characterize the phenomenon of globalization.

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Lecture 03: History of globalization

The "early modern" or "proto-globalization" period spans roughly from 1600 to 1800, preceding the advent of high "modern globalization" in the late 19th century. This phase was characterized by the rise of maritime European empires, beginning with the Portuguese and Spanish, followed by the Dutch and British. In the 17th century, chartered companies like the British and Dutch East India Companies facilitated increased global trade and communications.

An alternative view posits that globalization began with the first circumnavigation of the globe under Magellan-Elcano, which led to the global silver trade. Early modern globalization differed from modern globalization in its expansionism, trade management, and information exchange. This period saw the shift of hegemony to Western Europe, major conflicts like the Thirty Years' War, and increased demand for commodities, including slaves. The Columbian exchange of animal, plant, and disease spread also played a central role**.**

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, the United Kingdom became a global superpower. Factors promoting globalization from 1815-1870 included the end of the Napoleonic Wars, reduced transportation costs, and the increasing military power of European states and the United States, allowing them to forcibly open up markets worldwide and extend their empires.

During the 19th century, the Industrial Revolution drove globalization through standardized mass production and sustained commodity demand from rapid population growth. Developments in transportation, such as steamships and railroads, significantly reduced the costs of international and inland trade. Imperialism also shaped 19th-century globalization, particularly in Africa and Asia.

After World War II, the Bretton Woods agreements established a framework for international monetary policy, commerce, and finance, intended to facilitate economic growth through

trade liberalization. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and its successor, the World Trade Organization (WTO), provided platforms for negotiating and formalizing trade agreements. Exports grew from 8.5% to 16.2% of global GDP between 1970 and 2001, though the Doha Round of trade talks stalled, leading many countries to pursue bilateral or smaller multilateral agreements.

Since the 1970s, affordable air travel and the growth of low-cost communication networks have enabled more work to be performed remotely, regardless of location. Student exchange programs also became more popular after WWII, aiming to increase cultural understanding and language skills. The number of students studying abroad increased 9-fold between 1963 and 2006.

The D.H. Comet, the world's first commercial jet airliner, entered service in 1949, marking a significant milestone in the history of aviation and the globalization of transportation.

Since the 1980s, modern globalization has spread rapidly through the expansion of capitalism and neoliberal ideologies. The implementation of neoliberal policies has allowed for the privatization of public industries, deregulation of laws and policies that interfered with the free flow of the market, as well as cutbacks to governmental social services. These neoliberal policies were often introduced to developing countries through structural adjustment programs (SAPs) implemented by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). The SAPs required countries receiving aid to open their markets to capitalism, privatize public industries, allow free trade, cut social services like healthcare and education, and enable the free movement of multinational corporations. This allowed the World Bank and IMF to become global financial market regulators promoting neoliberalism and the creation of free markets for multinational corporations on a global scale.

With a population of 1.4 billion, China has emerged as the world's second-largest economy. The late 19th and early 20th century saw a rapid increase in the connectedness of the world's economies and cultures, which slowed down from the 1910s onward due to the World Wars and the Cold War, but picked up again in the 1980s and 1990s. The revolutions of 1989 and subsequent liberalization in many parts of the world resulted in a significant expansion of global interconnectedness, including increased migration and movement of people, the growing prominence of international institutions like the UN, and the widespread influence of the internet, which had over 2.4 billion users as of 2012.

However, globalization has faced setbacks in recent years. The late 2000s recession, the China-U.S. trade war, the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, and the 2022 Russian invasion of Ukraine have all affected global trade and interconnectedness. There is now a growing consensus that globalization has run its course and is in decline, though some economists argue that trade volumes are actually increasing in certain sectors despite drops in overall trade since the global financial crisis.

Factors Conducive to Globalization

Globalization is a complex phenomenon driven by various factors that facilitate the interconnectedness of economies, cultures, and societies across the globe. Understanding these factors can provide insight into how globalization shapes our world today. Here are some key factors that contribute to globalization:

1. Technological Advancements

1. Communication Technologies:

The rise of the internet and mobile communication has revolutionized how people connect and share information. Platforms like social media, email, and video conferencing enable instant communication across borders, fostering global interactions.

2. Transportation Innovations:

Improvements in transportation, such as the development of faster shipping methods and efficient air travel, have significantly reduced the time and cost of moving goods and people. This has made international trade and travel more accessible.

2. Economic Factors

1. Trade Liberalization:

The reduction of trade barriers, such as tariffs and quotas, has facilitated the flow of goods and services between countries. Organizations like the World Trade Organization (WTO) promote free trade agreements that enhance economic cooperation.

2. Global Supply Chains:

The establishment of global supply chains allows companies to source materials and labor from different parts of the world, optimizing production and reducing costs. This interdependence encourages economic integration among nations.

3. Political Factors

1. Global Governance:

International institutions and agreements (e.g., the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund) promote cooperation on global issues, such as trade, environmental protection, and human rights. These frameworks encourage countries to work together and embrace globalization.

2. Political Stability:

Countries with stable political environments are more attractive for foreign investment and trade. Political stability fosters trust and cooperation, making it easier for nations to engage in global activities.

4. Cultural Exchange

1. Media and Entertainment:

The global reach of media, including films, television, and music, promotes cultural exchange and awareness. Exposure to diverse cultures fosters understanding and acceptance, contributing to a more interconnected world.

2. Migration:

The movement of people across borders leads to cultural exchange and the spread of ideas. Migrants bring their customs, languages, and perspectives, enriching the cultural fabric of host countries and facilitating globalization.

5. Economic Development

1. Emerging Markets:

The rise of emerging economies, such as China and India, has shifted the global economic landscape. These nations have become significant players in international trade and investment, driving globalization through their economic growth.

2. Consumer Demand:

Globalization is fueled by increasing consumer demand for diverse products and services. As consumers seek variety and quality, businesses expand their operations internationally to meet these demands.

6. Technological Diffusion

1. Knowledge Transfer:

The exchange of knowledge and technology between countries enables the diffusion of innovations. This transfer fosters economic development and encourages countries to adopt best practices from around the world.

2. Education and Research Collaboration:

International collaborations in education and research promote the sharing of ideas, expertise, and resources. This cooperation enhances global understanding and drives innovation, further contributing to globalization.

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Lecture 04: Globalization: Concepts and Approaches

Globalization is a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing economic, cultural, political, and technological dimensions. Understanding globalization requires exploring its various concepts and the approaches used to analyze its impact on societies worldwide.

Concepts of Globalization

Economic Globalization:

Definition: Refers to the increasing economic interdependence among countries through trade, investment, and capital flows.

Features: Includes the rise of multinational corporations (MNCs), global supply chains, and the liberalization of trade and investment policies.

Implications: Economic globalization can lead to increased economic growth and access to markets, but it can also result in job displacement and inequality within and between countries.

Cultural Globalization:

Definition: The worldwide exchange and integration of cultural elements, including ideas, values, languages, and traditions.

Features: Characterized by the proliferation of global media, the spread of consumer culture, and the blending of cultural practices.

Implications: While cultural globalization can enhance understanding and diversity, it may also lead to cultural homogenization, where local cultures are overshadowed by dominant global cultures.

Political Globalization:

Definition: The growing influence of international and supranational organizations in shaping global governance and policy.

Features: Involves the establishment of international treaties, agreements, and institutions that address global issues such as climate change, human rights, and security.

Implications: Political globalization fosters cooperation among nations but can also challenge national sovereignty and lead to debates over governance.

Technological Globalization:

Definition: The rapid advancement and dissemination of technology across borders, facilitating communication and connectivity.

Features: Includes the internet, mobile technologies, and innovations that enhance global interactions and commerce.

Implications: Technological globalization can drive economic growth and improve access to information, but it also raises concerns about digital divides and privacy.

Approaches to Understanding Globalization

Neoliberal Approach:

Core Ideas: Emphasizes free markets, deregulation, and reduced government intervention in the economy. It advocates for globalization as a means to promote economic efficiency and growth.

Critique: Critics argue that neoliberal policies can exacerbate inequality, marginalize vulnerable populations, and prioritize profit over social welfare.

World-Systems Theory:

Core Ideas: Developed by Immanuel Wallerstein, this approach views the world as a complex system divided into core, semi-periphery, and periphery nations. It emphasizes the historical and structural inequalities that shape global relations.

Focus: Analyzes power dynamics, economic exploitation, and the historical context of globalization, highlighting how core nations benefit at the expense of peripheral regions.

Cultural Studies Approach:

Core Ideas: Focuses on the cultural dimensions of globalization, examining how cultural identities are constructed and negotiated in a global context.

Focus: Explores the impact of global media, migration, and cultural exchange on local cultures, addressing issues of representation, identity, and resistance.

Postcolonial Theory:

Core Ideas: Critiques the legacy of colonialism and imperialism in shaping global power dynamics. It examines how globalization perpetuates inequalities rooted in colonial histories.

Focus: Analyzes cultural exchanges and interactions while highlighting the perspectives of formerly colonized nations, emphasizing the importance of voice and agency.

Sustainable Development Approach:

Core Ideas: Advocates for a model of globalization that prioritizes environmental sustainability, social equity, and economic stability.

Focus: Emphasizes the need for global cooperation to address pressing issues like climate change, resource depletion, and social justice, promoting a more equitable and sustainable global future.

The Hyperglobalist Approach

The hyperglobalist approach is a perspective within the broader discourse on globalization that emphasizes the transformative and far-reaching effects of globalization on national sovereignty, economies, and cultures. Hyperglobalists argue that globalization is not just a trend but a fundamental shift in how the world operates, characterized by increased interconnectedness and interdependence among nations.

Key Features of the Hyperglobalist Approach

Intensification of Global Interconnectedness:

Hyperglobalists assert that globalization leads to an unprecedented level of connectivity among countries, driven by advancements in technology, communication, and transportation. This interconnectedness transcends borders, making national boundaries less relevant in the face of global networks.

Economic Globalization:

This approach highlights the dominance of global capitalism, where markets and economies are increasingly integrated. Hyperglobalists emphasize the role of multinational corporations (MNCs) and global supply chains in shaping economic relations, arguing that economic power is shifting from nation-states to global entities.

Erosion of National Sovereignty:

Hyperglobalists contend that globalization undermines the authority of nation-states. As global markets and institutions gain influence, governments may find it challenging to regulate their economies and protect their citizens. This can lead to a diminished capacity for states to act independently in their interests.

Cultural Homogenization:

The hyperglobalist perspective often points to the spread of a global culture, facilitated by media and technology. This cultural exchange can lead to homogenization, where local traditions and practices are overshadowed by dominant global narratives, especially those originating from Western countries.

Global Governance:

Hyperglobalists advocate for the need for international cooperation to address global challenges, such as climate change, trade, and security. They argue that effective governance in a globalized world requires collaboration among nations and the establishment of international institutions that can manage transnational issues.

Critiques of the Hyperglobalist Approach

Overemphasis on Globalization:

Critics argue that hyperglobalists may overstate the extent to which globalization has eroded national sovereignty and the effectiveness of states. Many countries continue to exercise significant control over their economies and policies, and nationalism remains a powerful force.

Neglect of Local Variations:

The hyperglobalist approach can overlook the diversity of experiences with globalization. Different countries and regions may experience globalization in unique ways, leading to varied outcomes that are not adequately captured by a one-size-fits-all perspective.

Economic Inequality:

Critics also point out that hyperglobalism can exacerbate economic inequalities. While globalization may benefit some nations and individuals, it can leave others behind, creating disparities in wealth and opportunity.

Cultural Resistance:

The argument of cultural homogenization is contested by those who highlight the resilience of local cultures and the ways in which communities adapt and resist global influences. Cultural hybridity often emerges, leading to new forms of identity that blend local and global elements.

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Lecture 05: The Skeptical Approach to Globalization

The skeptical approach is a critical perspective on globalization that questions the extent and significance of global interconnectedness. Skeptics argue that globalization is often overstated and that its impacts are not as profound or universal as proponents claim. This approach emphasizes the persistence of national boundaries, local cultures, and economic disparities, suggesting that globalization is more complex and uneven than a simple narrative of global integration.

Key Features of the Skeptical Approach

Limited Impact of Globalization:

Skeptics contend that while globalization exists, its effects are often exaggerated. They argue that many aspects of globalization are limited to specific regions or sectors and do not represent a comprehensive transformation of the global landscape.

National Sovereignty Remains Strong:

The skeptical perspective asserts that nation-states continue to play a crucial role in shaping political, economic, and social realities. Governments retain significant power to regulate their economies, control borders, and influence cultural dynamics, suggesting that national sovereignty is not as eroded as hyperglobalists claim.

Cultural Resilience:

Skeptics highlight the resilience of local cultures and traditions in the face of globalization. They argue that while global influences are present, local identities and practices continue to thrive, leading to cultural diversity rather than homogenization.

Economic Disparities:

The skeptical approach points out that globalization can exacerbate inequalities both within and between countries. While some nations may benefit from global trade and investment, others may be left behind, leading to a widening gap between the wealthy and the poor.

Regionalization over Globalization:

Skeptics often emphasize regionalism as a more significant trend than globalization. They argue that countries are more likely to engage in regional trade agreements and partnerships that reflect local interests rather than fully embracing a globalized economy.

Critiques of the Skeptical Approach

Underestimating Global Influences:

Critics of the skeptical approach argue that it may underestimate the profound changes brought about by globalization, particularly in communication, technology, and economic interdependence. They contend that even if globalization is uneven, its impacts are still significant.

Ignoring Global Issues:

Skeptics may overlook the importance of global challenges that require international cooperation, such as climate change, pandemics, and terrorism. These issues highlight the necessity for global responses and collaboration.

Potential for Cultural Hybridity:

While skeptics emphasize cultural resilience, critics argue that this perspective may simplify the complex ways cultures interact, leading to new hybrid identities that reflect both local and global influences.

The Transformationalist Approach to Globalization

The transformationalist approach offers a nuanced perspective on globalization, emphasizing that it is a dynamic and complex process that transforms social, economic, and political landscapes without leading to a singular outcome. Unlike hyperglobalists, who argue that

globalization is a definitive and overarching force, and skeptics, who downplay its significance, transformationalists assert that globalization involves significant changes in how societies interact while acknowledging the role of local contexts and the variability of outcomes.

Key Features of the Transformationalist Approach

Dynamic Process:

Transformationalists view globalization as an ongoing and evolving process rather than a fixed state. They emphasize that globalization is characterized by constant change and adaptation, influenced by technological advancements, cultural exchanges, and shifting political dynamics.

Interconnectedness with Local Contexts:

This approach highlights the interplay between global and local factors. Transformationalists argue that globalization does not erase local identities or cultures; instead, it interacts with them, leading to new forms of cultural expression and social organization.

Multiplicity of Outcomes:

Transformationalists recognize that globalization can yield diverse results depending on various factors such as regional contexts, governance structures, and historical backgrounds. This leads to varying degrees of integration and resistance across different societies.

Role of Agency:

The transformationalist perspective emphasizes the agency of individuals, communities, and states in shaping the globalization process. It acknowledges that local actors can influence how global trends are adopted, adapted, or resisted, leading to a more democratic form of globalization.

Focus on Global Issues:

Transformationalists highlight the emergence of global challenges that require collective action, such as climate change, migration, and health crises. They argue that these issues necessitate new forms of governance and cooperation beyond traditional state-centric models.

Implications of the Transformationalist Approach

Policy Development:

Understanding globalization as a transformative process encourages policymakers to consider local contexts and cultural dynamics in crafting responses to global challenges, fostering more effective and inclusive solutions.

Cultural Hybridity:

The transformationalist approach supports the idea of cultural hybridity, where global and local cultures blend to create new identities and practices. This perspective emphasizes the richness of cultural exchange rather than a simplistic view of cultural homogenization.

Global Governance:

Transformationalists advocate for evolving forms of global governance that recognize the complexities of globalization. This includes multi-level governance structures that incorporate local, national, and international actors to address transnational issues collaboratively.

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Lecture 06: Types of Globalization

Economic globalization

Economic globalization refers to the increasing interconnectedness and interdependence of national economies worldwide. This is driven by the rapid growth in cross-border movement of goods, services, technology, and capital. Globalization of business involves the reduction of international trade barriers, tariffs, and regulations to facilitate global trade.

Economic globalization encompasses the globalization of production, where goods and services are sourced from locations worldwide to take advantage of cost and quality differences. It also involves the globalization of markets, uniting separate markets into a single global marketplace.

Key factors driving current globalization trends include developed economies integrating with less developed ones through foreign investment, trade liberalization, and immigration. International standards, like containerization, have increased the efficiency of global trade.

Multinational corporations that operate in multiple countries are a core aspect of economic globalization. Free trade areas, like the European Union, further integration by reducing barriers to the movement of goods, services, capital, and people.

Trade facilitation aims to streamline border procedures and controls to minimize costs and maximize efficiency while still meeting regulatory requirements. Global trade in services, such as business process outsourcing, has also been a significant driver of globalization.

Some theorists, like William I. Robinson, argue that the current form of globalization since the 1980s involves a transnational fragmentation of production activities across borders, rather than just the expansion of economic activities internationally.

Cultural globalization

Cultural globalization refers to the increased interconnectedness and interdependence of diverse cultures around the world as a result of global trade, communication technologies, migration, and the spread of popular media and consumer culture. It is a complex, multifaceted process that has both homogenizing and diversifying impacts.

At the core of cultural globalization is the accelerated diffusion and exchange of cultural elements - such as ideas, values, behaviors, beliefs, and material objects - across national and regional borders. This is facilitated by advances in transportation, media, and digital communication that have dramatically increased cross-cultural contact and the flow of information globally.

The spread of mass media, from Hollywood films to world music, has been a major driver of cultural globalization, exposing people worldwide to common cultural products and influences. The rise of the internet and social media has further intensified this process, enabling the real-time sharing of cultural content and the formation of transnational digital communities.

Alongside this homogenization, cultural globalization has also stimulated greater cultural diversity and hybridization. The encounter between global and local cultures can lead to the adaptation and reinterpretation of cultural elements, resulting in new syncretic forms. Diasporic communities, for example, maintain connections to their ancestral cultures while also adopting elements of their host societies.

The impacts of cultural globalization are highly uneven, with concerns that it leads to the Westernization or Americanization of local cultures, posing a threat to traditional practices and identities. Critics argue that global capitalism and media conglomerates exert a standardizing influence that undermines cultural pluralism.

However, proponents of cultural globalization emphasize its potential to facilitate intercultural exchange, foster shared understandings, and enable the revitalization of marginalized cultures through increased visibility and mobility. Concepts like transculturalism, which highlight the interconnectedness of cultures, offer perspectives for navigating the complex realities of an increasingly globalized world.

Ultimately, cultural globalization is a multifaceted process with profound implications for individual and collective identities, local-global dynamics, and the future of cultural diversity on a planetary scale.

Political globalization

Political globalization refers to the growth and increased complexity of the worldwide political system, encompassing the expanding role and interaction of various actors beyond the traditional nation-state. This includes national governments, intergovernmental organizations, as well as elements of global civil society such as international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) and transnational social movements.

One of the key aspects of political globalization is the declining centrality of the nation-state as the primary unit of global political authority. As the world has become more interconnected, other actors have gained prominence and influence on the global stage. These include supranational bodies like the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund, and the World Trade Organization, which wield significant political power and influence national policies.

Theories like intergovernmentalism and multi-level governance provide frameworks for understanding this shifting landscape. Intergovernmentalism examines regional integration processes, where states remain the primary actors. Multi-level governance, on the other hand, illuminates the complex entanglement between domestic and international levels of political authority in the global political economy.

The rise of global civil society has also been a notable feature of political globalization. INGOs, such as Amnesty International and Greenpeace, increasingly shape public policy across national borders, particularly in areas like human rights, development, and the environment. Philanthropic organizations with global missions, blending business models and philanthropy, are also emerging as influential actors in humanitarian and development efforts worldwide.

Concurrently, some states have responded to the pressures of political globalization by embracing isolationist policies. For instance, the North Korean government tightly controls

foreign access and citizen movement within the country, actively resisting greater integration with the global political system.

Overall, political globalization represents the expansion and increasing complexity of the worldwide political system, characterized by the declining primacy of the nation-state, the rise of new transnational actors, and the dynamic interplay between domestic and international levels of political authority and decision-making.

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Lecture 07: Globalization and gender

Globalization has had a gendered impact, with multinational corporations outsourcing jobs to low-wage, low-skilled economies like the ready-made garment industry in Bangladesh, where the majority of the workforce is comprised of poor women.

Despite the large proportion of women workers in the garment industry, women remain heavily underemployed compared to men. Most of the women employed in the garment industry have migrated from the Bangladeshi countryside in search of work.

The empowerment of these women workers is complex and debated. While some have gained more autonomy in their personal lives, such as increased negotiating power within their families and being valued as wage earners, this has not translated into the ability to collectively organize for better working conditions. Many women see the garment industry as unsustainable in the long run due to the demanding work environment.

A similar gendered dynamic can be seen in the maquiladora industry in Ciudad Juarez, Mexico. Here, poor women make up the majority of the workforce, but are often perceived as less trainable and loyal compared to men. This has led to a two-tiered system where women are relegated to unskilled, low-wage jobs, while men are afforded more opportunities for skill development and advancement.

The high turnover rates among women workers are sometimes used by employers to justify this disparity, framing women as the problem rather than addressing the systemic issues that contribute to their precarious employment.

In summary, globalization's outsourcing of manufacturing to developing economies has had a disproportionate impact on women, who comprise the majority of the low-wage, low-skilled

workforce, but face challenges in translating their economic participation into meaningful empowerment and collective bargaining power.

Other Dimensions of Globalization

In addition to the more commonly discussed dimensions of economic, cultural, and political globalization, scholars have also examined other less prominent aspects of globalization. These include:

Environmental Globalization: The internationally coordinated practices and regulations, often through treaties, regarding environmental protection on a global scale.

Military Globalization: The growth in the global extent and scope of security relationships and military operations.

However, these dimensions receive significantly less attention in academic literature compared to the three major areas of economic, cultural, and political globalization.

Another key aspect of globalization is the increased movement of people across borders. Improvements in transportation technology over the past century have dramatically reduced travel time and costs, enabling greater mobility for both tourists and business travelers.

The rise of international tourism is a notable manifestation of this trend, with international tourist arrivals surpassing 1 billion globally for the first time in 2012. Visa policies have also become more permissive in many regions, facilitating cross-border travel.

Immigration, or the long-term settlement of people in countries where they are not native, has also grown significantly as part of globalization. As of 2014, there were an estimated 232 million international migrants worldwide, about half of whom were economically active.

Globalization has further enabled increased international education, with more students seeking higher education abroad. This has led host countries to implement initiatives to attract and integrate foreign students, recognizing their cultural and economic contributions.

Finally, the mobility of people has also resulted in a rise in transnational marriages, where spouses come from different national backgrounds, adding complexity and challenges to these cross-cultural relationships.

In summary, the increased global movement of people, whether as tourists, immigrants, students, or spouses, represents another important dimension of the multifaceted process of globalization.

Movement of Information

Globalization has also had a profound impact on the movement and exchange of information across the world. Prior to the advent of electronic communications, long-distance communication was limited by the speed of physical transportation methods like mail delivery by horse and ship.

The development of the electric telegraph in the 19th century represented a major breakthrough, allowing for near-instantaneous long-distance communication. The successful establishment of the first transatlantic telegraph cable in the 1860s further reduced communication times between continents, enabling the exchange of messages and responses within the same day.

The technological advancements continued with the emergence of wireless telegraphy in the late 19th century, further expanding the reach and speed of global communications.

The invention and proliferation of the internet has been instrumental in connecting people across geographical boundaries like never before. Social media platforms like Facebook, with over 1.65 billion monthly active users as of 2016, have facilitated unprecedented levels of global interconnectivity and information sharing.

The rise of global journalism, enabled by the internet, has also played a key role in globalization. Global journalism allows for the investigation and reporting of how people, actions, practices, problems, and life conditions in different parts of the world are interrelated. This has contributed to raising awareness of global threats and challenges, such as climate change, that transcend national borders.

Overall, the rapid advancement of communication technologies, from the telegraph to the internet, has been a driving force behind the increased movement and exchange of information across the globe - a critical component of the broader process of globalization.

Globalization and Disease

In the current era of globalization, the world is indeed more interdependent than ever before. Efficient and inexpensive transportation has made travel and the movement of people and goods across the globe much more accessible, breaking down geographical barriers. This increased global trade and mobility has also brought more people into contact with a wider range of animal species, allowing zoonotic diseases - those that jump from animals to humans - to proliferate more easily.

The COVID-19 pandemic, which first emerged in Wuhan, China in late 2019, is a prime example of this. In the first few months, the virus spread rapidly across the world, with over 180 countries reporting cases. By early April 2020, the United States had become the country with the most confirmed active cases globally.

This global spread can be attributed in large part to the high volume of international travel and migration during this period. More than 3.4 million people from the worst-affected countries entered the U.S. in the first three months of the pandemic alone. This rapid movement of people across borders allowed the virus to gain a foothold in new regions at an unprecedented pace.

The detrimental economic impact of the pandemic has also been exacerbated by globalization. Small and medium-sized enterprises, as well as self-employed and microbusinesses with unlimited liability, have been particularly vulnerable to the financial difficulties caused by lockdowns and disruptions to supply chains. This has created opportunities for larger, more dominant firms and oligopolies to increase their market share, further solidifying barriers to entry for smaller players.

In summary, the highly interconnected nature of the modern globalized world, facilitated by advancements in transportation and trade, has made the world more susceptible to the rapid spread of infectious diseases like COVID-19. This has had wide-ranging economic consequences, disproportionately affecting smaller businesses and vulnerable populations. The pandemic has, in many ways, laid bare the complex interdependencies and vulnerabilities inherent in our globalized systems.

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Lecture 08: Measurement of Globalization

Understanding the multifaceted nature of globalization is crucial, as it encompasses much more than just economic factors.

One widely used measure is the KOF Index of Globalization, which evaluates three key dimensions of globalization: economic, social, and political. This holistic approach recognizes that globalization manifests not just in trade and investment flows, but also in the movement of people, ideas, and political influence across borders.

Another prominent index is the A.T. Kearney/Foreign Policy Magazine Globalization Index, which likewise attempts to capture the broader scope of globalization beyond just economic indicators.

Traditionally, measurements of economic globalization have focused on variables such as trade, foreign direct investment, GDP, portfolio investment, and income. However, newer indices are striving to incorporate a wider range of variables related to political, social, cultural, and even environmental aspects of globalization.

One such example is the DHL Global Connectedness Index, which studies four main types of cross-border flows: trade (both goods and services), information, people (including tourists, students, and migrants), and capital. This index provides a more comprehensive picture of global integration, showing that while the depth of global integration did dip after the 2008 financial crisis, it had recovered well above pre-crisis levels by 2013.

Importantly, the DHL Global Connectedness Index also highlighted the shifting of economic activity towards emerging economies, underscoring how globalization is not a uniform process, but one that is constantly evolving and reshaping the global landscape.

In essence, the measurement of globalization has become increasingly nuanced and multidimensional, reflecting the complex, multifaceted nature of this phenomenon. By considering a broader range of variables beyond just economic metrics, these indices offer a more holistic understanding of how the world is becoming increasingly interconnected and interdependent across political, social, cultural, and environmental domains.

Support and Criticism

On one side, proponents of economic growth, expansion, and development generally view the globalizing forces as desirable and necessary for the well-being of human society. They see the increased interconnectedness, trade, and exchange of ideas as beneficial for fostering prosperity and progress.

However, antagonists to globalization have raised significant concerns about the social, environmental, and cultural impacts of these processes. Environmental activists and indigenous rights groups, for instance, have strongly denounced trade agreements like the European Union-Mercosur deal, which they fear will accelerate deforestation and undermine the rights of local communities.

These critiques of globalization stem from a deeper philosophical divide over the costs and benefits of continuous economic expansion and its unintended consequences. Critics challenge traditional metrics like GDP, arguing that they fail to capture the social disintegration, democratic erosion, environmental degradation, and growing inequality that can accompany globalization.

There are also concerns that the spread of Western-style democracy through globalization has been accompanied by an escalation in inter-ethnic tensions and violence, as free market policies combine with universal suffrage in ways that can exacerbate social divisions.

The issue of xenophobia is also closely tied to reactions to globalization, as the increased contact with foreign peoples and cultures can trigger fears of losing one's identity and a desire to maintain perceived "purity" and exclusivity.

Interestingly, the Pope's recent comments on globalization suggest a more nuanced, inclusive view, where unity should not be conceived as a homogeneous sphere, but rather as a "polyhedron" that allows for the retention of individual identities within a broader, interconnected whole.

Overall, the responses to globalization span a wide spectrum, from enthusiastic support to vehement opposition, reflecting the deeply complex and multifaceted nature of this global phenomenon. Navigating these divergent viewpoints and finding sustainable, equitable ways to manage the forces of globalization remains a significant challenge for societies around the world.

Public Opinion

The divergent attitudes towards globalization across different regions and demographics are explored in the information provided.

In Africa and Asia, residents tend to view globalization more favorably compared to those in Europe or North America. For example, a Gallup poll found that 70% of the population in Africa viewed globalization favorably, while a BBC poll revealed that 50% of people believed that economic globalization was proceeding too rapidly, while 35% believed it was proceeding too slowly.

The European perspective is also examined, noting that in 2004, a clear majority of Europeans believed that globalization could enrich their lives, and that the European Union could help them harness the benefits of globalization while shielding them from the negative effects. The main opposition to globalization in Europe came from socialists, environmental groups, and nationalists.

Turning to the United States, the information highlights a shift in attitudes over time. In 1993, more than 40% of respondents were unfamiliar with the concept of globalization, but by 1998, 89% of respondents had a polarized view, seeing globalization as either good or bad. This polarization increased dramatically after the establishment of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995 and the subsequent anti-globalization protests.

The case of Japan is also explored, where anxiety over the country's resource-poor status and reliance on exports led to a widespread perception of the economy as "Small and Frail,"

causing terms like "internationalization" and "globalization" to enter the everyday lexicon. However, the traditional Japanese emphasis on self-sufficiency, particularly in agriculture, created a level of resistance to some of the forces of globalization.

Economics

The extensive literature analyzing the economics of free trade has revealed a broad consensus among economists that it provides significant net gains for society, despite creating winners and losers. In a 2006 survey of 83 American economists, 87.5% agreed that the U.S. should eliminate remaining tariffs and other trade barriers, and 90.1% disagreed with restricting employers from outsourcing work to foreign countries.

Harvard economist N. Gregory Mankiw states that "few propositions command as much consensus among professional economists as that open world trade increases economic growth and raises living standards." A survey of leading economists found that none disagreed with the notion that "freer trade improves productive efficiency and offers consumers better choices, and in the long run these gains are much larger than any effects on employment."

While factors such as government corruption, lack of infrastructure, and geographic barriers can hinder a country's ability to enter global markets, economists like JagdishBhagwati argue that globalization is a positive force that lifts countries out of poverty through faster economic growth. However, this growth does not necessarily translate to a reduction in poverty, as wealth disparities can persist.

Economist Paul Krugman, a staunch supporter of globalization, argues that many critics of free trade lack a basic understanding of the importance of comparative advantage in today's world. The flow of migrants to advanced economies has been claimed to provide a means of global wage convergence, and the dissemination of knowledge through technological innovation is seen as benefiting developing and least developed countries.

Notably, the rapid economic growth observed in Asia after the adoption of market-oriented economic policies, which encourage private property rights, free enterprise, and competition, has led to reduced international inequality and a significant decline in poverty. According to the 2003 Human Development Report of the UNDP, the GDP per head in East Asian developing countries rose at an impressive rate of 5.9% per year from 1975 to 2001,

outpacing the relatively stable growth of the world's richest countries and resulting in a reduction in global inequality and poverty incidence.

The impact of income equality on economic growth duration is more beneficial than that of trade openness, sound political institutions, and foreign investment.[164] Certain demographic changes in the developing world after economic liberalization and international integration resulted in improved general welfare and reduced inequality.

In the developing world, life expectancy rose by 4 months per year after 1970, while infant mortality declined from 107 to 58 per thousand between 1970 and 2000, indicating better living standards and health conditions. Adult literacy also increased from 53% in 1970 to 74% in 1998, and declining fertility rates from 4.1 to 2.8 births per woman between 1980 and 2000 suggest more educated women with fewer children receiving greater parental investment.[165] Consequently, despite income inequality, economic growth and development have led to improved welfare for the population overall.

Furthermore, per capita GDP growth among post-1980 globalizing countries accelerated from 1.4% in the 1960s to 5.0% in the 1990s, outpacing the steady decline in growth among rich countries. The non-globalizing developing countries experienced falling growth rates during this period. This rapid growth among globalizers was not solely due to China and India, as 18 out of 24 globalizing countries saw substantial increases in growth rates.

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Lecture 09: The Impact of Income Equality on Economic Growth

Of the various factors influencing the duration of economic growth in both developed and developing countries, income equality has a more beneficial impact than trade openness, sound political institutions, and foreign investment.[164]

Certain demographic changes in the developing world after economic liberalization and integration have resulted in rising general welfare and reduced inequality. According to data, in the developing world life expectancy rose by 4 months per year after 1970, infant mortality declined from 107 to 58 per thousand between 1970-2000, adult literacy increased from 53% to 74% between 1970-1998, and fertility rates dropped from 4.1 to 2.8 births per woman between 1980-2000.[165] These improvements in living standards, health, education, and family planning indicate that despite income inequality, economic growth has broadly improved welfare for the population.

Globalization and Growth Rates

Per capita GDP growth among post-1980 globalizing countries accelerated from 1.4% in the 1960s to 5% in the 1990s, outpacing the decline in growth among rich countries over the same period. In contrast, non-globalizing developing countries saw their growth rates fall from 3.3% in the 1970s to just 1.4% in the 1990s.[166]

This rapid growth among globalizers was not limited to China and India, as 18 out of 24 globalizing countries experienced substantial growth increases. The globalization of recent decades has therefore been associated with higher and more durable economic growth, especially in developing countries that have actively integrated into the global economy.

Debates on Globalization

The globalization of recent decades has revived the idea that economic interdependence promotes peace, a view held by classical liberals like the young John Maynard Keynes.[167,168] However, opponents see globalization as promoting corporate interests at the expense of the poor and the environment, advocating for global institutions and policies to better address moral and environmental concerns.[169-172] Critics also argue that free trade disadvantages poorer countries, as larger economies often subsidize their domestic industries.

Democratic Globalization

Democratic globalization is a movement that aims to establish an institutional system of global democracy, giving world citizens a direct say in international political organizations. This would bypass the traditional power structures of nation-states, corporate oligopolies, ideological non-governmental organizations (NGOs), political cults, and criminal mafias. One of the most prominent proponents of this vision is the British political thinker David Held.

Advocates of democratic globalization argue that the initial phase should focus on promoting economic expansion and development globally. This would then be followed by a subsequent phase dedicated to building robust global political institutions to govern this increasingly interconnected world.

Francesco Stipo, the Director of the United States Association of the Club of Rome, goes further by advocating for the unification of nations under a world government. Stipo suggests that this world confederation "should reflect the political and economic balances of world nations." Crucially, he envisions this world authority as complementing, rather than superseding, the authority of individual nation-states. Both the nation-states and the overarching world body would have their own spheres of competence and decision-making power.

Similarly, the former Canadian Senator Douglas Roche, O.C., views globalization as an inevitable process. He advocates creating new institutions, such as a directly elected United Nations Parliamentary Assembly, to provide democratic oversight and accountability over the currently unelected international bodies that wield significant global influence.

The proponents of democratic globalization thus seek to harness the momentum of economic globalization to construct a more inclusive and representative system of global governance. They aim to empower ordinary world citizens, rather than leaving crucial decisions in the hands of narrow national, corporate, or ideological interests. This vision represents an ambitious attempt to reconcile the realities of a deeply interconnected world with the democratic principles of popular sovereignty and self-determination.

Global Civics and Multiculturalism

The concept of global civics suggests that in our age of deepening interdependence and interaction, civics can be understood from a global perspective. At its core, global civics proposes a social contract between global citizens based on the mere fact of our shared humanity on Earth. This vision transcends traditional geopolitical divisions rooted in national citizenship.

The idea of the "world citizen" has a rich history, with antecedents dating back to the ancient Greek philosopher Socrates, who famously declared, "I am not an Athenian, or a Greek, but a citizen of the world." In our increasingly interconnected world, proponents argue that world citizens require a new conceptual framework to guide their mindsets and foster a shared consciousness of global responsibility. Issues like environmental challenges and nuclear proliferation demand a sense of collective stewardship that transcends national boundaries.

However, some thinkers, such as the Baha'i-inspired author Meyjes, warn that the forces of globalization may serve as a cloak for a form of expeditious Anglo-dominance that is insufficiently inclusive to foster an optimal world civilization. Meyjes proposes the alternative concept of "universalization" as a means of ensuring a more equitable and representative global integration.

This vision of a cosmopolitan world community is closely tied to the philosophical concept of cosmopolitanism. Cosmopolitanism posits that all human ethnic groups belong to a single community based on a shared morality. A cosmopolitan individual, or cosmopolite, embraces the idea of forming relationships of mutual respect with people from diverse backgrounds, transcending differences in beliefs, locations, and economic circumstances.

The Canadian philosopher Marshall McLuhan famously popularized the term "Global Village" in the 1960s, suggesting that globalization would lead to a world where people from all countries become increasingly integrated and aware of their common interests and shared humanity.

Ultimately, the ideas of global civics and cosmopolitanism represent ambitious attempts to reframe our understanding of citizenship, community, and responsibility in an era of unprecedented global interconnectedness. They challenge us to cultivate a sense of planetary stewardship and to build bridges of mutual understanding across traditional divides, with the goal of forging a more equitable and inclusive world order.

International Cooperation

In the aftermath of the Cold War, the world witnessed remarkable instances of security cooperation between the United States and the former Soviet Union, which astonished the international community. These collaborative efforts manifested in a series of arms control and disarmament agreements, signaling a newfound commitment to global stability and nuclear non-proliferation.

One of the most prominent examples of this cooperation was the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) process, which included a succession of agreements, such as START I, START II, START III, and the New START treaty. These landmark accords aimed to significantly reduce the nuclear arsenals of the two superpowers, paving the way for a more secure and stable global order.

Beyond the bilateral treaties, the post-Cold War era also witnessed the establishment of multilateral initiatives, such as NATO's Partnership for Peace and the Russia-NATO Council. These frameworks served to enhance security cooperation and build trust between the former adversaries, fostering a shared commitment to addressing common threats.

Furthermore, the G8 Global Partnership against the Spread of Weapons and Materials of Mass Destruction represented another significant collaborative endeavor. This initiative brought together the world's leading industrialized nations to tackle the challenges posed by the

proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, underscoring the growing recognition of the need for collective action in the face of global security challenges.

The strengthening of US-Russian cooperation was further exemplified in the wake of the 9/11 terrorist attacks, as the two countries enacted a series of anti-terrorism agreements, recognizing the importance of coordinated efforts to combat the scourge of international terrorism.

These examples of military and security cooperation in the post-Cold War era reflect a profound shift in the geopolitical landscape, as former rivals sought to navigate the new realities of the 21st century. By embracing multilateral frameworks and finding common ground on critical issues, the United States and Russia demonstrated the possibility of transcending historical animosities and working towards a more peaceful and stable global order.

Environmental Cooperation: One of the most significant successes in environmental cooperation has been the Montreal Protocol, an international agreement aimed at reducing the emissions of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) to address the issue of ozone depletion. This landmark accord demonstrated the global community's ability to come together and take decisive action to tackle a pressing environmental challenge.

Beyond the Montreal Protocol, the ongoing debate surrounding nuclear energy and the continued reliance on coal-burning power plants has also highlighted a growing consensus on the need to avoid certain unsustainable practices. This recognition of the imperative to transition towards more environmentally responsible energy solutions represents another important milestone in global environmental cooperation.

Additionally, significant achievements in international development studies have further strengthened the foundations of environmental cooperation, as the global community works to reconcile economic progress with sustainable resource management and environmental protection.

Economic Cooperation: One of the major challenges facing the process of globalization in 2019 was the perception that the progress made in previous decades was now being reversed.

This phenomenon has been dubbed "Slobalization," referring to a new, slower pattern of globalization that has emerged, characterized by a slowdown or even a rollback of the integration of national economies and the free movement of goods, services, and capital across borders.

The shift towards Globalization has raised concerns about the future direction of the global economy and the ability of nations to maintain the level of interconnectedness and cooperation that had been achieved in the past. This trend has prompted renewed discussions and debates about the optimal balance between economic liberalization and the preservation of national economic interests.

In response to these challenges, the global community has been compelled to reexamine the fundamental tenets of economic cooperation, seeking to strike a delicate balance between the benefits of globalization and the need to address the unintended consequences that have emerged over time.

These examples of environmental and economic cooperation illustrate the dynamic and complex nature of international collaboration in the 21st century. As the world grapples with an array of transnational issues, the ability of nations to find common ground and work collectively will be crucial in shaping the future of global governance and sustainable development.

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Lecture 10: Anti-globalization Movement

The anti-globalization, or counter-globalization, movement represents a diverse array of criticisms and concerns about the globalization of corporate capitalism. Also known as the alter-globalization movement, the anti-corporate globalization movement, or the movement against neoliberal globalization, this opposition argues that the power dynamics and respect within international trade between developed and underdeveloped countries are unequally distributed.

The movement is composed of a wide range of subgroups, including trade unionists, environmentalists, anarchists, land rights and indigenous rights activists, organizations promoting human rights and sustainable development, opponents of privatization, and anti-sweatshop campaigners. These diverse stakeholders have coalesced to challenge the perceived inequities and negative consequences of the dominant model of globalization.

In his analysis, "The Revolt of the Elites and the Betrayal of Democracy," Christopher Lasch examines the widening gap between the top and bottom of the social composition in the United States. Lasch argues that the new elites, comprising the top 20% in terms of income, have become disconnected from their fellow citizens through the process of globalization, which has allowed for the unfettered mobility of capital.

These elites, Lasch contends, have effectively become "tourists in their own countries," more aligned with an international culture of work, leisure, and information than with the concerns and struggles of the ordinary citizen. By investing in private enclaves and withdrawing from common life, the new elites have insulated themselves from the declining industrial activity, job losses, the erosion of the middle class, and the rise of poverty and urban crises that have plagued the working classes.

As a result, the political debate has become largely confined to the dominant classes, with political ideologies losing touch with the lived experiences and needs of the broader population. This disconnect has led to a lack of viable solutions to the complex challenges facing society, as the concerns of the ordinary citizen have been sidelined in favor of the interests of the globalized elite.

The anti-globalization movement challenges this paradigm, seeking to rebalance the scales of power and influence, and to ensure that the benefits and burdens of globalization are more equitably distributed. This struggle reflects a deeper tension between the forces of economic integration and the preservation of local, national, and community-level interests and identities.

Scholars like D.A. Snow et al. have characterized the anti-globalization movement as an example of a new social movement, one that employs unique tactics and utilizes different resources compared to previous social movements.

One of the most prominent demonstrations of this new approach was the "Battle of Seattle" in 1999, where protesters gathered to voice their opposition to the World Trade Organization's Third Ministerial Meeting. This event set the tone for the anti-globalization movement's strategy, as protesters worldwide have since organized demonstrations outside the meetings of institutions like the WTO, the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, the World Economic Forum, and the G8.

Within the Seattle protests, the participants employed a diverse range of tactics, both creative and violent, in an effort to draw attention to the issues surrounding globalization. This willingness to engage in civil disobedience and disruptive actions represents a departure from the more conventional protest methods used in earlier social movements.

The anti-globalization movement's tactics reflect a shift in the resources and approaches utilized by contemporary social movements. Rather than relying solely on traditional means of political advocacy, these activists have embraced a more diverse repertoire of actions, including the strategic use of media, the leveraging of digital technologies, and the forging of transnational alliances.

By employing these innovative techniques, the anti-globalization movement has been able to amplify its message and challenge the power structures associated with the globalization of

corporate capitalism. This evolution in social movement strategies highlights the dynamic and adaptable nature of collective action in the 21st century.

The "Battle of Seattle" and the broader anti-globalization movement's tactical repertoire have demonstrated the ability of new social movements to capture public attention, mobilize diverse constituencies, and push for systemic change in the face of the perceived inequities and negative consequences of the dominant globalization paradigm.

Opposition to Capital Market Integration

The increasing integration of capital markets between countries has led to the emergence of a global capital marketplace or a single world market. This process of capital market integration has significant implications for different groups in society.

In the long run, the increased movement of capital between countries tends to favor the owners of capital more than any other group. This is because the enhanced mobility of capital allows owners to seek out the most profitable investment opportunities globally, potentially at the expense of workers and other stakeholders.

On the other hand, in the short run, the owners and workers in specific sectors within capital-exporting countries often bear much of the burden of adjusting to the increased movement of capital. As capital flows more freely, it can lead to shifts in economic activity and employment, creating disruptions and adjustment challenges for certain industries and communities.

The opponents of capital market integration, especially those concerned with human rights issues, are particularly troubled by the perceived abuses perpetuated by global and international institutions that they believe promote neoliberalism without adequate consideration for ethical standards. Common targets of criticism include the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the World Trade Organization, and various free trade agreements like NAFTA, FTAA, MAI, and GATS.

Movement adherents argue that in light of the economic gap between rich and poor countries, free trade without appropriate measures to protect the under-capitalized will only serve to

strengthen the power of industrialized nations (often referred to as the "North") at the expense of the developing world's "South."

This ongoing debate highlights the tensions and complexities surrounding the integration of global capital markets and the perceived trade-offs between economic efficiency, equity, and ethical considerations.

Anti-corporatism and Anti-consumerism

The rapid expansion of global commerce in recent years has been shaped by an underlying corporatist ideology that privileges the rights of corporations (artificial or juridical persons) over those of natural persons. This corporatist worldview has contributed to the accelerated pace of globalization.

In response, there has been a growing anti-corporate ideology gaining popularity, as evidenced by books like Naomi Klein's "No Logo" and films such as "The Corporation" and "Surplus." These works have helped to popularize a critical perspective on the role of large corporations in shaping the global economy and its impacts on society.

Closely related to the anti-corporate movement is the rise of anti-consumerism, a social movement that challenges the notion that personal happiness is intrinsically linked to the acquisition of material goods and services. This ideology of consumerism is also seen as a key driver of globalization, as the pursuit of ever-expanding consumer markets has fueled the expansion of global supply chains and retail networks.

Activists and scholars argue that materialism, driven by consumerist ideology, is connected to a range of social and environmental problems, including war, greed, anomie, crime, environmental degradation, and general social discontent. In response, the concept of "postconsumerism" has emerged, which emphasizes the strategic move beyond addictive consumerism and the pursuit of alternative models of sustainable and fulfilling lifestyles.

The growing anti-corporate and anti-consumerist movements reflect a broader societal reckoning with the perceived excesses and negative impacts of globalization, as driven by corporatist ideology and consumerist values. These movements challenge the hegemony of large corporations and the normalization of ever-increasing consumption, calling for a

reorientation of societal priorities and a more equitable, sustainable, and ethically grounded approach to global economic integration.

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Lecture 11: Anti-globalization Movement

Global Justice and Inequality

Global Justice

The global justice movement is a diverse and loosely connected collection of individuals and groups that advocate for fair trade rules and challenge the perceived flaws and inequities of current institutions of global economic integration. This movement is often mislabeled as "anti-globalization" by the mainstream media, but the movement's participants frequently reject this characterization.

Instead, the global justice movement supports the globalization of communication and the free movement of people, while opposing the unfettered global expansion of corporate power. At its core, the movement is rooted in the principles of social justice, seeking to create a more equitable society and global order based on the values of human rights, solidarity, and the inherent dignity of every human being.

A key focus of the global justice movement is the issue of social inequality, both within and between nations. This includes concerns over the growing global digital divide, which has excluded many in the developing world from the benefits of technological and economic progress. In response, a multitude of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have arisen to fight these inequalities, particularly in Latin America, Africa, and Asia.

Some of the well-known NGOs involved in this movement include War Child, the Red Cross, Free The Children, and CARE International. These organizations often work in partnership to improve the lives of those living in developing countries, building schools, repairing infrastructure, providing clean water, and supplying hospitals with essential equipment and supplies.

Ultimately, the global justice movement represents a broad-based challenge to the perceived excesses and inequities of corporate-led globalization. By championing social justice, human rights, and the dignity of all people, the movement seeks to reshape the institutions and rules governing the global economy in a more equitable and inclusive direction.

Social Inequality

Historically, the economies of the world have developed unevenly, with entire geographical regions mired in poverty and disease while others began to reduce poverty and disease on a wholesale basis. From around 1980 through at least 2011, the GDP gap, while still wide, appeared to be closing and, in some more rapidly developing countries, life expectancies began to rise. However, if we look at the Gini coefficient for world income, since the late 1980s, the gap between some regions has markedly narrowed—between Asia and the advanced economies of the West, for example—but huge gaps remain globally. Overall equality across humanity, considered as individuals, has improved very little. Within the decade between 2003 and 2013, income inequality grew even in traditionally egalitarian countries like Germany, Sweden and Denmark. With a few exceptions—France, Japan, Spain—the top 10 percent of earners in most advanced economies raced ahead, while the bottom 10 percent fell further behind. By 2013, 85 multibillionaires had amassed wealth equivalent to all the wealth owned by the poorest half (3.5 billion) of the world's total population of 7 billion.

Critics of globalization argue that globalization results in weak labor unions: the surplus in cheap labor coupled with an ever-growing number of companies in transition weakened labor unions in high-cost areas. Unions become less effective and workers their enthusiasm for unions when membership begins to decline. They also cite an increase in the exploitation of child labor: countries with weak protections for children are vulnerable to infestation by rogue companies and criminal gangs who exploit them. Examples include quarrying, salvage, and farm work as well as trafficking, bondage, forced labor, prostitution and pornography.

Women often participate in the workforce in precarious work, including export-oriented employment. Evidence suggests that while globalization has expanded women's access to employment, the long-term goal of transforming gender inequalities remains unmet and

appears unattainable without regulation of capital and a reorientation and expansion of the state's role in funding public goods and providing a social safety net. Furthermore, the intersectionality of gender, race, class, and more remain overlooked when assessing the impact of globalization.

In 2016, a study published by the IMF posited that neoliberalism, the ideological backbone of contemporary globalized capitalism, has been "oversold", with the benefits of neoliberal policies being "fairly difficult to establish when looking at a broad group of countries" and the costs, most significantly higher income inequality within nations, "hurt the level and sustainability of growth."

These critiques highlight the troubling reality that the gains of globalization have been highly uneven, with widening inequalities, the exploitation of vulnerable populations, and the weakening of labor protections. Addressing these challenges will require a reorientation of the policies and institutions governing the global economy.

Anti-global Governance

Beginning in the 1930s, there was increasing opposition to the notion of a world government, as advocated by organizations like the World Federalist Movement (WFM). Those opposed to global governance have raised several objections:

Unfeasibility - Critics argue that the idea of an effective world government is simply not feasible or practical to implement on a global scale.

Risk of Oppression - There are concerns that such concentrated global governance could inevitably lead to an oppressive system that infringes on national sovereignty and individual freedoms.

Unnecessary - Some believe that global governance is an unnecessary layer of bureaucracy, and that existing international cooperation and institutions are sufficient.

Concentration of Power/Wealth - A core objection is the risk of an unacceptable concentration of power and wealth that global governance could represent, undermining democratic accountability.

This opposition to world government or global governance has roots dating back to the founding of the League of Nations and later the United Nations. The critics remain wary of ceding national sovereignty and individual liberties to a centralized global system of governance.

These are complex and contentious issues, with reasonable arguments on both sides. Navigating the balance between effective international cooperation and preserving national autonomy remains an ongoing challenge.

Environmentalist Opposition

The relationship between globalization and environmental concerns is a complex and multifaceted issue with a long history. Beginning in the 1930s, opposition arose to the idea of a world government, as advocated by organizations such as the World Federalist Movement (WFM). Those who opposed global governance typically did so on the grounds that it was unfeasible, inevitably oppressive, or simply unnecessary. At the core of this opposition was a deep wariness of the potential concentration of power or wealth that such centralized global governance might represent. This reasoning had roots dating back to the founding of the League of Nations and, later, the United Nations.

One concrete example of the environmental impacts of globalization can be seen in the case of the Madagascar Highland Plateau. Deforestation in this region has led to extensive siltation and unstable flows of the western rivers, with cascading effects on the local ecosystem. Meanwhile, analyses of carbon footprint "hotspots" have revealed that major economies like the United States, Hong Kong, and Japan have significant impacts through their consumption patterns in China, contributing around 23%, 10.8%, and 9% respectively to China's total foreign carbon footprint in 2012.

Environmentalism has emerged as a broad philosophy, ideology, and social movement that is deeply concerned with a range of issues exacerbated by globalization. These include global concerns such as climate change, dwindling global water supplies and water crises, inequities in energy consumption and conservation, the transnational spread of air and ocean pollution, overpopulation, threats to biodiversity and habitats, and the accelerating rates of deforestation worldwide.

One prominent critique of globalization is that it has allowed the natural resources of poorer nations to be systematically exploited by richer countries, while the pollution and environmental degradation generated by the developed world is disproportionately offloaded onto the developing world. This has been described as a form of "environmental apartheid" by some scholars and activists.

The work of figures like Helena Norberg-Hodge has further highlighted how globalization's emphasis on standardization and rationalization does not always yield the expected growth outcomes, and can in fact move some countries backward instead of developing them economically. The "pollution haven hypothesis" suggests that companies often seek to relocate to countries with lax environmental regulations in order to reduce their costs, leading to a "race to the bottom" in environmental protections.

These tensions have manifested in activist opposition to major trade agreements like the EU-Mercosur deal, which environmental groups fear could accelerate deforestation of the Amazon rainforest. Navigating the complex balance between the economic forces of globalization and the environmental costs and inequities it can produce remains an ongoing challenge with profound implications for the future of our planet.

Food Security

Globalization has had a significant impact on the global food system, often associated with increased efficiency in food production. One of the key ways this efficiency has been achieved is through the ability to grow crops in countries with optimal growing conditions, rather than trying to force production in sub-optimal regions.

By taking advantage of the comparative advantages of different countries and regions, the global food system has been able to leverage the most suitable climates, soil conditions, access to water, and other factors to maximize yields and productivity. This geographical specialization has allowed for more efficient use of resources and greater overall food output.

For example, certain regions may be ideally suited for growing wheat, while others excel at producing fruits and vegetables. By concentrating production of these different crops in their

respective optimal locations, the global food supply chain can meet worldwide demand more effectively. This global distribution of food production has been a hallmark of the globalized economy.

The increased food supply stemming from this globalized and optimized production system has also had positive implications for global food security. With a larger overall volume of food available worldwide, the risk of shortages and famines has been reduced in many parts of the world. This has been a significant boon, especially for developing countries and populations that have historically struggled with chronic food insecurity.

However, this globalized food system is not without its vulnerabilities. The recent political movement known as 'BREXIT' (the United Kingdom's withdrawal from the European Union) has been seen by many as a step back from the process of globalization. This has had profound impacts on the UK's food supply chains, as the country relies on imports for a significant portion of its food - around 26% of its total food produce comes from the EU.

The disruption to these established food trade relationships has created challenges and uncertainties for the UK's food security. Logistical issues, tariffs, and regulatory changes have all contributed to a less efficient food supply system within the country. This highlights how the interconnectedness of globalized food production can also create vulnerabilities when political and economic relationships shift.

Navigating the balance between the efficiency gains of globalized food production and the potential risks and disruptions to local and regional food security remains an ongoing challenge. As the world continues to grapple with issues like climate change, population growth, and geopolitical tensions, the resilience and sustainability of the global food system will be of paramount importance in the years and decades ahead.

Role of ICTs in Global and Local Development

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) play a crucial role in both global and local development by facilitating communication, enhancing access to information, and driving economic growth. Their impact is felt in various sectors, including education,

healthcare, agriculture, and governance. Here’s an overview of how ICTs contribute to development at both global and local levels.

University of Ibn Khaldoun

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of English

Academic Year: 2024/2025

Lecture 12:

1. Enhancing Communication

Global Connectivity:

ICTs enable instantaneous communication across the globe, breaking down geographical barriers. This connectivity facilitates collaboration among businesses, governments, and organizations, fostering international partnerships and trade.

Local Engagement:

At the local level, ICTs improve communication within communities and between citizens and government. Social media and mobile applications allow residents to voice their concerns, participate in decision-making, and engage with public services.

2. Access to Information

Knowledge Dissemination:

ICTs provide access to vast amounts of information, empowering individuals and communities to make informed decisions. Online resources, e-learning platforms, and digital libraries enhance educational opportunities globally and locally.

Local Relevance:

Local information systems using ICTs (e.g., community radio, mobile alerts) help disseminate timely information about health, agriculture, and disaster management, directly benefiting local populations.

3. Economic Development

E-Commerce:

ICTs enable businesses to reach global markets through e-commerce platforms. This not only increases sales opportunities but also allows local entrepreneurs to compete on a larger scale.

Job Creation:

The ICT sector itself creates jobs and stimulates economic growth. Local tech startups and initiatives can drive innovation and provide employment opportunities in communities.

4. Improving Education

E-Learning Platforms:

ICTs facilitate distance learning and online courses, making education accessible to remote and underserved populations. This is particularly important in developing countries where traditional education infrastructure may be lacking.

Skill Development:

Online training programs and workshops equip individuals with essential skills, enhancing employability and helping local economies thrive.

5. Healthcare Access

Telemedicine:

ICTs enable remote consultations and health services, improving access to healthcare for individuals in rural or underserved areas. This is especially vital in regions with limited medical facilities.

Health Information Systems:

ICTs support the management of health data, improving disease tracking, resource allocation, and overall healthcare delivery at both local and global levels.

6. Governance and Civic Participation

E-Government:

ICTs enhance transparency and efficiency in government operations through e-governance platforms. Citizens can access services online, participate in public consultations, and hold officials accountable.

Empowerment:

Social media and mobile applications empower citizens to engage in advocacy and activism, fostering a more participatory approach to governance and community development.

7. Addressing Global Challenges

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs):

ICTs are instrumental in achieving the United Nations' SDGs by promoting innovation, fostering partnerships, and enabling data collection and analysis for informed policy-making.

Disaster Response:

In times of crisis, ICTs facilitate rapid communication and coordination for disaster response. Mobile technology can be used for early warning systems and to mobilize resources effectively.

The Role of English in this GlobalizedWorld

The prominence of the English language on the global stage can be attributed to a confluence of historical, political, and socioeconomic factors. The legacy of the British Empire, which spanned vast territories across the world, laid the foundation for the widespread dissemination of the English language. As the Empire expanded its sphere of influence, it imposed the use of English in its colonies, administrative systems, and commercial activities, effectively seeding the language in diverse regions.

The subsequent rise of the United States as the dominant economic and military superpower in the 20th century further cemented the global status of English. The post-World War II

international order, characterized by the preeminence of American political, economic, and cultural influence, made English the language of global diplomacy, international organizations, and the burgeoning field of information technology.

In the modern globalized era, the ubiquity of the English language has enabled the seamless flow of information, ideas, and resources across borders. This has facilitated the growth of multinational corporations, the integration of global supply chains, and the rapid diffusion of scientific and technological advancements. The ability to communicate effectively in English has become an essential skill for individuals and organizations seeking to participate in and thrive within the global marketplace.

Beyond the realms of business and academia, the dominance of the English language has had a profound impact on cultural exchange and the dissemination of information. The prevalence of English-language media, entertainment, and social platforms has led to the homogenization of certain aspects of global culture, as content and trends originating in English-speaking countries, particularly the United States, gain widespread traction worldwide.

This cultural hegemony of the English language has sparked concerns and debates, particularly among those who fear the erosion of linguistic diversity. Critics argue that the over-reliance on English can marginalize minority languages and local dialects, as they struggle to maintain relevance and influence in the face of the relentless spread of the dominant language.

Furthermore, the disproportionate global influence of the English language has been criticized for perpetuating cultural and economic inequalities. Populations that do not speak or have limited proficiency in English may face barriers to accessing opportunities, resources, and information, thereby exacerbating existing disparities.

In response to these concerns, there have been efforts to promote linguistic diversity and multilingualism within the context of globalization. Organizations and initiatives have emerged to support the preservation and revitalization of endangered languages, while also

encouraging the acquisition of multiple languages as a means of fostering cross-cultural understanding and intercultural communication.

These efforts aim to strike a balance between the practical advantages of a common language and the preservation of linguistic and cultural diversity, recognizing the inherent value and richness that multilingualism can bring to the globalized world. As the world continues to evolve, the role of the English language and its impact on various aspects of society will remain a complex and dynamic issue requiring careful consideration and navigation.

Certainly, let's take a closer look at the data surrounding the use of English in the globalized world:

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Lecture 13: the importance of the English as a global language

English as a First Language:

Approximately 379 million people worldwide use English as their first language, representing around 5% of the global population.The countries with the largest populations of native English speakers are the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

English as a second language:

It is estimated that around 1.5 billion people, or approximately 20% of the world's population, use English as a second language.The countries with the highest populations of English as a second language users include India, Nigeria, the Philippines, and numerous countries in Europe and Africa.

English as a language of instruction:

English is the primary language of instruction in many educational systems around the world, especially at the higher education level.

Approximately 59% of the world's top 500 universities use English as the primary language of instruction.In countries like Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines, English is widely used as a medium of instruction in schools and universities.

English in international organizations and business:

English is the dominant language used in international organizations, with around 95% of such organizations using English as an official or working language.

In the business world, English is the primary language of communication for multinational corporations, with an estimated 75% of international transactions conducted in English.

English in global media and popular culture:

The global market share of English-language media, including films, television shows, music, and literature, is estimated to be around 50-60%.Social media platforms and the internet are also heavily dominated by English, with around 60% of online content being in English.

These statistics highlight the extensive reach and influence of the English language in the globalized world, spanning various domains, from education and business to media and communication. While the dominance of English has brought about increased efficiency and interconnectedness, it has also raised concerns about the potential erosion of linguistic diversity and the perpetuation of cultural and economic inequalities. Navigating this complex landscape requires a balanced approach that acknowledges the practical advantages of a common language while also supporting the preservation and promotion of multilingualism.

English Language Education in the Light of the Globalization Era

The globalization era has profoundly influenced English language education, reshaping the way language is taught, learned, and used around the world. As English continues to emerge as a global lingua franca, understanding its implications for language education is crucial for both educators and learners. Here are key aspects of how globalization has impacted English language education.

1. Increased Demand for English Proficiency

Global Communication:

The rise of global communication networks has created a heightened demand for English proficiency. English is the primary language of international business, diplomacy, and academia, making it essential for individuals seeking opportunities in a globalized world.

Access to Resources:

With the internet providing vast resources in English, learners are increasingly motivated to acquire language skills to access information, participate in global discussions, and connect with diverse cultures.

2. Curriculum and Pedagogy

Incorporation of Global Perspectives:

English language curricula are evolving to include global issues, cultural awareness, and intercultural communication. This prepares learners to navigate a multicultural world and appreciate diverse perspectives.

Innovative Teaching Methods:

The globalization era has encouraged the adoption of communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based learning, emphasizing real-life communication and collaborative learning experiences. Technology integration, such as online platforms and multimedia resources, has further enhanced language instruction.

3. Technology and Online Learning

E-Learning Opportunities:

The proliferation of online courses and language-learning apps has made English education more accessible. Learners can engage with native speakers, participate in virtual exchanges, and access a wealth of learning materials from anywhere in the world.

Blended Learning Models:

Many educational institutions are adopting blended learning approaches that combine face-to-face instruction with online resources, catering to diverse learning preferences and schedules.

4. Cultural Exchange and Global Citizenship

Cultural Awareness:

English language education promotes cultural exchange, allowing learners to explore and understand different cultures through language. This fosters global citizenship and encourages empathy and respect for diversity.

Critical Thinking Skills:

Engaging with global issues in English language education cultivates critical thinking skills, enabling learners to analyze and respond to complex problems in a global context.

5. Challenges and Considerations

Language Inequality:

While globalization promotes English language learning, it can also exacerbate linguistic inequalities. Not all learners have equal access to quality English education, leading to disparities in opportunities.

Cultural Imperialism:

There are concerns about the dominance of English leading to the erosion of local languages and cultures. English language education must balance global communication needs with the preservation of linguistic diversity.

Contextual Relevance:

English teaching must be context-sensitive, addressing the specific needs and backgrounds of learners. Tailoring instruction to the local context enhances relevance and engagement.

Conclusion

English language education in the globalization era is marked by both opportunities and challenges. As English continues to serve as a bridge across cultures and economies, educators must adapt their approaches to meet the demands of a rapidly changing world. By fostering intercultural understanding, promoting equitable access to learning, and embracing innovative teaching methods, English language education can empower individuals to thrive in a global society while respecting and preserving linguistic diversity.

1.19. Conclusion:

Globalization is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that has fundamentally transformed the world in which we live. This process of increasing interconnectedness and interdependence among nations, economies, and cultures has had profound and far-reaching implications across various spheres of human activity.

At the heart of globalization lies the rapid advancements in technology, communication, and transportation, which have facilitated the seamless flow of information, goods, services, and people across borders. This has led to the creation of a more integrated global marketplace, where individuals and organizations can engage in cross-cultural exchanges and collaborate on a truly international scale.

However, the process of globalization has also given rise to a host of challenges and concerns. The dominance of certain languages, particularly English, as the lingua franca of the global community has raised issues of linguistic and cultural homogenization, potentially undermining the diversity that has long been a hallmark of the human experience.

Moreover, the uneven distribution of the benefits of globalization has exacerbated existing inequalities, both within and across nations. Vulnerable populations, particularly in the developing world, may face barriers to accessing the opportunities and resources made available through the globalized landscape, further widening the economic and social divides.

As we grapple with the realities of the globalized world, it is imperative that we adopt a nuanced and balanced approach. While embracing the advantages of increased connectivity and collaboration, we must also strive to preserve and nurture the richness of cultural and linguistic diversity. This will require concerted efforts at the individual, community, and global levels to promote inclusive and sustainable forms of globalization that benefit all.

Ultimately, the future of globalization will be shaped by our collective ability to navigate its complexities, address its challenges, and harness its potential to create a more just, equitable, and prosperous world for all. By fostering mutual understanding, respect, and a commitment to the common good, we can ensure that the promise of globalization is realized in a manner that enriches the human experience and safeguards the unique tapestry of our global community.

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