



**Sudan University of Science and Technology**  
**College of Graduate Studies**  
**College of Languages**



**A Critical Content Analysis of Martin Luther King Jr.  
Speeches (I Have a Dream) as a Model**

**تحليل نقدي لمضمون خُطْبَ مارتن لوثر كينغ (الابن)  
خطبة (لديَّ حلم) أنموذجًا**

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for PhD in English  
(Applied Linguistics)

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

## **Dedication**

This study is dedicated to all my teachers with true gratitude, especially Prof. Mohamed Mahmoud Salih, Ustaz Shawgi Hamza and the Late Ustaz A/Aziz Shorbagi. It is also dedicated to my wife, for her encouragement, patience and help.

## **Acknowledgements**

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My great thanks are extended to Ahfad University for Women, for the references I obtained from their early annual book exhibition.

Also my warm gratitude is for everyone who assisted in pushing this work to be done.

## **Abstract**

This study aims at a critical content analysis for the speeches and writings of Martin Luther King, Jr., with reference to the speech “I Have a Dream”. The study adopts a mixed- method approach, the descriptive analytical and experimental methods. A questionnaire of different and various statements is employed to collect data, categorizing information and then applying the analytical procedures. The study findings match the hypotheses of the thesis, the speech has a great influence on the Black community and the whole world which was attracted to the Black issue in America. The researcher recommends that content analysis should be a large scale study to handle such issues as the inclusion of this significant method at undergraduate level, and to increase classroom interaction, also syllabuses of English language should seek to consider the question of content analysis as a distinguished method of analysis. The study puts forward the following suggestions: future studies to be carried out on relatively larger scales as to include both Discourse Analysis and Content Analysis and underline the differences between the two approaches. The present study can be further extended by means of a quasi-research to have better results with implications for the tutors at undergraduate level.

## Abstract (Arabic Version)

### المستخلص

تهدف الدراسة إلى التحليل النقدي لمضمون الخطاب الشهير لمارتن لوثر كنج- الابن "الذي حلم" كإنموذج لخطبه وكتاباتة. تتبنى الدراسة منحيّ يجمع بين المناهج الوصفي، التحليلي، والتجريبي. استُخدم استبيان يتكوّن من مجموعة مختلفة ومتنوّعة من الحقائق لجمع البيانات وترتيبها ومن ثمّ إجراء العملية التحليلية. تتوافق نتائج البحث مع فروض الدراسة. كان للخطاب أثره البالغ على مجتمع السود الأمريكيين ولفت أنظار العالم لقضية الزواج في أمريكا. يوصى الباحث بان يكون منهج تحليل المضمون موضعاً للدراسة المتوسعة واستخدامه في المراحل ما قبل الجامعية، كما يوصى البحث بزيادة التفاعل داخل فصول الدراسة، ويجب أن تبحث المناهج الدراسية لتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية اعتبار مسألة تحليل المضمون كأداة فعالة للتحليل. تقدم الدراسة اقتراحات منها: أن تجري دراسات مستقبلية على نطاق أوسع لتشمل كل من منهجي تحليل الخطاب وتحليل المضمون وأن توضح الفروق بين كل من المنهجين. يمكن التوسع في الدراسة الحالية باتباع البحوث شبه التجريبية للحصول على نتائج وآثار أفضل على المعلمين في المراحل ما قبل الجامعية.

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# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

### **1.0 Overview:**

This chapter provides a description of the theoretical framework of the study, with a special focus on the study problem and the research methodology.

### **1.1 Background:**

In the recent few decades, Black Americans have held many blue ribbon positions at various concerns of the modern American life. This was not an easy attainment for the Blacks, but has been achieved after a long, terrible and horrifying struggle journey. That awful journey started with captivity from their native land “Africa”. Then setting in the endanger ocean sail, in which nearly half of them were dead or drowned. After landing, they lived the dark long years of servitude and hardness, being tortured and working under ruthless conditions in fields of sugar, cotton and tobacco for merely the advantage of their owners “the Whites”. They suffered till proclaiming abolition of slavery was lastly endorsed and difficultly enforced.

Black slaves of the Northern American states won their right to be free and to obtain their civil rights prior to their brothers in the Southern states. Decision makers, who were necessarily the owners of the Blacks were against the emancipation laws, because their economy was depending on the labor of the slaves, they have harshly confronted the idea of releasing Blacks out of their vigorous hands, they worked on withdrawal out of the union, establishing a provisional government and called it the “Confederate States of America” (Hughes and Milton, 134). In such a climate of defiance and



disunity, on March 4, 1861, Lincoln took the oath of the office. On April 12, the Confederate forces bombarded from Sumter, South Carolina, the civil war had begun. (Hughes and Milton, 134).Effect of this act was to free slaves in states still in rebellion against implementing the act.

Followed were the long years of inequality and segregation in the Southern states, there were churches, schools, shops and restaurants for the Blacks aside from the Whites, buses and public transport was also divided into certain seats for the Whites, and at the rear for Blacks. Many individuals rebelled against the injustice segregation practices, and several gathering movements aroused, nevertheless the “Civil Right Movement (CRM)” in the sixtieth of the twentieth century was the most efficacious of the stirrings, and Martin Luther King, Jr. was one of the most note worthiest leader of the movement.

In some persons we find heroes, in some martyrs, in some leaders, in some symbolism of a time and a place, the modern civil rights movement began a century after the beginning of the civil war. It took many forms and had many leaders, one of those leaders was Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Myers 1991 (259-260).

A bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama, had launched the career of the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., who became the spokesman for the nonviolent movement toward integration Myer, (262). (Rosa Park, the black lady who refused to give her seat to a white man, and this was the spark for the bus boycott that has cost the transport company a high loss, then after a year the company admitted the rights for Blacks as equal to the Whites).

King has chosen the non-violent approach towards solving the conflict, while in the south Martin Luther King, Jr., was leading the non-

violent move to integrate American society, Malclom X in the North was preaching a different philosophy. Myer (266).

As an educated man and a priest, he had been also gifted a charisma that has a remarkable influence upon his audience of his own skin, and even over the Whites who were against segregation and inequality. All this, besides his talent in using words in an affective pathetic style, were of great impression to enthuse people.

The high point of a day of songs and speeches came with the address of Martin Luther King, Jr., who had emerged as the preeminent spokesman for the civil rights, “I have a Dream” that one day on the red hills of Georgia the sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave owners will be able to sit down together at the table of brotherhood”, King proclaimed. Each time he used the refrain “I have a Dream”, the crowd roared. U.S Dept. of State, (277).

No doubt that the religious background for King and his soul’s absorption of the Christian teachings and tolerance, lead him to choose the non-violence path. His speeches were addressed to the whole nation Blacks, Whites and Colored, touching their faith and their human emotion; he also has an authentic consciousness to what was running around him in society and even outside America.

He drew the interest of the media of that time, by his distinctive attitudes towards the human rights issues around the world and the issue of his people.

He has been also against the involvement of his country in Vietnam, and then he became an international popular character to win the Noble Prize (1964).

Despite the violence and imprisonment he himself and his family encountered by the Ku Klux Klan (Ku Klux Klan was a violent group of Whites, who were face masked and carried out fierceness acts against Blacks). enmity attacks against the Black folk, he remained rigidly standing to his principles of the nonviolence resistance.

His words, expressions and religious citations, were due to the economic situation of his clan, and to the social conflict of segregation and inferiority, accordingly the study will go analyzing the speech linguistically at many levels, and all images the text contains. And as it was said according to Jorgensen (2002) that analysis is considered to be wider and broader which analyses the relation of language within a society and its impact on discourse. They are of the view that linguistic and social variable in research analysis are closely knitted to each other because whenever we approach any text or discourse, we approach it from linguistic perspective and emphasize how choice of language in a particular discourse pertaining the socio-political context tries to analyze the discursive practices, the research will follow back the dominating environment at that period.

Oration has been rooted in the human heritage, since the early days of the great Greek thinkers and philosophers, who were the founders of the public speech basis. Oration has shown, and still showing that it is the most effective factor in politics and directing the public opinion.

It depends on the argumentative abilities of the speaker, to reach the point of convincing audience and win their support for the points he is propounding. An elaborated adequate will be explained.

Also oration is known as the persuasive speech of the speaker to get the attention of his audience to follow, support and agree with his opinions,

that by using different rhetoric devices to convey the required meaning and to persuade the attending people.

The study will forward a detailed history for this art of convincing people and changing their trends.

Martin Luther King Jr., has taken the benefit of delivering public speeches to draw the attention of his black clan, the Whites and even the whole world to the strife, discrimination and inequality situation Black communities are suffering, by his successfully usage of rhetoric art as the denotative and connotative language.

Choosing the “I have a Dream”, that extraordinary speech, by an extraordinary leader, was the crucial motive to select it as the topic of this thesis.

Content analysis has been picked out from many and different techniques, to be followed in this study, for its credibility and objectivity. It is a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within a text or a set of texts; it is a method for summarizing any form of content by counting various aspects of the content.

Historically, content analysis has been considered as a time consuming process, that because analyzing was done manually, or by slow mainframe computers using punch cards, punched by human coders. However, despite its impracticality resulted from the slow coding procedures, and the human error prospects, this method was applied widely especially in analyzing newspapers statistical measurements, and so many other domains.

To conduct a content analysis on any text, text is coded, or broken down into manageable categories on a variety of levels – words, word

sense, phrase, sentence, image or theme – and then examined using one of the content analysis basic methods: conceptual or rational analysis.

Content analysis has been always thought of in terms of conceptual analysis, a concept is chosen for examination, and the analysis involves quantifying and tallying its presence.

Reliability of a content analysis study refers to its stability, whereas validity refers to the correspondence of categories to the conclusions, and the generalizability of results to a theory.

Questionnaires used to support the study were designed and judged by a jury of professional and highly educated members.

This technique of content analysis seems to be the right tool to follow in this study, that for the accuracy and precise, well tight results proceeded from the statistical equations it uses to assure the reliability and validity of every items it examines.

## **1.2 Statement of the Research Problem:**

Researcher is going to investigate the impact of the speech “I Have a Dream” by MLK on Black Americans, the researcher realized that studies in Black American struggle and movements were rather few in our universities, yet from a linguistic point of view, they were much scarcer. Hence, this study specifically investigating the accuracy of content analysis to work in such researches and analysis of the speech gives us an obvious image of the impact of it on crowds of people and changed the view of the world towards the subject of the Black sufferings in America.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study:**

The study will investigate:

1. The power of word in King's speeches on the crowds of Black Americans.
2. Stirring up the Blacks to call for their right in equality and dignity.
3. Content analysis is proven to be an appropriate method if applied on such studies.

Sacrifices of Black leaders whom king was a distinguished figure of them, were exactly the price for the Blacks advancement and prosperity in the U.S.A of today. At the same time the study will show that content analysis method is the appropriate tool to be applied on such studies.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study:**

The study acquires its significance primarily for the professional linguistic analysis it provides. It will analyze and discuss in detail the figurative language and images the text reflects. It will examine the textual features and context in which the text has been articulated within. The importance of this study arises from the fact that it addresses such a sensitive issue as the speech of the Black people on their struggle towards achieving their rights as citizens of the US. Then in another level, the analysis is going to correlate the articulated and written texts to their inspiring and at the same time painful origin sources. This means that the research will reflect back the political air of the time, the social structure of the American society, Black American society and their struggle and suffering to gain their liberty.

The research and in its distinguished way of relating words and phrases will expose the religious and mere human motives to get them flow out of that

distinctive inspired personality. Economic situation of the Blacks was also definitely one of the most important spurs of our orator and writer.

In a way, the study is going to review the history of the USA at the time of the Civil Rights Movements and the preceding years for it and will portray and acquaint readers to such a preferential character.

According to Fairclough (1995b) 'Linguistic analysis of discourse practice in socio-cultural background is known as intertextual analysis. Here the linguistic analysis is the analysis of the text at lexical, syntactic, grammatical and vocabulary level. Cohesion, Coherence and organization of the text are also included in this analysis'. This analysis focused on the text by keeping in view all discourse practices.

Gee (1990) and Samson (1980) put an argument that CCA systematically interprets discourses with the help of various approaches by keeping in view socio-political and economic context. Here social semiotics plays significant role in the interpretation of discourse because the analysis would be done on the basis of social factors in the specific context.

The researcher hopes that the study will be of benefit and help for a wide range of students and researchers in the field of linguistics firstly; secondly it will reflect a political, social and historical information for that period of time in America. In a sense, the research is a proof that content analysis is the appropriate tool for such kind of studies.

### **1.5 The Study Questions:**

The study will try to find answers for the following questions:

- 1) To what extent did the speeches and writings of Martin Luther King change the world and stir up his audiences and readers?
- 2) To what extent did king use religious, political and human rights expressions to convince his audiences and readers?

3) What are the textual features used by King and their effect upon thousands of Blacks in America?

### **1.6 The Study Hypotheses:**

The following hypotheses are formulated:

- 1- King speeches and writings changed the world and stirred up his audiences and readers.
- 2- King used political religious, human rights and ethical expressions to stir up his people and to gain his clan's rights.
- 3- King used textual features that had direct effect on recipients of his speech "I have a Dream", especially his folk, the Blacks.

### **1.7 Methodology of the Study:**

The study is mainly based on a mixed-method approach, descriptive, analytical and experimental methods.

### **Summary of the Chapter:**

In this chapter, a background of the study has been given. The chapter also displayed the problem, importance, questions, and hypotheses of the research. Limits to the speech to be analyzed linguistically, and the methods carried in discuss were defined.



## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review and Previous Studies**

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review and Previous Studies**

#### **2.0 Overview:**

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue of Critical Content Analysis as a tool of investigation and analysis of political speech. It tries to discuss how teacher at primary school classrooms can be creative enough as to facilitate the teaching and learning process. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

#### **Part one: Theoretical Framework**

##### **2.1 Background:**

This study seeks to provide an overall image of the speech of Martin Luther King with very special reference to his magnum opus “I Have a Dream”. This process is only ideally achievable through the method of content analysis. Content analysis is potentially one of the most important research techniques in the social sciences. The content analyst views data as representations not of physical events but of texts, images and expressions that are created to be seen, read, interpreted and acted on for their meanings, and must therefore be analyzed with such uses in mind. Analyzing texts in the contexts of their uses distinguishes content analysis from other methods of inquiry.

Methods in the natural sciences are not concerned with meanings, contents, intentions and reference, these scientists hardly reflect on their own conceptions of nature, excluding their conceptions from their object of study by dismissing them as subjective in contrast to what can be determined

through detached observation and objective measurement. Where social researchers adopt natural scientific methods of inquiry, the epistemology that is inscribed in such methods prevents them from addressing what matters most in everyday social life: human communication, how people coordinate their lives, the commitments they make to each other and to the conceptions of society they aspire to, what they know, and why they act. Certainly, content analysis is not the only research method that takes meanings seriously, but it is a method that is both powerful and unobtrusive. It makes sense of what is mediated between people-textual matter, symbols, messages, information, mass-media content and technology, supported social interactions-without perturbing or affecting those who handle that textual matter.

In the 1980s, content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research. At that time, the amount of human effort required to collect, transcribe and code textual data made content analysis a time consuming and labor-intensive effort. Today, content analysis has become an efficient alternative to public opinion research, a method of tracking markets, political leanings, and emerging ideas; it is used as a way to settle legal disputes and as an approach to the exploration of individual human minds- not to dwell on the many improvements that content analysts have made in traditional content analytic inquiries of the mass media. Despite remarkable progress, content analysts can hardly claim to have met the challenges of this new era. The imagined analytical potential is far ahead of what can be done today, fueling the work of many developers of new analytic tools.

## **2.2 Content Analysis Defined**

The term content analysis is about 60 years old. Webster's Dictionary of the English Language included the term in its 1961 edition, defining it as "analysis of the manifest and latent content of a body of communicated material (as a book or film) through classification, tabulation and evaluation of its key symbols and themes in order to ascertain its meaning and probable effect". The intellectual roots of content analysis, however, can be traced far back in human history, to the beginning of the conscious use of symbols and voice, especially writing. This conscious use, which replaced the magical use of language, has been shaped by the ancient disciplines of philosophy, rhetoric, and cryptography. It has also spawned religious inquisitions and political censorship on the part of ruling establishments. Today, symbolic phenomena are institutionalized in art, literature, education, and the mass media, including the Internet. Theoretical and analytical concerns are found in such academic disciplines as anthropology, linguistics, social psychology, sociology of knowledge, and the comparatively younger field of communication studies. Many practical pursuits have grown from these fields: psychotherapy, advertising, politics, the arts, and so on. Virtually all disciplines within the whole spectrum of the humanities and the social sciences, including those that seek to improve the political and social conditions of life, are concerned with the functions and effects of symbols, meanings, and messages. In recent years, the emergence of the information society has moved the minutiae of communication-texts, contexts, images, interfaces, and, above all, information into the very center of researchers' attempts at self-understanding.

However ancient the roots of analyzing symbolic and textual matter might be, today's content analysis is significantly different, in aim and in

method, from that of the past. Contemporary content analysis has three distinguishing characteristics.

First, content analysis is an empirically grounded method, exploratory in process, and predictive or inferential in intent. Many of our current concepts relating to language are of Greek origin; for example, the words sign, significance, symbol and logic all have Greek roots. However, the ancient Greeks' interest in language was largely prescriptive and classificatory, not empirical. Aristotelian logic set the standards for clear expression, and much of rhetorical theory was directed toward a normative conception of persuasive argumentation. Science that explores rather than declares is a relatively recent accomplishment. Only a century ago, George Boole and his contemporaries believed that the brain works according to (Boolean) logic and that human conduct entirely rational. However, computers built on this logic turned out to be rather disappointing thinking machines. Empirical research in psychology is replacing Aristotelian categories in favor of a "psycho-logic". And we no longer measure human communication against the ideal of transmitting information. Instead, we inquire into what happens to the relationships between people who converse with one another.

With new conceptualizations and an empirical orientation, contemporary content analysts join other researchers in seeking valid knowledge or practical support for actions and critique. However, unlike researchers who employ other empirical techniques, content analysts examine data, printed matter, images, or sounds-texts-in order to understand what they mean to people, what they enable or prevent and what the information conveyed by them does. These are questions for which natural

scientists have no answers and for which their methods are generally insensitive.

Second, contemporary content analysis transcends traditional notions of symbols, contents, and intents. This may be seen in the evolution of the concept of communication, in how the development of media technologies has shaped our attention to communication, and in the role of culture in assigning significance to what is being analyzed. I would argue that in recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions, as described below, and probably is in the midst of a fifth:

- The idea of *messages*: the early awareness not only that verbal discourse is movable when written, but that writing has predictable effects. This awareness emerged in ancient Greece when messengers were used as the carriers of significance, history became documented, laws of the land were laid down in writing, and written instructions built organizational structures, directed events, and influenced (and possibly deceived) their receivers or the public. The concept of a message was a precursor of the rhetorical exploration of language. Tropes, syllogisms, and meanings came to be thought of as inherent qualities of speeches, letters, or documents. But a message is the metaphorical container of all these, a "container of content", a vehicle for shipping meanings from one place to another—for example, when we now leave a message for someone on an answering machine or say that a message was meaningful (full of meanings) or meaningless (void of meanings).
- The idea of *channels*: the awareness of the constraints that every medium imposes on human communication. This awareness came with the increased reliance on different media of communication and served to explain their limitations: The alphabet limits what one can say in writing;

the telephone confines communication to sound; and a television station can air no more than what is transmittable without interference from other stations, appealing to large audiences, and deemed profitable by its sponsors. The channel metaphor conjures images of canals and pipes with restricted capacities for shipping messages (with their contents) of certain forms and volumes.

- The idea of *communication*: the awareness of the relational space between senders and receivers, of the processes through which interpersonal relations are negotiated, social structures are constituted and members of large populations come to know about each other. This awareness developed as an offshoot of the growth in mass media. By producing and disseminating identical messages-news and entertainment-to everyone, the mass media promised to be an agent of sharing, of building community relationships, of democratization, ideally, worldwide. Modeling themselves on the idea of mass production, the mass media also made us aware of where this one-way model failed: in interpersonal conversation, point-to-point telephone communication, public debate, and dialogue. In U.S. culture, mass-media technology has become synonymous with progress, and communication is understood as the cure for most social problems-for example, we often blame lack of communication or miscommunication when interpersonal as well as national conflicts arise.
- The idea of *systems*: the awareness of global, dynamic, and technologically supported interdependencies. This idea emerged with the growth of communication networks-telephone nets, wire services, mass-media systems, and most recently the Internet-transforming commerce, politics, and interpersonal relationships, creating networks whose

properties have so far defied attempts to theorize them adequately. Unlike the one-way mass media, systems are marked by the interactivity and simultaneity of parallel communication on a massive scale and with the potential of nearly universal participation.

- The idea of computation: the awareness of the algorithmic nature of certain routine cognitive and social processes and their implementation in increasingly powerful computers. The processing of digital data in place of cognitive and social practices, along with the ability to reproduce these data in visual and textual forms for reading, rearticulating, and disseminating by and ideally to everyone, is encouraging an entirely new literacy that undercuts traditional organizational structures, including national boundaries. The fluidity and enormous complexity that computation has introduced into almost all spheres of life amplify the possibilities for scientific exploration as well as to present unprecedented challenges for collective understanding. This rather sketchy history of communication suggests that researchers who are concerned with texts can no longer focus only on symbols or representations, nor can they limit themselves to questions about "who says what, through which channels, to whom, and with which effects" (Lasswell, 1960). The popular and simplistic notion of "content" has outlived its explanatory capabilities as well: content, the what of a communication, an entity that authors think they enter into messages and ship to remote receivers, who remove it for what it is and henceforth share it among others. This bizarre notion leads to authors as authorities of what they put into messages and to the conception of content analysts as experts who provide objective accounts of what messages were intended to convey or actually contain.



## 2.3 History of Content Analysis

Empirical inquiries into the meanings of communications date back to theological studies in the late 1600s, when the Church found the printing of nonreligious materials to be a threat to its authority. Such inquiries have since mushroomed, moving into numerous areas and becoming the backbone of communication research. This chapter discusses several stages in the history of content analysis: quantitative studies of the press; propaganda analysis during World War II; social scientific uses of the technique in studies of political symbols, historical documents, anthropological data, and psychotherapeutic exchanges; computer text analysis and the new media; and qualitative challenges to content analysis.

Content analysis entails a systematic reading of a body of texts, images, and symbolic matter, not necessary from an author's or user's perspective. Although the term content analysis did not appear in English until 1941 (Waples & Berelson, 1941, p. 2; cited in Berelson & Lazarsfeld, 1948), the systematic analysis of text can be traced back to inquisitorial pursuits by the Church in the 17th century. Religions have always been captivated by the written word, so it is not surprising that the first known dissertations about newspapers were defended in 1690, 1695, and 1699 by individuals pursuing academic degrees in theology. After the advent of the printing press, the Church became worried about the spread of printed matter of a nonreligious nature, and so it dealt with newspaper content in moralizing terms (Groth, 1948, p.26). Surprisingly, in spite of the rhetorical tradition of ancient Greece, which was normative and oral in orientation, the 17th century contributed very little to the methodology of content analysis.

Probably the first well-documented quantitative analyses of printed matter occurred in 18th-century Sweden. According to Doving's (1954-

1955) account, these analyses were undertaken as the result of the publication of the Songs of Zion, a collection of 90 hymns of unknown authorship. The collection had passed the Royal Swedish censor, but soon after its publication, it was blamed for undermining the orthodox clergy of the Swedish state church. When the collection became popular, it was said to be "contagious" and was accused of aiding a dissenting group. Outstanding in this case is the fact that literary scholars of good reputation participated in the controversy, which crystallized around the question of whether the songs harbored dangerous ideas and, if so, how. Scholars on one side made a list of the religious symbols in the songs and became alarmed. Those on the other side, however, found the very same symbols in established song books and so discounted the claimed difference. Then some scholars noted that the symbols in the songs occurred in different contexts and had acquired meanings that were different from those taught in the official church. A debate arose about whether the meanings should be interpreted literally or metaphorically. The interpretations came to be compared with the results of a German study of the outlawed Moravian Brethren, a religious sect whose members later immigrated to the United States. This process-of revising a method in response to criticism--continued until it became clear to both sides in the debate how the symbols in the Songs of *Zion* differed from the symbols used in the official songbooks and how this (in the end political) phenomenon could be explained. The controversy generated many ideas that are now part of content analysis and stimulated debates about methodology that continue today.

## **2.4 Early Content Analysis**

The second phase in the intellectual growth of content analysis, which took place in the 1930s and 1940s, involved at least four factors:

- During the period following the 1929 economic crisis, numerous social and political problems emerged in the United States. Many Americans believed that the mass media were at least partially to blame for such problems as yellow journalism, rising crime rates, and the breakdown of cultural values.
- New and increasingly powerful electronic media of communication, first radio and later television, challenged the cultural hegemony of the newspapers. Researchers could not continue to treat these new media as extensions of newspapers, because they differed from the print media in important ways. For example, users of radio and television did not have to be able to read.
- Major political challenges to democracy were linked to the new mass media. For example, the rise of fascism was seen as nourished by the as-yet little-known properties of radio.
- Perhaps most important, this period saw the emergence of the behavioral and social sciences as well as increasing public acceptance of the theoretical propositions and empirical methods of inquiry associated with them.

In the 1930s, sociologists started to make extensive use of survey research and polling. The experience they gained in analyzing public opinion gave rise to the first serious consideration of methodological problems of content analysis, published by Woodward in a 1934 article titled “Quantitative Newspaper Analysis as a Technique of Opinion Research”. From writings about public opinion, interest in social stereotypes (Lippmann, 1922) entered the analysis of communications in various forms. Questions of representations were raised, with researchers examining topics such as how Negroes were presented in the Philadelphia press (Simpson,

1934); how U.S. textbooks described wars in which the United States had taken part, compared with textbooks published in countries that were former U.S. enemies (Walworth, 1938); and how nationalism was expressed in children's books published in the United States, Great Britain, and other European countries (Martin, 1936).

One of the most important concepts that emerged in psychology during this time was the concept of "attitude". It added evaluative dimensions to content analysis, such as "pro-con" or "favorable-unfavorable", that had escaped the rough subject matter categories of quantitative newspaper analysis. Attitude measures redefined journalistic standards of fairness and balance and opened the door to the systematic assessment of bias. Among the explicit standards developed, Janis and Fadner's (1943-1965) "coefficient of imbalance" deserves mention. Psychological experiments in rumor transmission led Allport and Faden to study newspaper content from an entirely new perspective. In their 1940 articles "The Psychology of Newspapers: Five Tentative Laws", they attempted to account for the changes that information undergoes as it travels through an institution and finally appears on the printed page.

The interest in political symbols added another feature to the analysis of public messages. McDiarmid (1937), for example, examined 30 U.S. presidential inaugural addresses for symbols of national identity, of historical significance, of government, and of fact and expectations. Most important, Lasswell (1938), viewing public communications within his psychoanalytical theory of politics, classified symbols into such categories as "self" and "others" and forms of "indulgence" and "deprivation". His symbol analysis led to his "World Attention Survey", in which he compared

trends in the frequencies with which prestige newspapers in several countries used national symbols (Lasswell, 1941).

Researchers in several disciplines examined the trends in scholarship, as reflected in the topics that representative journals published. Rainoff's (1929) Russian study regarding physics was probably the first of this kind, but the most thorough analyses were conducted in the field of sociology (Becker, 1930, 1932; Shanas, 1945) and later in journalism (Tannenbaum & Greenberg, 1961).

Several factors influenced the transition from quantitative newspaper analysis, which was largely journalism driven, to content analysis:

- Eminent social scientists became involved in these debates and asked new kinds of questions.
- The concepts these social scientists developed were theoretically motivated, operationally defined, and fairly specific, and interest in stereotypes, styles, symbols, values, and propaganda devices began to replace interest in subject matter categories.
- Analysts began to employ new statistical tools borrowed from other disciplines, especially from survey research but also from experimental psychology.

## **2.5 Propaganda Analysis**

Berelson described content analysis as the use of mass communications as data for testing scientific hypotheses and for evaluating journalistic practices. Yet the most important and large-scale challenge that content analysis faced came during World War II, when it was employed in efforts to extract information from propaganda. Before the war, researchers analyzed texts in order to identify “propagandists”, to point fingers at

individuals who were attempting to influence others through devious means. Fears concerning such influence had several origins.

Propaganda was used extensively during World War I (Lasswell, 1927), and the years between the two world wars witnessed the effective use of propaganda by antidemocratic demagogues in Europe. In addition, Americans tend to have deep-seated negative attitudes toward religious fanatics, and the lack of knowledge concerning what the extensive use of the new mass media (radio, film, and television) could do to people raised concerns as well. According to the Institute for Propaganda Analysis (1937), propagandists reveal themselves through their use of tricks such as "name-calling", employing "glittering generalities", "plain folks", "identifications", "card stacking", "bandwagon", "devices", and so on. Such devices could be identified easily in many religious and political speeches, even in academic lectures, and this approach to propaganda analysis led to a kind of witch-hunt for propagandists in the United States. Theories concerning subliminal messages, especially in advertising, raised widespread suspicion as well.

In the 1940s, as U.S. attention became increasingly devoted to the war effort, the identification of propagandists was no longer an issue. Nor were researchers particularly interested in revealing the power of the mass media of communication to mold public opinion; rather, military and political intelligence were needed. In this climate, two centers devoted to propaganda analysis emerged.

Harold D. Lasswell and his associates, having written on political symbolism, worked with the Experimental Division for the Study of Wartime Communications at the U.S. Library of Congress, and Hans Speier, who had organized a research project on totalitarian communication at the New School for Social Research in New York, assembled a research team at

the Foreign Broadcast Intelligence Service of the U.S. Federal Communications Commission (FCC). The Library of Congress group focused on analyzing newspapers and wire services from abroad and addressed basic issues of sampling, measurement problems, and the reliability and validity of content categories, continuing the tradition of early quantitative analysis of mass communications (Lasswell, Leites, & Associates, 1965).

The FCC group analyzed primarily domestic enemy broadcasts and surrounding conditions to understand and predict events within Nazi Germany and the other Axis countries, and to estimate the effects of Allied military actions on the war mood of enemy populations. The pressures of day-to-day reporting left the analysts little time to formalize their methods, Berelson (1952) thus had little to say about the accomplishments of the FCC group. After the war, however,

Alexander L. George worked through the volumes of reports that resulted from these wartime efforts to describe methods that had evolved in the process and to validate the inferences the researchers had made by comparing them with documentary evidence now available from Nazi archives. These efforts resulted in his book *Propaganda Analysis* (1959a), which made major contributions to the conceptualization of the aims and processes of content analysis.

The assumptions that propagandists are rational, in the sense that they follow their own propaganda theories in their choice of communications, and that the meanings of propagandists' communications may differ for different people reoriented the FCC analysts from a concept of "content as shared" (Berelson would later say "manifest") to conditions that could explain the motivations of particular communicators and the interests they might serve.

The notion of "preparatory propaganda" became an especially useful key for the analysts in their effort to infer the intents of broadcasts with political content. In order to ensure popular support for planned military actions, the Axis leaders had to inform; emotionally arouse, and otherwise prepare their countrymen and women to accept those actions; the FCC analysts discovered that they could learn a great deal about the enemy's intended actions by recognizing such preparatory efforts in the domestic press and broadcasts. They were able to predict several major military and political campaigns and to assess Nazi elites' perceptions of their situation, political changes within the Nazi governing group, and shifts in relations among Axis countries. Among the more outstanding predictions that British analysts were able to make was the date of deployment of German V weapons against Great Britain. The analysts monitored the speeches delivered by Nazi propagandist Joseph Goebbels and inferred from the content of those speeches what had interfered with the weapons' production and when. They then used this information to predict the launch date of the weapons, and their prediction was accurate within a few weeks.

Several lessons were learned from these applications of content analysis, including the following:

- Content is not inherent to communications. People typically differ in how they read texts. The intentions of the senders of broadcast messages may have little to do with how audience members hear those messages. Temporal orderings, individuals' needs and expectations, individuals' preferred discourses, and the social situations into which messages enter are all important in explaining what communications come to mean. Interpretations on which all communicators readily agree are rare, and such interpretations are usually relatively insignificant.



- Content analysts must predict or infer phenomena that they cannot observe directly. The inability to observe phenomena of interest tends to be the primary motivation for using content analysis. Whether the analyzed source has reasons to hide what the analyst desires to know (as in the case of an enemy during wartime or the case of someone needing to impress) or the phenomena of interest are inaccessible in principle (e.g., an individual's attitudes or state of mind, or historical events) or just plain difficult to assess otherwise (such as what certain mass-media audiences could learn from watching TV) , the analyst seeks answers to questions that go outside a text. To be sure, the questions that a content analyst seeks to answer are the analyst's questions, and as such they are potentially at odds. With whether others could answer them and how. Quantitative newspaper analysts made inferences without acknowledging their own conceptual contributions to what they thought they found but actually inferred. Content is not the whole issue; rather, the issue is what can be legitimately inferred from available texts.
- In order to interpret given texts or make sense of the messages intercepted or gathered, content analysts need elaborate models of the systems in which those communications occur (or occurred). The propaganda analysts working during World War II constructed such models more or less explicitly. Whereas earlier content analysts had viewed mass-produced messages as inherently meaningful and analyzable unit by unit, the propaganda analysts succeeded only when they viewed the messages they analyzed in the context of the lives of the diverse people presumed to use those messages.
- For analysts seeking specific political information, quantitative indicators are extremely insensitive and shallow. Even where large amounts of

quantitative data are available, as required for statistical analyses, these tend not to lead to the "most obvious" conclusions that political experts would draw from qualitative interpretations of textual data. Qualitative analyses can be systematic, reliable, and valid as well.

Convinced that content analysis does not need to be inferior to unsystematic explorations of communications, numerous writers in the postwar years, such as Kracauer (1947,1952-1953) and George (1959a), challenged content analysts' simplistic reliance on counting qualitative data. Smythe (1954) called this reliance on counting an "immaturity of science" in which objectivity is confused with quantification. However, the proponents of the quantitative approach largely ignored the criticism. In his 1949, essay "Why Be Quantitative?" Lasswell (1949-1965b) continued to insist on the quantification of symbols as the sole basis of scientific insights. His approach to propaganda analysis produced several working papers but very few tangible results compared with the work of the FCC group of scholars. Today, quantification continues, although perhaps no longer exclusively.

## **2.6 Content Analysis Generalized**

After World War II, and perhaps as the result of the first integrated picture of content analysis provided by Berelson (1952), the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines. This is not to say that content analysis emigrated from mass communication. In fact, the very "massiveness" of available communications continued to attract scholars who looked at the mass media from new perspectives. For example, Lasswell (1941) realized his earlier idea of a "world attention survey" in a large-scale study of political symbols in French, German, British, Russian, and U.S. elite press editorials and key policy speeches. He wanted to test the hypothesis that a "world revolution" had been in steady progress for some

time (Lasswell, Lerner, & Pool, 1952). Gerbner and his colleagues pursued Gerbner's (1969) proposal to develop "cultural indicators" by analyzing, for almost two decades, one week of fictional television programming per year, mainly to establish "violence profiles" for different networks, to trace trends, and to see how various groups (such as women, children, and the aged) were portrayed on u.s. television (see, e.g., Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, Morgan, & Jackson-Beeck, 1979).

Psychologists began to use content analysis in four primary areas. The first was the inference of motivational, mental, or personality characteristics through the analysis of verbal records. This application started with Allport's (1942) treatise on the use of personal documents, Baldwin's (1942) application of "personal structure analysis" to cognitive structure, and White's (1947) value studies. These studies legitimated the use of written material, personal documents, and individual accounts of observed phenomena as an addition to the then-dominant experimental methods. A second application was the use of verbal data gathered in the form of answers to open-ended interview questions, focus group conversations, and verbal responses to various tests, including the construction of Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) stories. In the context of TAT stories, content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique. As such, it allowed researchers to utilize data that they could gather without imposing too much structure on subjects and to validate findings they had obtained through different techniques. Psychological researchers' third application of content analysis concerned processes of communication in which content is an integral part. For example, in his "interaction process analysis" of small group behavior, Bales (1950) used verbal exchanges as data through which to examine group processes. The fourth application took the form of the

generalization of measures of meaning over a wide range of situations and cultures (which derived from individualist notions of meaning or content). Osgood (1974a, 1974b) and his students found numerous applications for Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum's (1957) semantic differential scales and conducted worldwide comparisons of cultural commonalities and differences.

Anthropologists, who started using content analysis techniques in their studies of myths, folktales, and riddles, have made many contributions to content analysis, including the componential analysis of kinship terminology (Goodenough, 1972). Ethnography emerged in anthropology, and although ethnographers often interact with their informants in ways that content analysts cannot interact with authors or readers, after ethnographers gather their field notes they start to rely heavily on methods that are similar to those that content analysts use.

Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful. Social scientists also recognized the usefulness of educational materials, which had long been the focus of research. Such materials are a rich source of data on processes of reading (Flesch, 1948,1951) as well as on a society's larger political, attitudinal, and value trends. In addition, literary scholars began to apply the newly available techniques of content analysis to the problem of identifying the authors of unsigned documents.

On the one hand, this proliferation of the use of content analysis across disciplines resulted in a loss of focus: Everything seemed to be content analyzable, and every analysis of symbolic phenomena became a

content analysis. On the other hand, this trend also broadened the scope of the technique to embrace what may well be the essence of human behavior: talk, conversation, and mediated communication.

In 1955, responding to increasing interest in the subject, the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Linguistics and Psychology sponsored a conference on content analysis. The participants came from such disciplines as psychology, political science, literature, history, anthropology, and linguistics. Their contributions to the conference were published in a volume titled *Trends in Content Analysis*, edited by Ithiel de Sola Pool (1959a). Despite obvious divergence among the contributors in their interests and approaches, Pool (1959a, p.2) observed, there was considerable and often surprising convergence among them in two areas: They exhibited (a) a shift from analyzing the "content" of communications to drawing inferences about the antecedent conditions of communications and (b) an accompanying shift from measuring volumes of subject matter to counting simple frequencies of symbols, and then to relying on contingencies (co-occurrences).

## **2.7 Data Analysis**

Content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use.

As a technique, content analysis involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher. As a research technique, content analysis provides new insights, increases a researcher's understanding of particular phenomena, or informs practical actions. Content analysis is a scientific tool.

Techniques are expected to be reliable. More specifically, research techniques should result in findings that are replicable. That is, researchers working at different points in time and perhaps under different circumstances should get the same results when applying the same technique to the same data. Reliability is the most important form of research technique procedure.

Scientific research must also yield valid results, in the sense that the research effort is open for careful scrutiny and the resulting claims can be upheld in the face of independently available evidence. The methodological requirements of reliability and validity are not unique to, but make particular demands on content analysis.

The reference to text in the above definition is not intended to restrict content analysis to written material. The phrase "or other meaningful matter" is included in parentheses to indicate that in content analysis works of images, maps, sounds, signs, symbols, and even numerical records may be included as data that is, they may be considered as texts-provided they speak to someone about phenomena outside of what can be sensed or observed. The crucial distinction between text and what other research methods take as their starting point is that a text means something to someone, it is produced by someone to have meanings for someone else, and these meanings therefore must not be ignored and must not violate why the text exists in the first place. Text-the reading of text, the use of text within a social context, and the analysis of text-serves as a convenient metaphor in content analysis. In the content analysis literature, scholars have provided essentially three kinds of definitions of this research method:

1. Definitions that takes content to be inherent in a text
2. Definitions that takes content to be a property of the source of a text

3. Definitions that takes content to emerge in the process of a researcher analyzing a text relative to a particular context.

Each of these kinds of definitions leads to a particular way of conceptualizing content and, consequently, of proceeding with an analysis. Berelson's original definition of content analysis is an example of the first kind. Berelson (1952) defined content analysis as "a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication". (p.18). His requirement that content analysis be "objective" and "systematic" is subsumed under the dual requirements of replicability and validity in our definition. For a process to be replicable, it must be governed by rules that are explicitly stated and applied equally to all units of analysis. Berelson argued for "systematicity" in order to combat the human tendency to read textual material selectively, in support of expectations rather than against them. Our requirement of validity goes further, demanding that the researcher's processes of sampling, reading, and analyzing messages ultimately satisfy external criteria. Replicability is measurable and validity is testable, but objectivity is neither.

Our definition of content analysis omits three of Berelson's further requirements. One is his insistence that content analysis be "quantitative". Although quantification is important in many scientific endeavors, qualitative methods have proven successful as well, particularly in political analyses of foreign propaganda, in psychotherapeutic assessments, in ethnographic research, in discourse analysis, and, oddly enough, in computer text analysis. The ability of computers to crunch words as well as numbers is well-known. When a computer program is used to analyze words, the algorithms that determine the program's operation must embody some kind of theory of how humans read texts, rearticulate texts, or justify actions

informed by the reading of texts. Reading is fundamentally a qualitative process, even when it results in numerical accounts. By including the attribute "manifest" in his definition, Berelson intended to ensure that the coding of content analysis data be reliable; this requirement literally excludes "reading between the lines", which is what experts do, often with remarkable intersubjective agreement (I will have more to say on this topic later in this chapter).

My chief objection to Berelson's definition, and numerous derivatives of that definition, is related to his phrase "description of the manifest content of communication". It implies that content is contained in messages, waiting to be separated from its form and described. Berelson felt no need to elaborate on the crucial concept of "content" in his definition because for him and his contemporaries, at the time he was writing, there seemed to be no doubt about the nature of content-it was believed to reside inside a text.

Berelson's operationalization of the attribute "manifest" is telling. If sources, receivers, and content analysts have different interpretations of the same message, which is quite natural, Berelson's definition restricts content to what is common to all of these accounts, what everyone can agree to. Gerbner (1985) starts from a similar assumption when he insists that mass-media messages carry the imprint of their industrial producers. For him, too, content is right there to be described for what it is. However, Gerbner goes beyond Berelson's notion by suggesting that the messages of the mass media are revealed in statistical accounts of their contents. Mass-media audiences, he suggests, are affected by certain statistical properties of mass-produced messages of which neither mass producers nor mass audiences are conscious. This privileges content analysts' accounts over the readings by audience members. Shapiro and Markoff's (1997) definition equates content



analysis with scientific measurement as well, specifically, with "any systematic reduction . . . of text (or other symbols) to a standard set of statistically manipulable symbols representing the presence, the intensity, or the frequency of some characteristics relevant to social science" (p.14). Its implicit representationalism is common in several definitions of content analysis. For example, in a recent textbook, Riffe, Lacy, and Fico (1998) start with the proposition that content is central to communication research but then assert that the purpose of content analysis is to describe "it" so as to make "it" amenable to correlations with other (non-content) variables-as if content were a variable or thing inherent to mass-media messages. These examples demonstrate that the container metaphor for meaning still abounds in much of the communication research literature (Krippendorff, 1993). The use of this metaphor entails the belief that messages are containers of meaning, usually one meaning per message, and justifies calling any analysis of any conventionally meaningful matter a content analysis, regardless of whether it counts words or offers in-depth interpretations. Clearly, this is an insufficient way to define content analysis.

Definitions of the second kind distinguished above tie the content analysis of texts to inferences about the states or properties of the sources of the analyzed texts (Krippendorff, 1969a, p.70; Osgood 1959, p.35). Shapiro and Markoff (1997), among others, have criticized such definitions as too limiting. Holsti (1969, p.25) elaborates on this idea by committing content analysis to an encoding/decoding paradigm in which message sources are causally linked to recipients through encoding processes, channels, messages, and decoding processes. Holsti wants the content analyst to describe the characteristics of communications in terms of "what", "how", and "to whom" in order to infer their antecedents in terms of "who" and

"why" and their consequences in terms of "with what effects". The last of these could be determined more directly if sources and recipients were accessible to observation or were able to inform the analyst honestly. When antecedents and consequences are not accessible to direct observation, the analyst must make inferences. I am sympathetic to Holsti's logic, but putting sources-senders and/or receivers-in charge of the validity of the inferences may not be the best way for the content analyst to capture all of the communicators' intents. Moreover, describing message characteristics in terms of "what", "how", and "to whom" fails to acknowledge the analyst's own conceptual contributions to what constitutes the appropriate reading of the analyzed texts and the relevance of this reading to a given research question.

The analyst's conceptual contributions to the reading of a text are specifically recognized in an approach called ethnographic content analysis (Altheide, 1987); unfortunately, however, this approach has not been clearly defined. Proponents of ethnographic content analysis oppose the sequential nature of traditional content analysis, suggesting instead that analysts be flexible in taking into account new concepts that emerge during their involvement with texts. This approach acknowledges the theory-driven nature of content analysis but also demands that the analytical process be closely linked to the communicators studied. Ethnographic content analysis is emic rather than etic in intent; that is, it attempts to rely on indigenous conceptions rather than on analysts' theory imposed conceptions. Although the preference for communicators' conceptions would appear to tie ethnographic content analysis to the second kind of definition noted above, by urging researchers to reflect on their involvement in the process, the approach acknowledges the possibility that researchers' theories can play a

role in how analysis proceeds. The latter ties it more closely to the third kind of definition of content analysis, which we now explore.

## **2.8 Tools of Giving Public Speech**

### **2.8.1 Figurative Language**

Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic value. Shakespeare, in saying, *Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?* (Sonnet 18), conveyed his message more beautifully than if he had literally talked about the subject's personal qualities, such as kindness, charm, and beauty. But did he convey the “same” message he would have conveyed in such a literal description? Intuitively, good readers and literary scholars both feel that he did not. Similarly, irony in a literary text does not just add esthetic value in some generalized way; for example, it may heighten emotional involvement, and that may be exactly the artistic effect intended. A question in both cases might be exactly *how* – how is the metaphoric text's meaning different from a literal “translation,” and how does irony work differently from a non-ironic recounting of similar circumstances? These already sound like issues of interest to linguists, who care about regular relationships between different choices of form and different meanings. What are the mechanisms by which figurative uses of form create meaning for readers?

Figurative uses of form create meaning for readers?, we hope to make it clear to readers that figurative structures are far from being just decorative. They are important and pervasive in language and, furthermore, this is because the relevant cognitive structures are important and pervasive in thought – and as a result, figurative meaning is part of the basic fabric of linguistic structure. And this is true *not* just for special literary language, but for everyday language – and it holds for all human languages. The same

basic mechanisms are involved in Shakespeare's sonnet as in a phrase like *autumn years*, or one like *taxes rose* (note that nothing literally went upwards).

However, the last four decades of research on figurative language and thought have brought us new understandings of their integral relationship to the linguistic system. An influential and productive wave of scholarship took shape following the 1980 publication of Lakoff and Johnson's *Metaphors we live by*. Cognitive linguistics and cognitive science conferences and journals have seen a proliferation of metaphor studies, and the topic has had an increasingly high public profile. Other traditionally recognized figures such as metonymy and irony (an old topic in cognitive science) have also been productively re-examined during the same period, though with less of the publication volume and public attention which have accompanied metaphor's "star" status. Recent work on irony in particular has been shaped by developments in linguistic pragmatics, the study of the use and interpretation of language in context; this is not surprising, since no linguistic content is ironic on its own, without a context. (It is not ironic in itself for a hero to say the heroine is not pretty enough to attract him, but it is ironic for him to say so when the rest of the novel depicts him as falling deeply in love with her).

### **2.8.2 Rhetoric**

Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions. It's a technique used for persuading and influencing others; therefore, rhetoric and persuasion are correlative since any definitions of rhetoric inevitably include the idea of persuasion. The main difference between them is that rhetoric refers to the act of communication from the audience's perspective, whereas persuasion

refers to both the intentions of speaker and successful results (Charterls Black, 2005: 8-9). Therefore, audiences will only be persuaded with the speaker's successful rhetoric.

Rhetoric emerged as a method for argumentation in ancient Greece in the 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C., in which a huge progress from oral to literate culture was experienced by Greece. Undoubtedly, this progress contributed to the emergence of rhetoric (Ilie, 2006). During that era, three distinguished methods of classic rhetoric emerged, specifically: (a) the Sophistical; (b) the Aristotelian; and (c) the Platonic. The Sophists were teachers that got the chance to educate people how to effectively participate in a new democratic system. Their instruction included knowledge about argument, reason and critical thinking. The Sophists are thought to be the pioneers in utilizing rhetoric in their discourse, they used it as a strategy to change a weaker argument into the stronger one through utilizing creativity and experimenting with the language. This method was frequently elucidated as a deceptive act of reasoning instead of ethical argumentation (Crick, 2014, p.4). obviously, Aristotle, a Greek philosopher, was the first one to depict this notion in his book *Rhetoric*. He considered rhetoric to be an art instead of a study (Ilie, 2006). Besides, he claimed that rhetoric's goal is to persuade: "rhetoric is the capability of discovering in any given case the available means of persuasion" (Aristotle, 2006, p.18). Plato considered rhetoric (as cited in Ilie, 2006) as "the art of winning the soul by discourse". Nonetheless, he also believed that rhetoric was misleading since the message is created in a way to fit the reader's brains. Aristotle was the one who brought back the rhetoric's position. He contended that persuasion was a vital part of speech in civic lives, which allowed people to take part in discussions about their civil rights. Subsequently, rhetoric contributed to the

creation of the democratic system. Moreover, as indicated by Aristotle, rhetoric was thought to be something that could be developed. Rhetorical skills could be acquired in debating contests which stimulate authentic circumstance (Charteris- Black, 2014, pp.1-5).

Rhetoric is considered as a systematic study of the means of persuasion, and it incorporates both speaking and writing. Applying rhetoric in speeches or writings is called oratory. Transmission of information i.e. communication refers to spoken and written language (Charteris-Black, 2014, pp.1-5). Another definition of rhetoric is “the art of addressing public concerns through employing deliberate persuasive methods before an audience at a particular event so as to change some part of a problematic condition by encouraging new forms of idea and action” (Crick, 2014, p.2). In general, rhetoric engages a speaker in a political struggle who needs to change the way an audience feels, thinks and behaves through by utilizing language as his symbolic power.

### **2.8.2.1 Classic Rhetoric**

The eloquence that Nestor, Odysseus, and Achilles display in the *Iliad* by the Greek poet Homer led many Greeks to look upon Homer as the father of oratory. The establishment of democratic institutions in Athens in 510 BC imposed on all citizens the necessity of public service, making skill in oratory essential. Hence, a group of teachers arose known as Sophists, who endeavored to make men better speakers by rules of art. Protagoras, the first of the Sophists, made a study of language and taught his pupils how to make the weaker cause in a speech or discussions appear the stronger argument. The actual founder of rhetoric as a science is said to be Corax of Syracuse, who in the 5th century BC defined rhetoric as the “artificer of persuasion” and composed the first handbook on the art of rhetoric. Other masters of

rhetoric during this period included Corax's pupil Tisias, also of Syracuse; Gorgias of Leontini, who went to Athens in 427 BC; and Thrasy machus of Chalcedon, who also taught at Athens. Antiphon, the first of the so-called Ten Attic Orators, was also the first to combine the theory and practice of rhetoric. With Isocrates, the great teacher of oratory in the 4th century BC, the art of rhetoric was broadened to become a cultural study, a philosophy with a practical purpose.

The Greek philosopher Plato satirized the more technical approach to rhetoric, with its emphasis on persuasion rather than truth, in his work *Gorgias*, and in the *Phaedrus* he discussed the principles constituting the essence of the rhetorical art. The Greek philosopher Aristotle, in his work *Rhetoric*, defined the function of rhetoric as being, not that of persuasion, but rather that of “discovering all the available means of persuasion”, thereby emphasizing the winning of an argument by persuasive marshaling of truth, rather than the swaying of an audience by an appeal to their emotions. He regarded rhetoric as the counterpart, or sister art, of logic. The instructors in formal rhetoric in Rome were at first Greek, and the great masters of theoretical and practical rhetoric, Cicero and Quintilian, were both influenced by Greek models. Cicero wrote several treatises on the theory and practice of rhetoric, the most important being *On the Orator* (55 BC); Quintilian's famous *Institutio Oratoria* (AD95?; *The Training of an Orator*, 1921-1922) still retains its value as a thorough treatment of the principles of rhetoric and the nature of ideal eloquence. School exercises, called declamations, of the early empire are found in the existing *suasoriae* and *controversiae* of the rhetorician Seneca, the former term referring to exercises in deliberative rhetoric, the latter term referring to exercises dealing with legal issues and presenting forensic rhetoric. During the first

four centuries of the Roman Empire, rhetoric continued to be taught by teachers who were called Sophists, the term by this time used as an academic title.

### **2.8.2.2 Modern Rhetoric**

In the early 18th century, rhetoric declined in importance, although more on its theoretical than on its practical side, since the political arena and the debating platform continued to furnish numerous opportunities for effective oratory. For the next half-century, the art of rhetoric had increasingly fewer exponents. The *Lectures on Rhetoric* (1783) by the Scottish clergyman Hugh Blair achieved considerable popularity in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, as did the *Philosophy of Rhetoric* (1776) by the Scottish theologian George Campbell and the *Elements of Rhetoric* (1828) by the British logician Richard Whately. In the first half of the 20th century, a revival of the study of formal rhetoric, encouraged largely by the exponents of the linguistic science known as semantics, occurred throughout the English-speaking countries of the world. The modern educators and philosophers who made notable contributions to this study included the British literary critic I. A. Richards and the American literary critics Kenneth Duva Burke and John Crowe Ransom.

A rhetorical device uses words in a certain way to convey meaning or to persuade. It can also be a technique used to evoke emotions within the reader or audience. Skilled writers use many different types of rhetorical devices in their work to achieve specific effects. Some types of rhetorical devices can also be considered figurative language because they depend on a non-literal usage of certain words or phrases. Here are some common, and some not-so-common, examples of rhetorical devices that can be used to great effect in your writing:



**Alliteration** refers to the recurrence of initial consonant sounds. The phrase "rubber baby buggy bumpers" is one example you might remember from your childhood. Alliteration is often associated with tongue twisters for kids, but brand names commonly use this technique too, such as American Apparel, Best Buy, and Krispy Kreme. **Allusion** is a reference to an event, place, or person. For example, you might say, "I can't get changed that quickly, I'm not Superman"! Referring to something well known allows the writer to make a point without elaborating in great detail. **Amplification** repeats a word or expression for emphasis, often using additional adjectives to clarify the meaning. "Love, real love, takes time" is an example of amplification because the author is using the phrase "real love" to distinguish his feelings from love that is mere infatuation.

An **analogy** explains one thing in terms of another to highlight the ways in which they are alike. "He's as flaky as a snowstorm" would be one example of an analogy. Analogies that are very well known sometimes fall into the categories of idioms or figures of speech. **Anaphora** repeats a word or phrase in successive phrases. "If you prick us, do we not bleed? If you tickle us, do we not laugh?" is an example from Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice*. The use of anaphora creates parallelism and rhythm, which is why this technique is often associated with music and poetry. However, any form of written work can benefit from this rhetorical device. **Antanagoge** places a criticism and a compliment together to lessen the impact. "The car is not pretty, but it runs great" would be one example, because you're referring to the vehicle's good performance as a reason to excuse its unattractive appearance.

**Antimetabole** repeats words or phrases in reverse order. The famous John F. Kennedy quote, "Ask not what your country can do for you - ask what you

can do for your country" is a well-known example. **Antiphrasis** uses a word with an opposite meaning for ironic or humorous effect. "We named our chihuahua Goliath" is an example because a chihuahua is a very small dog and Goliath is a giant warrior from the famous Bible story. **Antithesis** makes a connection between two things. Neil Armstrong said, "That's one small step for a man, one giant leap for mankind". This pairs the idea of one man's individual action with the greater implication for humanity as a whole.

An **appositive** places a noun or noun phrase next to another noun for descriptive purposes. An example would be, "Mary, queen of this land, hosted the ball". In this phrase, "queen of this land" is the appositive noun that describes Mary's role. **Enumeratio** makes a point with details. For example, saying "The hotel renovation, including a new spa, tennis court, pool, and lounge, is finally complete" uses specific details to describe how large the renovation was. **Epanalepsis** repeats something from the beginning of a clause or sentence at the end. Consider the Walmart slogan, "Always Low Prices. Always". The repeated words act as bookends, driving the point home. An **epithet** is a descriptive word or phrase expressing a quality of the person or thing, such as calling King Richard I "Richard the Lionheart". Contemporary usage often denotes an abusive or derogatory term describing race, gender, sexual orientation, or other characteristics of a minority group. **Epizeuxis** repeats one word for emphasis. A child who says, "The amusement park was fun, fun, fun" is using epizeuxis to convey what a wonderful time he had at the park. **Hyperbole** refers to an exaggeration. Saying, "I have done this a thousand times" to indicate that you're very familiar with a task is an example of hyperbole because it is unlikely you've really performed the task a thousand times.

**Litotes** make an understatement by using a negative to emphasize a positive. In this rhetorical device, a double negative is often used for effect. So saying someone is "not a bad singer" actually means you enjoyed hearing him sing. **Metanoia** corrects or qualifies a statement. "You are the most beautiful woman in this town, nay the entire world" is an example of metanoia because the speaker is further clarifying the extent of the woman's beauty. A **metaphor** is a type of implied comparison that compares two things by stating one is the other. "Your eyes are the windows of your soul" means you "see" someone's emotional state by looking into their expressive eyes—eyes are not literally windows.

**Metonymy** is a type of metaphor where something being compared is referred to by something closely associated with it. For example, writers often refer to the "power of the pen" to convey the idea that the written word can inspire, educate, and inform. A pen has no power as an inanimate object, but the writer's words can reach a broad audience. **Onomatopoeia** refers to words that imitate the sound they describe, such as "plunk" "whiz" or "pop". This type of figurative language is often used in poetry because it conveys specific images to the reader based on universal experiences. We are all familiar with the "squeal" of tires as a vehicle stops abruptly or the "jingle" of car keys in your pocket. An **oxymoron** creates a two-word paradox—such as "near miss" or "seriously funny". An oxymoron is sometimes called a contradiction in terms and is most often used for dramatic effect. **Parallelism** uses words or phrases with a similar structure. "Like father, like son" is an example of a popular phrase demonstrating parallelism. This technique creates symmetry and balance in your writing. A **Simile** directly compares one object to another. "He smokes like a chimney" is one example. Similes are often confused with metaphors, but the main difference

is that a simile uses "like" or "as" to make a comparison and a metaphor simply states the comparison. An **understatement** makes an idea less important than it really is. "The hurricane disrupted traffic a little" would be an understatement because hurricanes cause millions of dollars in damage and can lead to injuries or fatalities.

As with all fields of serious and complicated human endeavor (that can be considered variously as an art, a science, a profession, or a hobby), there is a technical vocabulary associated with writing. *Rhetoric* is the name for the study of writing or speaking as a means of communication or persuasion, and though a writer doesn't need to know the specific labels for certain writing techniques in order to use them effectively, it is sometimes helpful to have a handy taxonomy for the ways in which words and ideas are arranged. This can help to discuss and isolate ideas that might otherwise become abstract and confusing. As with the word *rhetoric* itself, many of these *rhetorical devices* come from Greek. Now we see how these different examples of rhetorical devices work, you can use rhetorical devices in your own writing or speeches to create more **interesting** or **persuasive** content that sticks in the mind.

## **2.9 Effective Use of the Devices**

In order for all the rhetorical devices to work well, one has to know one's audience. Before doing anything, you need to know who you're speaking to. Different audiences will require different vocabulary and different methods of speaking. A group of scholars is likely going to be looking for different words than a group of businessmen.

As an example, let's say the person you're speaking to is a friend. Here, you'd be free to use more familiar language than if you were speaking to strangers. Next would be to think about what this particular friend is like. If

he's a pretty sensitive guy, appealing to his emotions might work better; if he's skeptical, using logic and credibility is more likely to bring him to your side.

Figuring out what makes your audience tick is relatively simple when focusing on just one person, especially if that person is someone you know well. You'll have to think a little more broadly and make a few more generalities when talking to larger groups.

One way to do this is to create an audience persona. Simply speaking, this is a sketch of the speculated core members of your audience, used to help understand how people think. For example, to create a profile of your typical audience member, you can ask yourself any of the following questions:

- What is their socioeconomic level, education level, nationality and age?
- What is their status or role within their organization?
- What problem do they have that you can address?
- What is on their mind at the moment?
- What is their likely attention span?
- What level of interest do they have in the subject?
- What is their preferred learning style?

### **2.9.1 Good Knowledge of the Topic**

Unsurprisingly, different topics will naturally lend themselves to different types of arguments. If you're giving a presentation on statistics, you're likely to focus more on logical aspects than you would if you were giving a presentation on abstract art. This doesn't mean to ignore other types of argument, just to know what your subject may be more inclined towards. What's more important is to be as informed as possible on your chosen topic. While this may seem like common sense, it's important to know your

subject in enough depth so that you can be prepared for counterarguments. This usually involves learning about views that may oppose yours.

Say, for example, you're discussing the rather hot-button topic of abortion. You'd want to look at the arguments for the other side—why people either are for or against the subject—as well as arguments for your own belief before creating your argument, or else you risk being stymied by powerful arguments from opposition. Try to consider what your audience may ask. This functions much like creating an audience persona, as it allows you to prepare for answers ahead of time. Create a few questions that seem most likely to be asked-or get a friend to help by having them ask questions--and write down some potential answers to practice.

### **2.9.2 Effective Word-Choice**

Word choice is stressed by professors and writers alike as incredibly important, and with due reason. Different words carry with them different weight, and so may affect audiences in different ways. While this relates very strongly to the previous two points, it is also important to consider the topic alone.

In rhetoric, there are considered to be two main types of language: connotative language and denotative language. Connotative language is generally more symbolic and encompasses the emotional meanings behind words. An example would be to call someone who expresses extreme empathy a “bleeding heart”. The phrase carries somewhat derogatory connotations, as it implies that the individual is easily moved to any cause that stirs their sympathy.

Denotative language focuses more on logic and appeals to an audience's knowledge rather than their emotions. Examples of denotative language include such statements as “the facts state” and “as you know”.

Denotative language usually revolves more around the textbook definition of a word, rather than what an audience might associate with it.

There are many words that have different connotative and denotative meanings. The word “shrewd” by a dictionary definition means “clever”, but carries with it a negative connotation. Likewise, the word “gay” originally meant “happy”, but modern audiences would latch onto the connotative meaning of “homosexuality”.

Connotative language likely differs between audiences, so this acts as another aspect of “knowing your audience”. For example, one audience may associate “liberal” with something negative, while another may associate the word with something positive. Keeping certain trigger words—or the connotative words that will produce an extreme reaction—in mind will help you understand what words to avoid or use for different audiences.

Even words like pronouns can have a profound effect. For example, using “I” less often expresses confidence, as the speaker seems to feel less need to refer to him- or herself to prove a point. Conversely, using “I” more often makes an individual seem more open, since the speaker is perceived as expressing deeply-held personal opinions.

Once you have these three elements in mind, it’s time to decide how to make your argument. There are three different rhetorical appeals—or methods of argument—that you can take to persuade an audience: logos, ethos, and pathos.

## **2.10 Modes of Persuasion**

### **2.10.1 Logos**

Logos is most simply known as an argument from logic. In essence, you’re taking a subject and giving the reasons why a certain position is positive or negative from the point of view of the facts.

Arguments from logic aren't necessarily restricted to the subjects you'd expect, such as math or science, but can appear just as easily in such subjects as morality or public relations. Environmental concerns use this method quite frequently when they compare energy-efficient methods like solar power with fossil fuels.

Take an example from the movie *Captain America: Civil War*. While many methods are applied throughout to debate whether or not to sign the Sokovia Accords, logos is used when the heroes are reminded that, whatever their intent, collateral damage *was* caused and, therefore, some measure of control should likely be exercised over the group. The character Vision uses it specifically when relating the increase of gifted individuals to increased damage (see video above).

Let's take a scenario and examine how you might argue it from a logical perspective. You are discussing a book series with your friend and wish to convince him that the stories have merit. To argue from logos, you might start by giving him statistics on how many books have sold and then point out the lingering popularity in pop culture. If a story has managed to stick around so long in the public mind, there has to be something in it that people find interesting, and that might be enough of a reason to take a look

### **2.10.2 Ethos**

Ethos is, like the name suggests, an argument from ethics. Generally speaking, making an argument from ethos requires showing you have good will for your audience, though it can also mean that you're using your own credibility to show why you have authority to speak on a topic.

Arguments from ethos pop up all the time with political campaigns. For example, in one of the Republican political debates in 2015, Senator Rubio states, "I'm not new to the political process; I was making a



contribution as the speaker of the third largest and most diverse state in the country well before I even got into the Senate”. Here, Rubio is using his previous experience to help support his bid for the presidential candidacy.

Arguing from ethos is likely something you’re already familiar with through job applications. When writing cover letters, people often include their qualifications, trying to convince potential employers that they should receive a job through prior experience and their enthusiasm for the job. You’ve probably also been subject to this sort of argument, especially in the variety of movie commercials that state, “Critics are calling it the best movie of the year”.

Let’s take the same scenario mentioned under logos and argue it using ethos. You would probably start by reminding your friend of the times you’ve been right about similar topics, such as movie suggestions your friend later enjoyed. Maybe you’d add something like the rhetorical question, “Would I lie to you about this?”

Perhaps you’ve read a lot of books. Remember that ethos is also your authority to speak on a subject. Having read widely shows your knowledge of the book market in general, even if not all of the books have been enjoyable. Perhaps you are an *actual* authority on this subject—an author, an English professor, or something of the like. In an argument from ethos, this is the time to invoke that authority.

Another strategy would be to draw on the ethos of others to help support your claim. This is something often seen in research, such as a paper citing experts on a subject to help prove a point. To put this into the context of the proposed scenario, you could show your friend reviews from professional critics.

### 2.10.3 Pathos

Pathos, the last form of argument, is argument from emotions. Here, rhetoricians appeal to the audience's emotions and try to elicit a response from them to win them over.

In the modern day, pathos tends to get the short end of the stick; basing arguments on emotions is usually believed to make the argument flimsy and less credible. However, emotions are powerful motivators and are incredibly useful in convincing others to see a subject from your point of view.

President Obama's speeches supply some examples of pathos. Take this example from his speech on Syria in 2013:

"The images from this massacre are sickening: Men, women, children lying in rows, killed by poison gas".

The words have a heavy emotional impact. "Sickening" primes the listener to expect something horrible and repulsive, and then mentioning the people killed—especially children, who are usually seen as innocent—creates the automatic emotional reaction that this is wrong.

This is, of course, a rather brutal example, and not all appeals to pathos have to be so reliant on extracting negative reactions in the audience. A friendlier example would be appealing to an audience's sense of community.

You've likely seen pathos arguments used quite a bit in movies. The "You burn with us" scene from *Mockingjay: Part One* is an example of a scene based almost entirely on pathos.

Let's take the scenario examined under the previous two methods and examine it through pathos. A way to start might be to explain the emotions the stories evoked in you.

For example, you might call the works “action-packed” or “moving”, two popular pathos buzzwords. If you are truly enthusiastic about the series, this is the point where you would most likely want to allow that enthusiasm to overflow.

The best method for argument, generally speaking, isn’t just one of these but a combination of all three. It’s up to the individual to decide what combination to use.

These are just the basics; there are many more rhetorical topics, and even the ones mentioned can be explored in greater depth. However, mastering the basics will start you on the way to giving more persuasive presentations, and from there you can learn what methods work best for you.

## **2.11 Speech Acts Production**

The foundation for the study of speech acts was laid by Austin (1962) and Searle (1971; 1975). A departure from Chomskyan linguistics, their work situated language within a social context, providing us with a greater awareness of the importance of sociolinguistic knowledge in the production of speech. By focusing on speech acts rather than on isolated sentences, Austin found that a class of verbs, called performative verbs, functions as the accomplishment of an action by their being spoken. That is, by uttering "I apologize", the act of apologizing is performed. Contributing to the development of speech act theory, Searle (1971) defined speech acts as the smallest units of rule-governed meaningful communication.

Researchers such as Manes (1983) and Wolfson (1983) have drawn from Austin and Searle's development of speech act theory and applied it to the analysis of a specific speech act - the compliment. The studies by Manes and Wolfson reveal that American English speakers compliment on

appearance, new acquisitions, and effort. These serve the functions of maintaining solidarity and reinforcing social values.

Wolfson's 1983 study further demonstrates that the status relationship between the participants plays an important role in the topic of the offered compliment.

Wolfson, D'Amico-Reisner, and Huber (1983) investigated the sociocultural rules of invitations in middle-class white American society. Their study demonstrates that interpreting this speech act may be troublesome for non-native speakers since invitations are ambiguous much of the time.

Unambiguous invitations are produced when the speaker refers to a time and/or place/activity as well as requests a response from the addressee. The invitation, "Do you want to go to the movies tomorrow night?" contains all three components that make up an unambiguous invitation. However, Wolfson, D'Amico-Reisner, and Huber found that these unambiguous invitations occurred in only one-third of the data. Ambiguous invitations, on the other hand, which provide for negotiation between interlocutors, were found to be more representative of how native speakers of English arrange for social commitments. These invitations contain a "lead" that is a question or comment that opens up the possibility for an unambiguous invitation to follow. For example, "Are you busy tomorrow night?" is a lead that serves to establish the availability of the person before the issuance of an unambiguous invitation. Thus, although leads often precede invitations, they do not in themselves constitute an invitation. Consequently, the distinction between leads and full invitations may result in misinterpretations between native speakers and non-native speakers.

Cohen and Olshtain (1981) expanded the concept of the speech act in their analysis of apologies. They found that semantic formulas, whether in combination or alone, can be used to perform an act of apology. For example, a speaker may express an apology, "I'm sorry"; acknowledge responsibility for a perceived wrong, "It's my fault"; offer a repair for the wrong, "I'll pay for it"; promise forbearance, "It won't happen again"; or explain the situation, "There was a traffic jam". Because each of these formulas is in itself a speech act, they make up the speech act set of apology. In another study, Olshtain (1983) used this apology speech act set as a framework for her intercultural research. She discovered that some cultures preferred one or another formula, or combination of formulas, to express an apology. American English speakers, for example, tend to express an apology and follow it with an explanation of the situation whereas Hebrew speakers tend to give an explanation only. Furthermore, Olshtain noted that these language-specific preferences may cause a second language learner to sound inappropriate in the target language. By providing just an explanation and no apology, Hebrew speakers who transfer this formula will undoubtedly sound rude in English.

While Cohen and Olshtain referred to the speech act *set*, Ferrara (1985), drawing on van Dijk (1977) explained the need to talk about macro speech acts. Although these studies concentrated on a single speech act, Ferrara (1985) has argued that speech act theory must be extended to capture the core action of discourse. He claims that there is a distinction between understanding the text semantically (what the talk means) and understanding the text pragmatically (what the talk does). According to Ferrara, capturing "what the talk does" involves identifying the set of macro speech acts that "underlies the entire text and insures its pragmatic coherence" (1985:149).

Although the macro speech act is composed of myriad single speech acts, it can only be determined by reference to the dominant speech acts in the text. Ferrara (1985) thus argues for a broader unit of analysis, the macro speech act, as a way of more effectively investigating the relationship between language and action. Second language investigators have more commonly referred to the "speech act set", a term that appears synonymous with Ferrara's macro speech act and van Dijk's 1977 use of "macrostructure".

## **2.12 Speech Acts Acceptability Judgment**

To ascertain whether the language-specific preferences noted by Olshtain result in socially inappropriate utterances, native speaker judgments are needed. To concentrate only on the productive aspect leaves the researcher with a partial picture of the consequences of speech act performance. In fact, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) highlight the importance of sociolinguistic acceptability judgments in their discussion of methodological issues concerning the study of speech acts. They argue that native speakers' judgments of non-native speakers' performance are needed to determine whether or not communication has been successful. In a later article, Cohen and Olshtain (1985) again focus on the use of acceptability judgments as one way of capturing and examining speech act behavior more effectively. The study reported in this chapter has used acceptability judgments as a critical component necessary to expand our understanding of how and when non-native speakers fail to communicate effectively. Cohen and Olshtain discuss ways in which non-native speakers' performances of the apology speech act set may be deviant.

They say that this deviance may be due to "a lack of compatibility between [the] speaker's intent and [the] hearer's standards of acceptability"

(1985:178). The conclusion is that we must investigate performance both from the speaker's perspective and from the listener's as well.

Although few in number, some studies have concentrated on how nonnative speakers' production is perceived by native speakers. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985), for example, conducted a study in which 172 native speakers of English, 160 native speakers of Hebrew, and 124 non-native speakers of Hebrew judged the appropriateness of request and apology strategies in Hebrew. They found that as the length of stay in the target speech community increased, non-native speakers' acceptability judgments became increasingly similar to native speakers' judgments. Carrell and Konneker (1980) compared politeness judgments of American English native speakers and non-native speakers of English from different language backgrounds. The subjects judged and ranked eight different request strategies in English in three specially contextualized situations in terms of levels of politeness. Their study revealed that although there was a high correlation in their politeness judgments of native speakers and non-native speakers, the non-native speakers of English perceived a greater number of levels of politeness than did the native speakers. The researchers concluded that the English as a second language learners' greater number of politeness distinctions may be a result of their oversensitivity to syntactic-semantic features.

### **2.13 Persuasion**

Persuasion has intrigued researchers since antiquity; yet, it is a topic which continues to have immense relevance in all human interaction. To quote Robin Tolmach Lakoff (2000:7), the question is: "Why do we late-twentieth-century sophisticates, after a century's barrage of advertising, still find ourselves bedazzled by the language of persuasion, economic and

political?” The present volume is dedicated to investigations of the interactive process of persuasion at the dawn of the new millennium. Choosing to focus on the linguistic manifestations of this process, we highlight its several different dimensions, which interact with one another in intriguing ways. Further, we investigate aggregates of the linguistic exponents of persuasion across a number of different genres. These have been selected to represent the use of language which people generally associate with persuasion in the public sphere, such as advertising, the language of politics, and media discourse. But our concern is also with modern sites for persuasion within and across professional discourse communities as manifested in business negotiations and legal documents. While other genres could profitably be added to the repertoire we are offering (see, e.g., Mulholland 1994:xiii), the genres in focus in this volume originate in very different areas of public life, thus permitting us to detect similarities and differences across them.

All language use can in a sense be regarded as persuasive (cf., e.g., Miller 1980). However, in this context we limit the definition of persuasion to all linguistic behavior that attempts to either *change* the thinking or behavior of an audience, or to *strengthen* its beliefs, should the audience already agree. Yet, the audiences – visible and invisible, actual and implied, interlocutors and onlookers – also contribute to the process of persuasion. We are committed to the view that the persuasive process is affected by the situational and socio-cultural context in which it takes place, and at the same time it helps construct that very context in important ways.

Even though genres will always be tied to time and culture – i.e. they emerge, persist, change, and disappear through time and in given sociocultural settings (Swales 1990:34–37) – persuasion is such an integral



part of human interaction that learning to understand it better will always be meaningful.

Learning more about persuasion, we believe, is learning more about human nature. In the present volume, we undertake this task by defining and discussing its concrete linguistic realizations in data that come from the last two decades of the twentieth century. In doing so we also raise the issue of what is typical of modern-day persuasion as compared to persuasion at earlier times.

The purpose of the present volume is to address and answer the following questions: What are the common denominators of persuasive language that can be found across genres, which are inherently persuasive? What different linguistic forms does persuasion find in these genres? Can the features of “successful” persuasion be described? What type of restrictions does the genre impose on the features of persuasive language; in other words, how do the linguistic features of persuasion differ from genre to genre? How do inherently persuasive words indicating beliefs and attitudes behave in texts? How does implicit persuasion differ from explicit persuasion? To what extent and in what way do genres hybridize for persuasive purposes? Can persuasion be taught? The discussion is essentially built on an intertextual and interdiscursive model of persuasion across genres (see, e.g., Todorov 1976; Fowler 1982; Swales 1990). All through the book we give due attention to the implicitness inherent in the process.

### **2.13.1 What Counts as Persuasion?**

In speech act terms, persuasion is a perlocutionary end result, a process that has already taken place and is attested by the fact that the target has taken the desired action or admitted to a change of attitude. *Attempts* at persuasion are not the same thing, but for most discourse it is the on-line

process that is our analysis material. Any speaker-based definition of a perlocutionary concept begs the question of effectiveness: even if phrases with obvious rhetorical intent can be isolated, they may be counterproductive. Thus professional negotiators are completely unlikely to be attracted by stereotypical market sales-talk; smug self-evaluations like “This is a very fair offer” are on the list of “irritators” isolated by Rackham and Carlisle (1978) and “high-risk elements” (Hiltrop & Udall 1995). If negotiators suspect they are being persuaded, they will concentrate on thinking up counter-arguments (Lewicki et al. 2003). Nevertheless, since such utterances are made in the hope of presenting an offer in a good light, we shall have to treat them as persuasive.

The term *persuasion* is broadly used about utterances that seek to elicit compliance (for recent overviews, see Hargie & Dickson 2004; Wilson 2002). In dealing with negotiations a restriction is helpful: persuasion is found in utterances where it can be reasonably assumed that one partner (let us call her A) *seeks to show the other side* (let us call him B) *his interest in a suggestion that will ultimately (also) benefit A*. In some cases, the interest is easy to see; thus B will presumably recognize an offer that builds on a *need* that he has and proceeds by rational argument, e.g. “So you want to own your own home? You’ll save up for the down payment more quickly with a high-interest account. We can give you a better interest if you move all your accounts to us”. However, because of the personal relationship involved, A may also have to persuade B, through various affective inducements, to take her perspective (e.g. “I know the warranty has lapsed, but I’d be grateful if you could help me out, since we have done business together for so long”). In this case, the “offer” is that of status, since is being asked to take on the role of a generous high-status partner.

Negotiation is characterized by the need to accommodate both sides, in order to attain a result that is preferable to both starting positions; if either party had the power to dictate, it would no longer be a negotiation. It is therefore perfectly arguable that *all* negotiation discourse is persuasive in the broad sense: “The task of a bargaining party is to convince its opponent that it controls resources, that the opponent needs the resources, and that it is willing to use power” (Bacharach & Lawler 1981:51). It is this broad sense that is used when the negotiation literature discusses leverage: Persuasive power factors include a reputation for implementing threats, the authority to take decisions, and options, i.e. that the negotiator has viable alternatives to agreement. Such factors are apparently independent of the communicative process; but on the other hand, power must be perceived to be effective: it needs to be expressed. The analysis of persuasion proper takes place at the level of expression, with a distinction between “a helpful offer” and “a helpful presentation of an offer”.

## **2.14 Successful Political Persuasion**

Since the time when Aristotle wrote his *Politics* and *Rhetoric*, political rhetoric has been considered one of the typical areas of persuasion; more recently it has been joined in this field with the language of advertising (see, e.g., Jucker 1997: 121). Robert Denton (1996: ix) writes that “politics is ‘talk’ or human interaction. Such interaction may be formal or informal, verbal or nonverbal, public or private but it is always persuasive, forcing us consciously or subconsciously to interpret, to evaluate, and to act”. In search of the recipe for successful political persuasion, in this chapter I will investigate the public language of two U.S. presidents: Ronald Reagan, whose rhetoric dominated the 1980s, and Bill Clinton, whose verbal artistry prevailed during the last decade of the twentieth century. Looking for any

shared rhetorical strategies used by these two presidents, I will here investigate their State of the Union addresses. But, of all U.S. presidents, why choose these two? My rationale is fairly simple:

First, one of the aims of the present volume is to investigate how persuasion is realized in our times, and these two politicians can certainly be regarded as modern persuaders.

Secondly, Reagan and Clinton are good candidates, because they both managed to be “popular enough” to be re-elected. “Success”, of course, is a tough term to define, and not everyone agrees about the success of these presidents; however, it is a fact that both have been widely praised for their rhetorical skills (Erickson 1985; Stuckey 1990; Smith 1994; Gelderman 1997). Reagan was referred to as the “Great Communicator” (e.g., Denton 1988: 10–12; Maltese 1994:179) and the “Teflon President” to whom no dirt ever stuck. My favorite description of Clinton was written by a *Washington Post* reporter David von Drehle; it dates back to the times when Clinton was running for president for his first term, and it captures Clinton’s multiseded persuasive charm: “He’s Elvis Presley with a calculator on his belt, an outsized candidate with a drawl as big as his brain, a would-be president of both pie charts and Moon pies” (von Drehle 1992: A1). In this chapter, I will focus on a subgenre of political persuasion in the public rhetoric of Reagan and Clinton: their planned, pre-written (team-written<sup>1</sup>), and extremely well researched State of the Union addresses from 1988 (for Reagan) and 1998 (for Clinton).

## **2.15 Questions and Evasive Strategies**

During press conferences, the presidents are often confronted with topics that they would rather not discuss. In these situations, they need to resort to distancing strategies and evasive strategies (Simon Vandenberg

1996; Clayman 2001; Scott 2002), including euphemisms and other means of associative engineering, and abrupt shifts of topic – all examples that I include under the umbrella term “persuasion”, provided that the intention of the president is to mold the opinion of his audience in his favor. As an example of distancing strategies, we can look at Clinton’s infamous denial “I did not have sexual relations with that woman, Miss Lewinsky” (*WCPD = Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* 1998:129), where Clinton uses the distal demonstrative *that*, calls Monica a *woman*, and adds her last name, with the title *Miss*, as an appositive. The employment of an evasive strategy is illustrated in the following exchange between Jim Lehrer and Clinton during a PBS *News Hour* interview, as published in the *Weekly Compilation of Presidential Documents* (1998:104; italics are added; compare also Lehrer’s use of the proximal pronoun *this* and the adjective *young* in front of *woman*, with Clinton’s use of *that woman* above):

Jim Lehrer: You *had* no sexual relationship with this young woman?

Clinton: There *is* not a sexual relationship – that is accurate. (*WCPD* 1998:104)

While appearing to answer Lehrer’s question, Clinton in reality avoids answering it. This he accomplishes in a subtle way by a change of tense from the past tense in Lehrer’s question (*had*) to the present tense in his answer (*is*). In other words, he does not answer the question of whether there *was* a sexual relationship or not. In addition, the antecedent of the pronoun *that* in the clause “that is accurate” is unclear: It can refer either to what Clinton himself just said (“There is not a sexual relationship”, which evidently was the case at the time of the interview), or it can refer to Lehrer’s question, in which case the truth value of “that is accurate” would become questionable. Since the former interpretation is available, Clinton,

while he certainly can be accused of being evasive, cannot be accused of downright lying. The use of euphemism can be seen as a special instance of evasive strategies. Euphemisms manipulate associations – they are a form of associative engineering (Leech [1977]: 50–62). For instance, when Jim Lehrer in his *News Hour* interview with Clinton asked about his relationship with Lewinsky, referring to this relationship as *an affair*, Clinton, in his answer denied this affair, referring to it euphemistically as an *improper relationship*: “There is no improper relationship” (WCPD 1998:104).

While Clinton certainly had reason to euphemize his relationship with Lewinsky, Reagan, defending the arms race that he was waging against the Soviet Union, needed to resort to euphemizing as well in order to defend the expensive weapons systems that this arms race required. In the early 1980s, in question-and-answer sessions with the representatives of the press (who often seemed to question Reagan’s military spending), bombers and nuclear warheads transformed into *our technology*, *the ultimate technology* (PP = *Public Papers of the Presidents of the United States* 1981:952), *deterrent for protection* (PP 1982:681), *our potential capacity* (PP 1981:957), *strategic force* (PP 1981:892) or, simply, *equipment* (PP 1981:952) (Halmari 1993). And when a reporter asks Reagan about the Iran-Contra Aid controversy, referring to it as a *scandal*, Reagan refuses to call it a scandal – it becomes a *so-called scandal*: “The whole so-called Iran scandal – I find it hard to think of scandal in connection with it” (PP 1988:390).

In the encounters with the press, there are abrupt shifts in topic as well. Clinton answers several of the questions by the reporters regarding the Lewinsky incidents by a reminder directed to the questioning reporter (and to his whole audience) – an aversion – implying that the president has more important things to do than discuss “such a trivial issue”: “But I have got to

get back to the work” and “But meanwhile, I’ve got to go on with the work of the country” (*WCPD* 1998:105). And, of course, there are downright denials. Comparing the tactics that the two presidents used in dealing with their respective problems, it is interesting to note that in January 1988, when a reporter asked Reagan about the Iran-Contra Aid controversy, Reagan denied that there had been a scandal: “I did not see any – what I considered lawbreaking that was taking place on the part of anyone in the administration” (*PP* 1988: 20), and “. . .but that was not against the law” (*PP* 1988:21). Ten years later, in January 1998, in an interview with Jim Lehrer, Clinton answers “There is no improper relationship” (*WCPD* 1998: 104; see also example (1) above). I argue that the question-and-answer sessions call for different strategies of persuasion since the presidents are forced to address topics they would rather not discuss.

In those political speeches where the presidents get to choose their topics, State of the Union addresses being a case in point, the persuasive strategies will be different. The choice of persuasive strategies is a part of the interactive process – the mediated discourse between the speaker and the audience (Scollon 1998). And, despite the fact that their topics were different, despite their differing ideologies, and despite certain idiolectal differences in rhetorical strategies, both presidents, in these written-to-be-spoken speeches show surprising similarity in relation to audience-engagement strategies, lexical cohesion, and rhetorical organization. The audience dictates the choice of strategies, some of which are well-known, others less transparent and more subtle.

For a political analyst, the information in their speech is interesting insights into the relative importance of certain concepts for the policies of the presidents. For instance, Reagan’s preferred concept is that of a *family*,

while Clinton prefers to evoke the concept of *children* more often. Reagan evokes the concept of *freedom* more often than Clinton but talks about *work* slightly less often. From the point of view of a theory of persuasion, this information is not particularly interesting. In this subgenre of political speeches, the presidents are expected to evoke certain concepts, such as *government*, *Congress*, and *democracy*, or *world* and *nation*. Words like *new* and *now* evoke positive associations and currency. A phrase like *let's*, with its hortative force, is expected to occur. Also, the word *God* is included in both presidents' addresses three times. A selection of shared words, including *God*, appearing in both addresses is presented. While the frequency of these words per one thousand words is not very high, it is interesting that these mainly positive concepts are evoked:

The shared words with clearly positive associations are *better/best*, *community*, *consensus*, *future*, *hope*, *opportunity*, *peace*, *strong*, *together*, and *values*. Also, function words such as *more* and *most* are often used by both presidents. *More* and *most* allow flattering references to the accomplishments of the presidents, and even though in themselves they carry little content, in combination with the nouns that follow, they give a positive picture of the presidents' achievements. Other shared "peaks" are also clear markers of this persuasive genre. Words such as *together*, *tonight*, and *today* refer to the presidents' awareness of current issues and the idea that the present time is the time to approve the president's agenda for the union *together*.

Another word used by both presidents was the word *child/children*. It was the fourth most frequently used content word in Clinton's speech; it occurred altogether 43 times, or 5.9 times per each one thousand words. In Reagan's speech, the word occurred eight times, or 1.6 times per one



thousand words. The use of this word is clearly persuasive; it evokes an association with the future, and allows the presidents to infer that their proposed agendas will make the future of the audience's children – a matter everyone cares about – a better one. In example (1), Reagan is speaking for his economic plan and uses the phrase *to give our children a future of low inflation and full employment*, using this phrase as an adverbial of purpose. In (2), Clinton uses *our children* as the beneficiaries of his environmental agenda:

(1) [. . .] steps we can take this year to keep our economy strong and growing, **to give our children** a future of low inflation and full employment.

(Reagan)

(2) Tonight, I ask you to join me in launching a new Clean Water Initiative, a far-reaching effort to clean our rivers, our lakes, our coastal waters **for our children**.

Of course, not all the words Reagan and Clinton use in their addresses are shared, and not all the words they use more than once are shared either. Table 6 presents the percentage of those words that occurred more than five times in both State of the Union addresses and the percentage of the words that occurred more than five times only in either Reagan's or Clinton's speech.

## 2.16 Rhetorical Questions

The basic feature of a rhetorical question is that it is used to create an effect by engaging listeners and making them think, and it is not intended to elicit a reply. Spurgin (1994:303) points out that “[T]he rhetorical question, because it invites assent, can provide a persuasive conclusion to the argument”. Since the format of the State of the Union address is that of a monologue, which does not sanction the audience members to address the

president verbally during the talk, I have here defined all question forms asked by the presidents during their State of the Union addresses as rhetorical, following Crowley and Hawhee's characterization of rhetorical questions as questions asked when the speaker "does not expect a reply" and uses the question to "emphasize a point" (2004:299). Copi and Burgess-Jackson point out that rhetorical questions do not seek information; they function informatively as "an oblique way of communicating information" (1995:77).

It would also be legitimate to call some of the questions asked by the president's *topical questions* when they introduce a new topic. While topical questions have a textual function, the function of rhetorical questions is interpersonal. According to Crowley and Hawhee (2004:298–299), rhetorical questions belong to those "figures of thought that enhance ethos" by "manipulating the flow of discourse" and by "decreas[ing] distance between the rhetor and audience". Whether called topical or rhetorical, we can argue that all the questions asked by the presidents exemplify rhetorical means of involving the listener. Reagan asked six questions, Clinton five. Examples (3–5) illustrate:

(3) **How can we help?** Well, we can talk about and push for these reforms.  
(Reagan)

(4) Instead of a Presidential budget that gets discarded and a congressional budget resolution that is not enforced, **why not a simple partnership, a joint agreement that sets out the spending priorities within the available revenues?**  
(Reagan)

(5) **What we have to do in our day and generation to make sure that America becomes truly one nation – what do we have to do?** We're becoming more And more diverse. **Do you believe we can become one**

**nation?** The answer cannot be to dwell on our differences, but to build on our shared values. [. . .]We are many; we must be one. (Clinton)

In example (3), Reagan is talking about school reforms. He asks a rhetorical question, “How can we help?” and proceeds to answer this question himself. In (4), he delivers a hortative rhetorical question starting with “why not [. . .]?” in which the answer is suggested. In example (5), Clinton applies the same strategy. He poses a rhetorical question and proceeds to answer it himself in nineteen sentences, finishing with “We are many; we must be one”.

The rhetorical strategy of asking a question to which the speaker himself provides the answer has been popular since antiquity. It reflects and imitates the Socratic method of inducing agreement by involving the audience member in a thinking process, leading to the idea that the answer, while here provided for the audience, is somehow a product of a mutual agreement between the speaker and the audience. The use of rhetorical questions is a subtle yet quite persuasive means to make the audience agree with the solutions provided.

## **2.17 Appeal to Authority**

In order to justify their points of view and their actions, both presidents resort to authorities; Reagan refers to “an ancient Chinese philosopher” (example 6) and “Jefferson” (7). Clinton resorts to Generals such as Colin Powell (8):

(6) And as an ancient Chinese philosopher **Lao-tzu**, said: “Govern a great nation as you would cook a small fish; do not overdo it.” (Reagan)

(7) In the spirit of **Jefferson**, let us affirm that in this Chamber tonight there are no Republicans, no Democrats – just Americans. (Reagan)

(8) I'm pleased to announce that **four former Chairmen of the Joint Chiefs of Staff – Generals John Shalikashvili, Colin Powell, and David Jones and Admiral William Crowe** – have endorsed this treaty. And I ask the Senate to approve it this year. *(Clinton)*

Appealing to authorities such as ancient philosophers, the founding fathers, and high military officials is thus used by both presidents to back up their ideas, policies, proposals, and decisions. When Clinton needs to justify the American presence in Bosnia (example (9)), he resorts to his opponent and presidential rival, Bob Dole, and cites him verbatim:

9) [. . .] Bosnia's fragile peace still needs the support of American and allied troops when the current NAT Omission ends in June. I think **Senator Dole** actually said it best. He said, "This is like being ahead in the 4th quarter of a football game. Now is not the time to walk off the field and forfeit the victory". *(Clinton)*

By framing his citation of Dole by "I think Senator Dole actually said it best" and thus presenting not only his own, but also Dole's view, with which he agrees on the issue of Bosnia, Clinton ensures that his view and decisions regarding Bosnia cannot be criticized by the Republicans. Resorting to one's opponent's authority – in other words, backing up one's own ethical appeal with somebody else's – exemplifies a clever persuasive strategy, which is likely to disarm the opposition.

## **2.18 Appeal to Logic**

For Aristotle, rhetoric, the art of public speaking is "the counterpart of Dialectic", the art of logical discussion. As opposed to *syllogisms*, rhetorical arguments (Aristotle's *enthymemes*) "are the substance of rhetorical persuasion" (Aristotle [1984]:19–20). Hence it is not surprising that in both State of the Union addresses we can see a clear, systematic, and logical

organization of ideas – a strong appeal to *logos*, which yet *implies* the premises rather than states them explicitly. (For definitions and examples of enthymemes, see, e.g., Copi & Cohen 1990; Corbett 1965:61–68; Crowley & Hawhee 2004:141–146). In example below, Reagan divides his speech into four topics, numbering these from the first to the fourth and summarizing at the end: “This is a full agenda”:

[. . .] we have **four basic objectives** tonight. **First**, steps we can take this year to give our children a future of low inflation and full employment. **Second**, let’s check our progress in attacking social problems [. . .] Our **third** objective tonight is global [. . .] **Fourth and finally**, [. . .] we must protect that peace [. . .] **This is a full agenda.** (Reagan)

In his speech, Clinton resorts to the same logical organization pattern. Following Aristotle’s example, Clinton, in (11) below, is not arousing emotions (Aristotle [1984]:20); he is appealing to the audience’s logical thinking. Starting by an appeal to the authority of “our founders” he frames the campaign finance reform, an item on his agenda, as “first”. He proceeds to state that “Everyone knows elections have become too expensive”, and that they fuel “a fundraising arms race”. The use of *everyone* in the phrase *everyone knows* is a clear appeal to logic: *everyone* includes even those who might oppose Clinton’s campaign finance reform. If *everyone knows* that elections have become too expensive, they should, if they are logical thinkers, agree with Clinton’s campaign finance reform; if they do not, the implication is that they are not logical. The use of the metaphor “fundraising arms race” exploits another persuasive strategy; it evokes negative, aggressive associations with the Cold War – a notion that should belong to the past even as a metaphor. Clinton then equates a “vote against McCain and Feingold” with “a vote for soft money and for the status quo” and

frames this not as his opinion but as a fact: “Let’s be clear”. The hortative “let’s” and “I ask you” directly involve the audience:

**Our founders** set America on a permanent course toward “a more perfect union”. To all of you I say it is a journey we can only make together [. . .] **First**, we have to continue to reform our government – the instrument of our national community. **Everyone knows elections have become too expensive** fueling a **fundraising arms race**. This year, [. . .] the Senate will actually vote on bipartisan campaign finance reform proposed by Senators McCain and Feingold. **Let’s be clear**: A vote against McCain and Feingold is a vote for soft money and for the status quo. **I ask you to strengthen our democracy and pass campaign finance reform this year.** (*Clinton*)

In the final sentence in above, Clinton does not just ask the audience to “pass campaign finance reform”; he asks them to “strengthen our democracy” – something that every logical audience member would see as a positive action, whether they agree with the campaign finance reform or not. The ordering of the phrases presupposes that “passing campaign finance reform” will lead to “strengthen[ing] our democracy”. Apart from political speeches, the persuasive strategy exemplified in the final sentence in (11) can be heard in everyday indirect requests such as “Be an angel and bring me a cup of coffee”! This request implies that the addressee will deserve the title of an angel if he/she brings the coffee. Note that we would not say, “Bring me a cup of coffee and be an angel”! Similarly, even though Clinton’s sentence means “I ask you to pass campaign finance reform this year”, the added implied consequence following from the passing of the reform – the strengthening of democracy – makes this request more persuasive; the implied consequence is one with whose positive nature everyone has to agree.

The quote in example (12) below from Clinton’s address is an example of careful associative engineering. The verb *heal* evokes positive associations: Something that needs healing has been in bad shape, sick, and the logical thing to do is to support the process of healing. Not only is it illogical to oppose the process of healing but also, if you do oppose it, you are called a *pessimist*.

Every time we have acted to **heal** our environment, **pessimists** have told us it would hurt the economy.

(Clinton)

In his *Rhetoric*, Aristotle ([1984]:32–33) wrote of political orators:

The political orator aims at establishing the expediency or the harmfulness of a proposed course of action; if he urges its acceptance, he does so on the ground that it will do good; if he urges its rejection, he does so on the ground that it will do harm[. . .].

The two examples indicate a careful appeal to logic of the audience, along the lines already posited by Aristotle, is still today one of the hallmarks of political persuasion.

### 2.18.1 Superlatives and “Nice Numbers”

Superlatives may exaggerate, but the presidents do not avoid their use, especially when they can package the superlatives around convincing factual information. This factual information often involves the use of numerical data – facts backed up by numbers (see also Virtanen this volume). In example (13), Reagan uses the superlative *fastest*, surrounded by *4 straight years* and *more than 10 years*. In (14), Clinton’s superlatives *lowest unemployment* and *lowest core inflation* are accentuated by *in 24 years* and *in 30 years*. The “ultimate” superlative, *the highest homeownership in history*, is saved for last. Note also the use of the comparative *more than 14*

*million more new jobs*, where the information of what this number *14 million* is compared to is left unspecified:

(13) [. . .] family income has risen for **4 straight years**, and America's climbed out of poverty at **the fastest rate in more than 10 years**.

*(Reagan)*

(14) We have **more than 14 million more new jobs, lowest unemployment in 24 years, the lowest core inflation in 30 years**; incomes are rising; and we have **the highest homeownership in history**. *(Clinton)*

## **2.19 Poetic Aspects of Persuasion**

Campbell and Burkholder (1997:5) write that “rhetorical discourse is frequently poetic”; it has “ritualistic, aesthetic, dramatic, and emotive qualities”. In their State of the Union addresses, both presidents resort frequently to the use of alliteration. Personification of America is another poetic means that both president's use.

### **2.19.1 Alliteration**

The tradition of using alliteration in the Anglo-American world goes back to the great poetry of Old English. Examples in (15) and (16) comprise a selection of alliterative phrases in Reagan's and Clinton's speeches, respectively:

#### ***Reagan's alliterative phrases:***

**courage to confront**

**freedom fighters**

**a future free of [. . .] totalitarianism and terror**

**great halls of government and the monuments to the memory of our great**

**men prevents a paralysis of American power**

**protected and passed on lovingly this place called America shining shores**



soaring spending

sorry story

**(16) Clinton's alliterative phrases:**

**d**eadly **d**iseases

**d**efect and **d**efer

**f**ace and **f**uture of America

**f**amily and **f**aith, **f**reedom and responsibility

**f**inger pointing and **f**ailure

crack down on **g**angs and **g**uns and drugs

offer **h**elp and **h**ope

**p**eace and **p**rosperity

**p**olice, **p**rosecutor, and **p**revious

A strong nation **r**ests on **r**ock of **r**ules

**w**eapons of **w**ar

The use of alliteration cannot be seen as directly persuasive; there is nothing in alliteration *per se* that would lead the audience to sympathize or agree with the speaker. Yet, if we take the classic view of Isocrates, who points out that “the power to speak well is taken as the surest index of a sound understanding” ([1988]:48), it is easy to see how alliteration fits in with an overall persuasive style. Skillful use of alliteration is part of ethical appeal; alliteration does not attract attention by being overly decorative; it is a modest and subtle way of sending the audience the message that the speaker is a powerful speaker and, therefore, a man “of a sound understanding”.

## **2.20 Reference to America**

The frequencies of the word *America/American* were already discussed above. For both presidents, *America* (*n*) was the most frequently

evoked concept: 11.3 out of every one thousand words for Reagan, and the almost identical 11.2 for Clinton were occurrences of this word. However, the same concept was evoked by the use of other phrases as well. Both presidents refer to America as *nation*, and both, by subtle choices of determiners make the concept closer, dearer – Reagan, by the proximal demonstrative pronoun *this* (“this nation”) and Clinton, by the first person plural possessive pronoun *our* (“our nation”):

**Reagan:**

this nation

not a graveyard but a birthplace of hope

a city of hope in a land that is free

this shining city on a hill

**Clinton**

our nation

an America which leads the world to new heights of peace and prosperity

**Part two: Previous Related Studies**

As far as this part is concerned very little work of the kind has been done in the Sudan. Almost all work on content analysis was observed to be done externally.

The first one was a PhD thesis carried out by Hassan Mahil on discourse analysis in which he handled the speech of Obama along the lines of many of the works done abroad. Dr. Mahil referred to many discourse aspects and devices used by Obama in order produce an effective persuasive speech.

A second work was conducted by Fredrick Shannon on Martin Luther to be included in EFL classrooms. The author discusses the particular discourse features of Dr. Martin Luther King’s historic speech, “I Have a

Dream”, delivered on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D.C., in 1963. The paper will first begin with a brief description of the context, including the location, temporal setting, and the social and cultural circumstances in which the speech was delivered. Second, the author will provide a discourse analysis of the specific rhetorical discourse features unique to Dr. King’s speech, which include the genre, linguistic structure, and cohesion within the text. Finally, this paper will address the implications of using this speech with English as foreign language (EFL) learners to teach literary devices such as metaphor, simile, figurative language, rhyme and parallelism.

### **Summary of the Chapter:**

The chapter displays examples of rhetorical devices that can be used to cause a great effect in writing. Also gives a summary of the evolution and history of content analysis method.

**Chapter Three**  
**Research Methodology**

# **Chapter Three**

## **Research Methodology**

### **3.0 Overview:**

This chapter will provide a full description of the research methodology adopted as well as the research instruments employed. Moreover, the validity and reliability of these instruments will be confirmed.

### **3.1 The Study Methodology**

This study adopts a mixed-method approach the descriptive analytical and experimental. This allows the research instruments to complement each other, and match for every single step of experimentation across the chapter and relevant parts of chapter four and five. As far as the data collecting tools are concerned: an analysis of Martin Luther King's speech through the use of content analysis known devices as well as a questionnaire.

### **3.2 Procedure**

In the present study, the researcher will analyze the speech of Martin Luther king as one of the influential and inspirational oratory piece in American history. The basic rhetorical features of the text will be considered here as considered as a genre analysis. A number of discourse genres are identified in classical literature as including some of the following features:

- 1. Narrative**
- 2. Descriptive**
- 3. Procedural**
- 4. Argumentative**

The process of examining the text in question will be carried out along the lines of *content analysis* which is applicable to many areas of inquiries

with examples ranging from the analysis of naturally occurring language to the study of newspaper coverage.

The various techniques that make up the methodology of content analysis have been growing in usage and variety. In the field of mass communication research, content analysis has been the fastest growing technique over the past years. Perhaps the greatest explosion in analysis capability has been the rapid advancement in computer texts content analysis software with corresponding proliferation of online archives and databases.

### **3.3 Argumentative and Persuasive Style**

The two apparent techniques which Luther resorted to in order influence his audience were the argumentative and persuasive elements of oratory style. Luther was known for his style that holds his listeners and readers spell-bound through the use of different rhetorical devices which can mainly be viewed as those linked with the themes of:

- Justice
- Injustice
- Discrimination
- Segregation
- Inequality
- Poverty, and
- Non-violence

Martin Luther King still adheres to a certain type of technique which is called *call and response* which is observed to be common amongst African communities. In African cultures, call-and-response is a widespread pattern of democratic participation—in public gatherings, in the discussion of civic affairs, in religious rituals, as well as in vocal and instrumental musical

expression. African bondsmen and bondswomen in the Americas continued this practice over the centuries in various forms of expression—in religious observance; public gatherings; even in children's rhymes; and, most notably, in music in its multiple forms: blues, gospel, rhythm and blues, soul, jazz, hip-hop and go-go. Call and response is derived from the historical African roots that served as the foundation for African American cultural traditions. The call and response format became a diasporas' tradition, and it was part of Africans and African Americans creating a new, unique tradition in the United States.

Martin Luther, as a preacher, has developed this type of technique when preaching in the Southern United States. It is indeed a very much powerful and enthralling style of oration. The following is a good example of call and response:

Dr. King: *One hundred years later, the negro, still, is not free!*

Man: *Yeah!*

Woman: *Right on!*

Dr. King: *Now is the time...*

Woman: *Yes it is!*

Dr. King: *When will you be satisfied?*

Man: *Never!*

As many as fifty years ago, Martin Luther King had thrilled America with his resounding speech “I have a Dream”, so spectacularly delivered from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial. His soaring rhetoric demanding racial justice and an integrated society became a mantra for the black community and is as familiar to subsequent generations of Americans as the US Declaration of Independence. His words proved to be a touchstone for

understanding the social and political upheaval of the time and gave the nation a vocabulary to express what was happening.

**King's dream** is that this promise will be fulfilled, that the white citizens of the country will recognize that we will all succeed or fail together, that it is "shameful" for so many of its citizens to live in poverty, without access to good education or opportunities for success. The **purpose of Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream" Speech** is to expose the American public to the injustice of racial inequality and to persuade them to stop discriminating on the basis of race.

According to Wikipedia Luther's speech was widely hailed as a masterpiece of rhetoric, King's speech invokes pivotal documents in American history, including the Declaration of Independence, the Emancipation Proclamation, and the United States Constitution. Early in his speech, King alludes to Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address by saying "Five score years ago ..." In reference to the abolition of slavery articulated in the Emancipation Proclamation, King says: "It came as a joyous daybreak to end the long night of their captivity". Anaphora (i.e., the repetition of a phrase at the beginning of sentences) is employed throughout the speech. Early in his speech, King urges his audience to seize the moment; "Now is the time" is repeated three times in the sixth paragraph. The most widely cited example of anaphora is found in the often quoted phrase "I have a dream", which is repeated eight times as King paints a picture of an integrated and unified America for his audience. Other occasions include "One hundred years later", "We can never be satisfied", "With this faith", "Let freedom ring", and "free at last". King was the sixteenth out of eighteen people to speak that day, according to the official program



In chapter four of this thesis the researcher will examine the techniques Luther had applied in his speech to influence and steer the masses. The key message in the speech is that all people are created equal and, although not the case in America at the time, King felt it must be the case for the future. He argued passionately and powerfully. In his speech he uses:

1. Image-laden content to underscore the miserable situation of African American
2. Biblical allusions
3. Time, person and social deixis

These devices and others will be examined in Luther's speech and tabulated in the present study. The aim is to highlight his style of speech in order to infatuate his audience. The repetition of certain phrases served to make his speech memorable: Among the most quoted lines of the speech are *"I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin, but by the content of their character. I have a dream today"*.

### **3.4 Questionnaire**

#### **3.4.1 Validity of the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire of this study, was validated by a jury consisting of five assistant professors specialized in English language. They based their comments on the following criteria:

- (1) The clarity of the items and instruction.
- (ii) The simplicity of items, and how far they related to the subject
- (iii) The language used.

The jury made some remarks concerning some items and suggested modification for these items. Two items from TsQ. were omitted, and the

researcher responded to their suggestions, and made the required modifications.

**The questionnaire’s referees and their jobs and places of work:**

No.	Name	Job	Qualification	Place of work
1	Hassan Mahil Hassan	Teacher	Ph.d holder	SUST
2	Hilary M. Pitia	Teacher	Ph.d holder	SUST
3	Muntasir Hassan	Teacher	Ph.d holder	SUST

**3.4.2 Statistical Reliability and Validity:**

It is meant by the reliability of any test, to obtain the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

1. Split-half by using Spearman-Brown equation.
2. Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.
3. Test and Re-test method
4. Equivalent images method.
5. Guttman equation.

On the other hand, validity also is the measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among is the

validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

The researcher calculated the validity statistically using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The researcher calculated the reliability coefficient for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using (split-half) method. This method stands on the principle of dividing the answers of the sample individuals in to two parts, i.e. items of the odd numbers e .g. (1, 3, 5, ...) and answers of the even numbers e.g. (2,4,6 ...). Then Pearson correlation coefficient between the two parts is calculated. Finally, the (reliability coefficient) was calculated according to Spearman-Brown Equation as the following:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r}$$

r = Pearson correlation coefficient

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher was distributed about (20) questionnaires to respondents. In addition, depending on the answers of the pre-test sample, the above Spearman-Brown equation was used to calculate the reliability coefficient using the split-half method; the results have been showed in the following table:

**Table (3.1): The statistical reliability and validity of the pre-test sample about the study questionnaire**

Hypotheses	Reliability	Validity
<b>First</b>	0.70	0.84
<b>Second</b>	0.80	0.89
<b>Third</b>	0.76	0.87
<b>Fourth</b>	0.83	0.91
<b>Overall</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>0.88</b>

We note from the results of above table that all reliability and validity coefficients for pre-test sample individuals about each questionnaire's theme, and for overall questionnaire, are greater than (50%), and some of them are nearest to one. This indicates to the high validity and reliability of the answers, so, the study questionnaire is valid and reliable, and that will give correct and acceptable statistical analysis.

### **3.4.3 Statistical Instruments**

In order to satisfy the study objectives and to test its hypotheses, we use the following statistical instruments:

1. Graphical figures.
2. Frequency distribution.
3. Pearson correlation coefficient.
4. Spearman-Brown equation for calculating Reliability coefficient.
5. Median.
6. Non-parametric Chi-square test.

In order to obtain accurate results, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. In addition, to design the graphical figures,

which are needed for the study, the computer program (Excel) was also used.

**Table (3.2): Sex:**

<b>Valid</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>Male</b>	33	66.0%
<b>Female</b>	17	34.0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0%</b>

**Table (3.3): Years of experience:**

<b>Valid</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<b>1-5 years</b>	27	54.0%
<b>5-10 years</b>	8	16.0%
<b>10-15 years</b>	15	30.0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100.0%</b>

## **Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter described the methodology employed for gathering the data of the present study. Research instruments were described; instruments reliability and 50 validity were confirmed. Having finished with the methodology of the study, the next chapter will present data analysis, results and discussion.

**Chapter Four**  
**Data Analysis, Results and Discussion**

# Chapter Four

## Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

### 4.0 Overview:

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, pre-test, post- test and teachers' questionnaire.

### 4.1 Data Analysis:

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering vital questions the type of linguistic style and language features as applied in Martin Luther King's speech, namely *I have a Dream*.

To answer these questions, texts were presented to our students and asked them to locate all the figurative language employed in the text. The following three hypotheses will be verified or confirmed in view of the analysis of the diagnostic test, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as well as the questionnaire for the tutors and students.

- 1- King speeches and writings changed the world and stirred up his audiences and readers.
- 2- King used political, religious, human rights and ethical expressions to stir up his people and to gain his clan's rights.
- 3- King used textual features that have direct effect on recipients of his speeches and writings.

In analyzing the text, the study also seeks to explore the socio-cultural realities of the 60<sup>th</sup> when Luther delivered his speech. The importance of socio-cultural factors emerges from the fact that **they stand for** customs, lifestyles and values that characterize a society. More specifically, cultural aspects include aesthetics, education, language, law and politics, religion, **social** organizations, technology and material culture, values and attitudes.

Luther addressed the nation at a time when racial segregation was widely spread, almost all the system was racist and whole parts of southern United States was harshly working under a system of firm ethnic segregation and tension that African Americans were not allowed to practice their basic rights. Luther, in his speech highlighted a couple of significant issues associated with economic discrepancy of which African Americans have suffered immeasurably and the dire demand for civil rights for the Blacks. So what renders this text particularly culture specific is the fact that a substantial understanding of socio-cultural factors at the time is of dire necessity for thorough analysis.

Though, the majority of King’s audience is the Black community, he also in many instances and situations addressed Whites and people across the world. He addressed American politicians more specifically.

In analyzing Luther’s address a number of rhetorical devices have been detected and enlisted encompassing some dating back to ancient times. Though a great number of these have appeared, we will suffice by discussing the following:

**Table (4.1): Luther’s address a number of rhetorical devices:**

Narrative, descriptive, argumentative, procedural, alliteration, allusion, amplification, analogy, anaphora, antimetabole, antithesis, appositive, enumeration and hyperbole.
---



**Table (4.2): Definition of rhetorical devices:**

No	Variables	Definition
1.	Alliteration	Refers to the recurrence of initial consonant sounds. The phrase "rubber baby buggy bumpers" is one example you might remember from your childhood. Alliteration is often associated with tongue twisters for kids, but brand names commonly use this technique too, such as American Apparel, Best Buy, and Krispy Kreme.
2.	Allusion	Is a reference to an event, place, or person. For example, you might say, "I can't get changed that quickly, I'm not Superman!" Referring to something well known allows the writer to make a point without elaborating in great detail.
3.	Amplification	Repeats a word or expression for emphasis, often using additional adjectives to clarify the meaning. "Love, real love, takes time" is an example of amplification because the author is using the phrase "real love" to distinguish his feelings from love that is mere infatuation.
4.	Analogy	Explains one thing in terms of another to highlight the ways in which they are alike. "He's as flaky as a snowstorm" would be one example of an analogy. Analogies that are very well known sometimes fall into the categories of idioms or figures of speech.
5.	Anaphora	Repeats a word or phrase in successive phrases. "If you prick us, do we not bleed? If you tickle us, do we not laugh?" is an example from Shakespeare's <i>Merchant of Venice</i> . The use of anaphora creates parallelism and rhythm, which is why this technique is often associated with music and poetry. However, any form of written work can benefit from this rhetorical device.

6.	Antimetabole	Repeats words or phrases in reverse order. The famous John F. Kennedy quote, "Ask not what your country can do for you - ask what you can do for your country" is a well-known example
7.	Antithesis	Makes a connection between two things. Neil Armstrong said, "That's one small step for a man, one giant leap for mankind". This pairs the idea of one man's individual action with the greater implication for humanity as a whole.
8.	Appositive	Places a noun or noun phrase next to another noun for descriptive purposes. An example would be, "Mary, queen of this land, hosted the ball". In this phrase, "queen of this land" is the appositive noun that describes Mary's role.
9.	Enumeration	Makes a point with details. For example, saying "The hotel renovation, including a new spa, tennis court, pool, and lounge, is finally complete" uses specific details to describe how large the renovation was.
10	Hyperbole	Refers to an exaggeration. Saying "I have done this a thousand times" to indicate that you're very familiar with a task is an example of hyperbole because it is unlikely you've really performed the task a thousand times.

The two most apparent discourse features of Dr. Luther King's speech are *argumentative* and *persuasive* style. Even without reference to figurative language, King's Style is fully packed with *bucolic* imagery and other literary techniques which readily appeals to the listeners' sentiments and sets them into sensitive motion. His rhythm and excessive use of imagery are provocative enough to sway the audience. The major themes which King sets out to highlight are those linked with justice, injustice, discrimination, segregation, inequality, poverty and non-violence.

One of King's outstanding styles of oration is the use of the technique of *call and response* where he says something and the masses before him respond in clear encouragement voice. This is a typical feature of African music which King exploits here to stir the masses:

Dr. King: *One hundred years later, the Negro, still, is not free!*

Man: *Yeah!*

Woman: *Right on!*

Dr. King: *Now is the time...*

Woman: *Yes it is!*

Dr. King: *When will you be satisfied?*

Man: *Never!*

King's speech "I have a dream" is chiefly rested on the type of vocabulary and style he uses in delivering his religious sermons. So this assures the transfer of the religious tone to the political situation the thing makes the speech stands as a genre of its own. King's fashion of speaking was generally found in religious and political activism within the African American culture. (Alvarez, 1988; Rosenberg, 1970a, 1970b) Dr. King appears to have greatly fallen back on his own special style of persuasion which, again, was heavily affected by his training as a religious leader. He quite frequently makes clear reference to the highly depressing situation of the African Americans and their deplorable reality. He understates that by striking a vivid comparison with the realities of the Hebrews as depicted in the Holy Scripture. He often alludes to one the minor twelve prophets called *Amos*. **Amos** wrote at a time of relative peace and prosperity but also of neglect of God's laws. He spoke against an increased disparity between the very wealthy and the very poor. His major themes of justice, God's omnipotence, and divine judgment became staples of prophecy. Dr. King

further alludes to Amos 5:24 of the Bible, which is found in King's tenth stanza, "No, no, we are not satisfied, and we will not be satisfied until justice rolls down like waters and righteousness like a mighty stream". To round up, he quotes from Isaiah 40:4, saying, "I have a dream that every valley shall be exalted". (King, 1963).

Far more striking examples of Dr. King's biblical allusions can be identified in such lines as "Free at last, free at last; thank God Almighty, we are free at last". In sum, "I Have a Dream" is clearly influenced by King's experience with the Bible and as a black Baptist member of the clergy and such rhetorical words and phrases induces a wonderful amount of excitement to the text of Dr. King's speech.

Though King criticized the Negroes' ways of life and drew our attention to their depressing realities, he loved America. King's criticism of the nation grew more radical, even somewhat bitter, over the course of the 1960s. Nevertheless, wrote Julius Lester, King believed in America "as if he were one of the signers of the Constitution. He loved America as if he had sewn the first flag. And he articulated a dream for America more forcefully than any man since Thomas Jefferson". Or, one might rather say, any man since

Abraham Lincoln. King's dream that "one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal,'" read the words of Jefferson through the mind of Lincoln, nowhere more clearly than in his extended metaphor of the "promissory note" on which the nation had defaulted:

But one hundred years later, the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination.

One hundred years later, the Negro lives on a lonely island of poverty in the midst of a vast ocean of material prosperity. One hundred years later, the Negro is still languished in the corners of American society and finds himself an exile in his own land. And so we've come here today to dramatize a shameful condition.

Conceptually, there is nothing complex about the idea of the promissory note. In essence, says King, it is the covenant of individual rights set forth in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. The note promised a kind of prosperity on which no price could be put, the riches of freedom stored in the bank of justice. It was a sacred obligation because it was entered into by men, the signers of the Declaration of Independence, who acted on the authority of "the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God." It guaranteed not wealth as such but the right, in a nation not of monarchs but of laws, to lay claim to the great vaults of opportunity through which every man (and woman) might enjoy the treasures of liberty and the pursuit of happiness.

The key message in the speech is that all people are created equal and, although not the case in America at the time, King felt it must be the case for the future. He argued passionately and powerfully. So what were his compositional strategies and techniques?

Speaking from a stylistic view point, King's speech has been considered as a political genre, a work of poetry, and a masterfully delivered and improvised sermon, bursting with biblical language and imagery. Moreover, he fairly uses rhythm and frequent repetition, alliteration is a hallmark device, used to bang home key points.

The first part of his speech harshly criticized America for the huge injustices afflicting the Black community. It is not a dream but a nightmarish one of racial injustices which calls for very quick remedy. We have also come to this sacred mark to remind America of the great importance of now. This is no time to engage in the luxury of cooling off or to take the tranquilizing drug of gradualism. Now is the time to make real the promises of democracy. Now is the time to rise from the dark and desolate valley of segregation to the sunlit path of racial justice. Now is the time to open the doors of opportunity to all of God's children. Now is the time to lift our nation from the quick sands of racial injustice to the solid rock of brotherhood.

Now let's dwell into handling the text itself:

Martin Luther King, Jr. delivered his "I Have A Dream" speech on August 28, 1963 during the March on Washington, a major civil rights demonstration.

King references the US *Constitution* and *Declaration* of Independence, which declared that America would be a land of freedom where all men are created equal. He then states that this promise of freedom has not been achieved for black Americans.

King repeats the phrases "I have a dream" and "with this faith," sharing his vision for a more equal society and reiterating his belief that such a future is attainable.

## **4.2 Time, Person and Social Diexis**

To illustrate this point, make use of the inception of his speech: *I am happy to join with you today in what will go down in history as the greatest demonstration for freedom in the history of our nation.*

This can be taken to refer to what is known as a temporal deictic marker, which is intended to strengthen his speech and adds a sense of cohesiveness. As he proceeds with his speech more temporal deictic markers are detected. They can be observed to occur in sentences of the kind: “*Five score years ago, a great American, in whose symbolic shadow we stand signed the Emancipation Proclamation*”. In particular part of his speech, King is making a clear reference to Abraham Lincoln and his historical decision during the Civil War to sign the *Emancipation Proclamation*. By doing so, King wanted to bracket together with the Black civil rights movement the signing of the Emancipation Proclamation.

Another episode which is evidential of the use of temporal deictic marker proposed to further reinforce his text and highlight an important development in the march of the Black Americans is the expression which is also connected with the signing of the Emancipation Proclamation: “*One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination*.”

A number of personal pronouns such as “*I, you, we, he*” are applied in the text as cohesive ties have spotted quite sporadically over the text. They act as intensifiers to further powerfully bring the parts of the text together. Another much interesting evidence associated with the use of the personal pronouns is the King’s use of “*We*” as many as twenty times to underscore a sense of consolidation.

King’s speech is also intensively laden with a number of *social deictic markers* to establish a sort of relationship between himself as addressor and his audience.

Dr. King also uses the word *Negros*, which is also a social deixis, to refer to Black Americans in attempt to interact with them and create a sense

of relation. Hatch (2001) refers to this as a “relational form” of person deixis.

### 4.3 Anaphora, Lexical Repetition and Parallelism

What makes King’s speech particularly so influential and inspiring is his use of certain rhetorical devices including anaphora, lexical repetition and parallelism. Lexical repetition strengthens lexical cohesion and renders the text so powerful. King tends to see lexical repetition or anaphora right at the beginning of sentences with the effect of augmenting the overall text. Across his delivery he uses the phrases “*let freedom ring....*” He kept deliberately. Of course, repeating this phrase to as many as eleven times to induce the desired effect. Another expression or phrase which was destined to have been employed so repetitively is “*I have a dream that*” in a fairly persuasive manner to urge others to change their ways of treating Black Americans.

It was observed that King’s speech particularly abounds in anaphora. Certain phrases “Now is the time” has been used as many as six times, whereas expressions as one “One hundred years later....” And “With this faith...” were detected more than ten times across his speech. He uses anaphora in order to bring about an artistic effect to his text and achieve the desired end. As a rhetorical device, **anaphora** is **used** to appeal to the emotions of the audience, in order to persuade, inspire, motivate, and encourage them.

Some **examples of parallelism** in rhetoric include: "I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream today". -Martin Luther King. The mixture of repetition and parallelism used by Dr. King in his “I Have a Dream” speech seeks to



produce a semantic function, highly needed to bring about a clear sense of cohesion within the text. Anaphoral phrases are rarely longer than a few words (lengthy, repeated phrases can be confusing to readers). Fun fact: The opposite of anaphora is *epistrophe*, “a word or phrase repeated at the end of consecutive lines.”

#### **4.4 Use of Rhyme**

One of the lexical cohesive functions noted to be repeatedly used by Martin Luther is the rhyme along with a certain rhythmical effect. These devices are provocative and carefully administered to the extent of stirring the audience and capture their attention. In the lines, “*My country, 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty, of thee I sing. Land where my fathers died, land of the pilgrim's pride, from every mountainside, let freedom ring*”.

Furthermore, Dr. King goes back to rhyme in the following lines, “*Go back to Mississippi, go back to Alabama, go back to Georgia, go back to Louisiana!*” The shrewd or astute utilizing of these literary devices by Dr. King makes his “*I Have a Dream*” speech even more effective and sensitively moving his audience. We can also see a morphological pattern here with “**Go** back to Mississippi, **go** back to Alabama, **go** back to Georgia, **go** back to Louisiana!” (King, 1963). These verbs of motion also contribute to the overall cohesion of the text of Dr. King’s speech.

#### **4.5 Phrases and Refrains**

Tannen (1989) demonstrates that using certain phrases by the speaker in public forums in a repetitive manner is a strategy intended to assess and augment the overall effect of the speech and answer the question, “So what? Moreover, King employs a variety of techniques in relation to sentence use as to the lengths and sudden or quite unexpected shifts in tone ranging from

anger to hope. King (1963) additionally makes use of rhetorical questions such as "when will you be satisfied?" and loud exclamations such as "I have a dream today!"

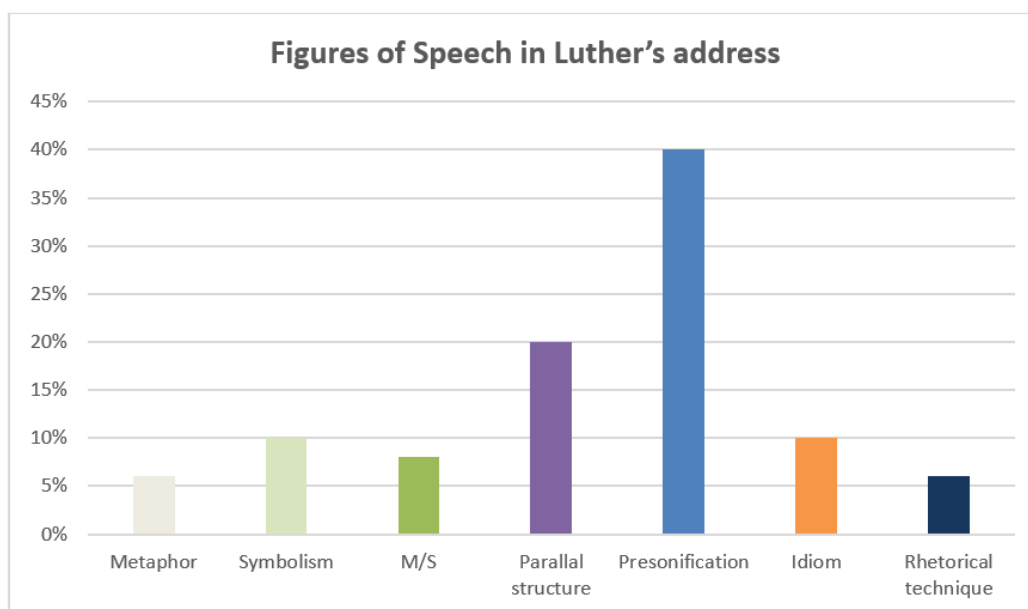
#### 4.6 Figurative Language

Going through King's text we are bound to encounter plentiful applications of figurative language. He tends to use symbolic language to constitute highly effective imagery. Moreover, figurative language gives visual picture on what desegregation would look like. This is a simile because **MLK Jr.** is comparing Justice rolling down **LIKE** water. He is also comparing righteousness like a mighty stream. This means that Justice will be like a mighty stream and will be everywhere.

**Table (4.3): Figures of the speech in Luther's address:**

No	Variables	Rhetorical Devices	Explanation	Percentage
1.	Five scores years ago	Rhetorical technique. Enumeration	Alludes to the Gettysburg Address	5%
2.	Shadow	Symbolism	Symbolizes Lincoln watching over the nation	5%
3.	Great beacon light of hope	Metaphor	Hope is compared to a big shining light	3%
4.	Seared in flames of withering injustice	Metaphor	Injustice is compared to flames of a fire	2%

5.	Seared in flames of withering injustice	Metaphor/symbolism	Duration of blacks' oppression compared to night/night symbolizes darkness	4%
6.	Long night of captivity	Metaphor	Darkness	5%
7.	<b>100 years later</b>	Parallel structure	Repetition throughout the paragraph	10%
8.	Manacles of segregation	Personification	Segregation wearing handcuffs like a human would	15%
9.	Chains of discrimination	Personification	Discrimination has chains like a human would	10%
10.	Lonely island of poverty	Metaphor	Compares poverty to an island	20%

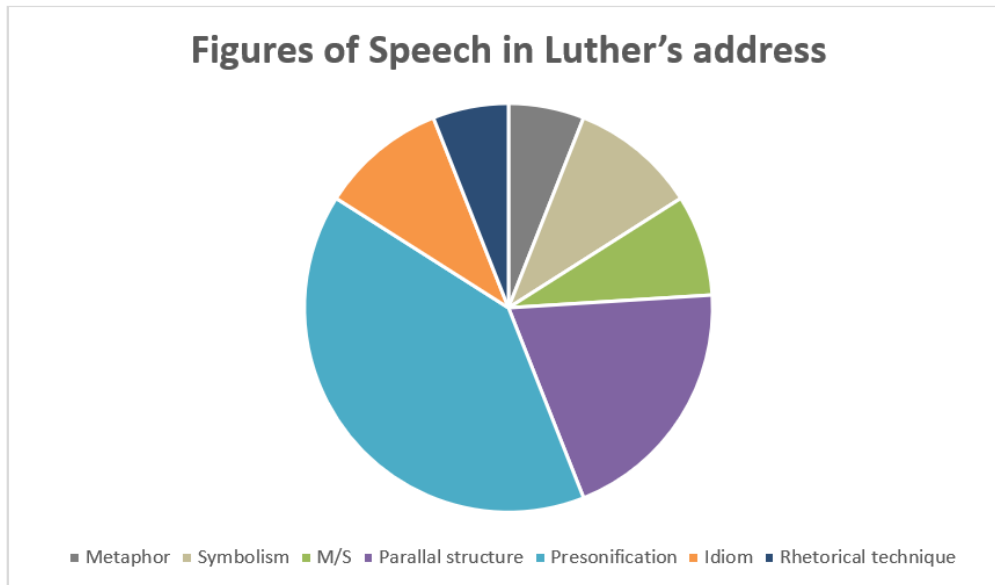


**Figure (4.1): Figures of speech Luther's address**

**Table (4.4): Figures of speech in Luther's address:**

No	Variables	Rhetorical Devices	Explanation	Percentage
1.	Vast ocean of material prosperity	Metaphor	Compares material prosperity to an ocean	7%
2.	Corners of American society	Metaphor	Compares society to a building with corners	5%
3.	We've come to "cash a check"	Metaphor	Compares blacks asking for their equality promised them to cashing a check at a bank	3%

<b>4.</b>	Architects of our republic	Metaphor	Compares forefathers to someone who designs and builds buildings	<b>2%</b>
<b>5.</b>	Signing a promissory note	Metaphor	Compares forefathers writing the Constitution and Declaration of Independence to a bank note	<b>4%</b>
<b>6.</b>	Cooling off	Idiom	Refers to a "getting over" it period of time; not being upset	<b>5%</b>
<b>7.</b>	Life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness	Rhetorical technique	Alludes to the Declaration of Independence	<b>10%</b>
<b>8.</b>	Defaulted on promissory note; bad check;	Metaphor	Compares the treatment of blacks-- non-equal status that should be equal	<b>15%</b>
<b>9.</b>	Bank of justice	Metaphor	Compares justice to a bank	<b>10%</b>
<b>10.</b>	Great vaults of opportunity	Metaphor	Compares opportunity to a bank with vaults	<b>20%</b>



**Figure (4.2): Figures of speech Luther's address**

**Table (4.5): Figures of speech in Luther's address:**

No	Variables	Rhetorical Devices	Explanation	Percentage
1.	Tranquilizing drug of gradualism	Metaphor	Compares gradualism to a drug	<b>7%</b>
2.	Now is the time...	Parallel structure	Repetition of phrase throughout paragraph	<b>5%</b>
3.	Valley of segregation	Metaphor	Compares segregation to a valley	<b>3%</b>

4.	Sunlit path of racial justice	Symbolism	Sunlit path describes the better life of racial equality	2%
5.	Quick sands of racial injustice	Metaphor	Compares injustice to quicksand	4%
6.	Solid rock of brotherhood	Metaphor	Compares brotherhood to being solid togetherness	5%
7.	Sweltering summer of the Negro's legitimate	Metaphor	Compares the duration of the Negro's unrest with their treatment to a hot,	10%
8	Invigorating autumn of freedom and equality	Metaphor	Compares changing to freedom and equality to a change in seasons from	15%
9.	Blow off steam	Idiom	Refers to voicing one's discontent then returning to how it is	10%

<b>10.</b>	Business as usual	Idiom	return to how things are and will always be if change does not occur	<b>20%</b>
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**Table (4.6): Figures of speech in Luther’s address:**

<b>No</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Rhetorical Devices</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1.	Whirlwinds of revolt	Metaphor	Compares revolting to a whirlwind	<b>7%</b>
2.	Shake the foundations	Metaphor	Compares our nation's Constitutional beliefs to something that can be shaken	<b>5%</b>
3.	Bright day of justice	Metaphor	Compares the time when justice will emerge to a bright day	<b>3%</b>
4.	Stand on the warm threshold...p alace of justice	Metaphor	Compares the approaching change of equality for all to that of entering a palace	<b>2%</b>



<b>5.</b>	Cup of bitterness and hatred	Metaphor	Compares bitterness of hatred to a cup that people drink out of	<b>4%</b>
<b>6.</b>	High plane of dignity and discipline	Metaphor	Compares dignity and discipline to a high flying plane symbolizing the feeling one has if they possess dignity and discipline to someone who does not	<b>5%</b>
<b>7.</b>	Tied up	Idiom	Something has everything to do with something else	<b>10%</b>
<b>8.</b>	Their freedom is inextricably bound to ours	Metaphor	Compares freedom of one people to being bound up to others-compares to something that can be bound/tied	<b>15%</b>
<b>9.</b>	When will you be satisfied?	Rhetorical question	Questions posed for thought rather than for an answer; draws reader in	<b>10%</b>

<b>10.</b>	Justice rolls down like waters	Simile	Compares justice to flowing water with the word like	<b>20%</b>
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**Table (4.7): Figures of speech in Luther’s address:**

<b>No</b>	<b>Variables</b>	<b>Rhetorical Devices</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1.	Righteousness like a mighty stream	Simile	Compares righteousness to a mighty stream with the word like	<b>7%</b>
2.	Storms of persecution	Metaphor	Compares the realities of persecution to a storm	<b>5%</b>
3.	Staggered by the winds of police brutality	Metaphor	Compares police brutality to winds that blow over things	<b>3%</b>
4.	Valley of despair	Metaphor	Compares despair to a valley that is somewhat narrow and cages people up	<b>2%</b>

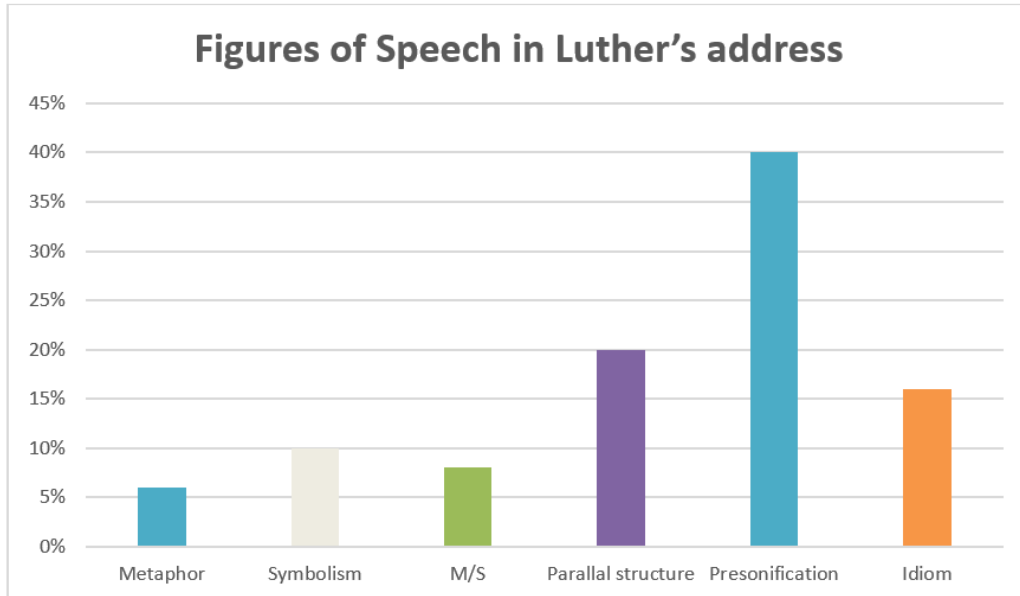
5.	I have a dream	Parallel structure	Phrase repeated throughout following paragraphs	4%
6.	We hold these truths to be self-evident...	Rhetorical technique	Refers to Declaration of Independence	5%
7.	Red hills of Georgia	Symbolism	Red means fire, hot, unrest	10%
8.	Table of brotherhood	Symbolism	Table symbolizes togetherness, unity	15%
9.	Heat of injustice and oppression	Symbolism	Heat symbolizes hatred, upset	10%
10.	Oasis of freedom	Symbolism	Oasis symbolizes a paradise that freedom would give	20%

**Table (4.8): Figures of speech in Luther’s address:**

No	Variables	Rhetorical Devices	Explanation	Percentage
1.	Lips dripping	Metaphor	Compares words of hatred out of one's mouth with perhaps dripping blood	7%

<b>2.</b>	Every hill and mountain made low	Symbolism	Hills and mountains symbolize bad feelings; inequality	<b>5%</b>
<b>3.</b>	Rough places made plain	Symbolism	Unrest changed to rest	<b>3%</b>
<b>4.</b>	Crooked places made straight	Symbolism	Corruption done away with and justice prevails	<b>2%</b>
<b>5.</b>	Mountain of despair	Symbolism	Symbolizes the great feeling of unrest; discontent— despair	<b>4%</b>
<b>6.</b>	Stone of hope	Symbolism	Stone symbolizes something permanent like hope should be	<b>5%</b>
<b>7.</b>	Jangling discord	Onomatopoeia	sounds like something that is noisy like discord would be	<b>10%</b>

<b>8.</b>	Symphony of brotherhood	Metaphor	Compares brotherhood to a group of togetherness like a symphony of instruments playing together	<b>15%</b>
<b>9.</b>	"My country 'tis of thee..."	Rhetorical technique	Alludes to the popular American patriotic song	<b>10%</b>
<b>10.</b>	Let freedom ring	Parallel structure	Repetition of phrase throughout paragraphs	<b>20%</b>



**Figure (4.3): Figures of speech Luther's address**

#### **4.7 Metaphor and Simile:**

Some more remarks need to be given in relation to the use of simile and metaphor by Martin Luther King. It was observed that metaphor has been drawn on quite extensively of all figures of speech. Sapir (1977) and Friedrich (1986) use the term "trope" to refer to such speech that depends on meaning and includes metaphor, metonymy, and irony (Tannen, 1989). The following is an example of how King used metaphor to conjure up strong images of injustice and inequality suffered by African Americans:

*America has given the Negro people a bad check which has come back marked "insufficient funds". But we refuse to believe that the bank of justice is bankrupt. We refuse to believe that there are insufficient funds in the great vaults of opportunity of this nation.*

Additional use of metaphorical speech can also be seen in the following passages of King's speech: "So we have come to cash this check - a check that will give us upon demand the riches of freedom and the security of justice". Moreover, King uses simile to again formulate images of oppression which can be seen in such language as "justice rolls down like waters", "righteousness like a mighty stream", "walk together as sisters and brothers". Equally prevalent in King's speech is the extensive use of metaphor such as in "the bank of justice is bankrupt", "there are insufficient funds in the great vaults of opportunity", and "we have come to cash this check".

"**I have a dream** that one day every valley shall be exalted, and every hill and mountain shall be made low". This is a good example of a **hyperbole** as **MLK** takes the idea that all black and white men living in peace will affect all valleys and hills as well. He argues, "There will be neither rest nor tranquility in America until the Negro is granted his citizenship rights" (7.5). The message is clear: this movement ain't stopping. King continues by giving encouragement to people who went to jail or got attacked by police while demonstrating for civil rights. Then he assures everyone that he (and the audience) won't be "satisfied" (9.4) until there's total equality in America. This is moving, riveting stuff, but it ain't half of what's coming.

In a style that reflects his day job as a reverend, Martin Luther King, Jr. riffs on the "I have a dream" theme. For six paragraphs in a row, he describes a vision of racial unity between descendants of slaves and slave-owners—a revolution of tolerance.

The end of the speech references the song "America the Beautiful", riffing on the phrase "let freedom ring" (20.2-8). Another song, the African American spiritual "Free At Last", wraps up this epic speech.

Despite its simple language and structures, this text can still be very challenging to students who are not well informed in American culture and history. It is unlikely that almost all our Sudanese students have a thorough understanding of American history. For example, in lines one and two of his speech, King refers to "the Great American" and "One hundred years later" in reference to President Abraham Lincoln and the Emancipation Proclamation respectively. The lack of familiarity with such socio-political references would prevent most L2 learners from obtaining any deep meaning from the text. Moreover, it would be difficult for EFL learners to imagine or empathize with what life was like for the African American people at the time Dr. Martin Luther King made his speech. To emphasize this point, Kress (1995) writes:

*The subjects in a social and linguistic interaction bring with them into the construction of a text all the lived social history of their experience...all the meanings of that experience, their positioning in structures of power, and the linguistic forms that gave expression to these form a part of the construction of any text (p.120).*

It goes without saying that background knowledge is such an essential element in understanding the discourse hence it would be easier for those with the right background knowledge in American history and socio-cultural realities to get along with understanding *I have a Dream*.



## **4.8 Analysis of the Questionnaire**

### **(a) The Responses to the Questionnaire**

The responses to the questionnaire of the 70 teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study. Each item in the questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables will support the discussion.

### **(b) Analysis of the Questionnaire**

The researcher distributed the questionnaire on determined study sample (70), and constructed the required tables for collected data. This step consists transformation of the qualitative (nominal) variables (strongly disagree, disagree, Undetermined, agree, and strongly agree) to quantitative variables (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) respectively, also the graphical representations were used for this purpose.

### **(c) Statistical Reliability**

Reliability refers to the reliability of any test, to obtaining the same results if the same measurement is used more than one time under the same conditions. In addition, the reliability means when a certain test was applied on a number of individuals and the marks of every one were counted; then the same test applied another time on the same group and the same marks were obtained; then we can describe this test as reliable. In addition, reliability is defined as the degree of the accuracy of the data that the test measures. Here are some of the most used methods for calculating the reliability:

#### **.Alpha-Cronbach coefficient.**

On the other hand, validity also is a measure used to identify the validity degree among the respondents according to their answers on certain

criterion. The validity is counted by a number of methods, among them is the validity using the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The value of the reliability and the validity lies in the range between (0-1). The validity of the questionnaire is that the tool should measure the exact aim, which it has been designed for.

In this study the validity calculated by using the following equation:

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$$

The reliability coefficient was calculated for the measurement, which was used in the questionnaire using Alpha-Cronbach coefficient Equation as the following:

For calculating the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire from the above equation, the researcher distributed the questionnaire forms to 30 respondents to calculate the reliability coefficient using the Alpha-Cronbach coefficient; the results have been showed in the following table.

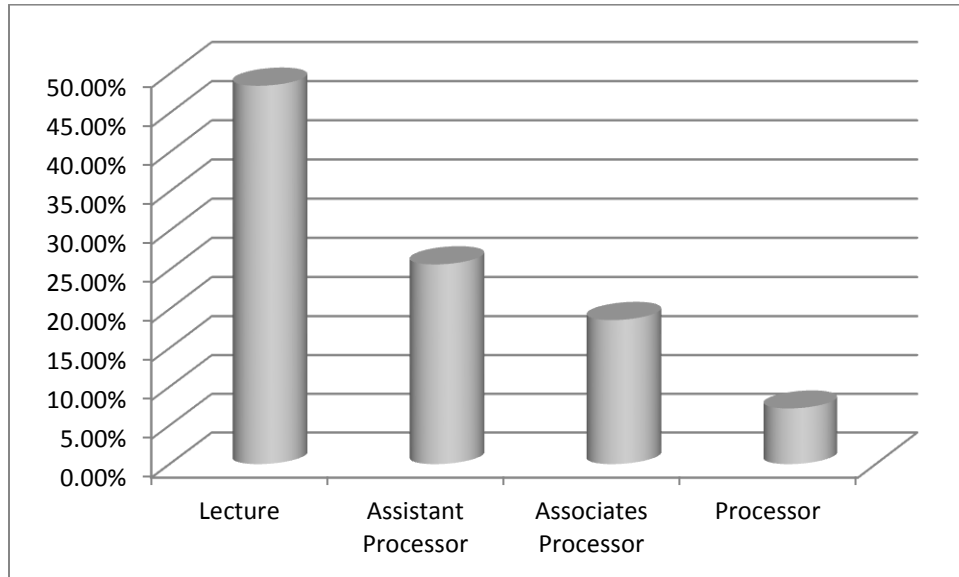
**Table (4.9): Alpha-Cronbach coefficient equation:**

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
0.88	18

**Table (4.10): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers according to their academic status:**

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Lecture	34	48.5%
Assistant Professor	18	25.7%
Associates Professor	13	18.6%
Professor	5	7.2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100%</b>

Percentage (48.5%) was for 34 lectures, and the number of Assistant Professor was (18) with percentage (25.7%) and the number of Associate Professors was (13) persons with (18.6) percent, and the number of Professors was (5) with percent (7.2%).



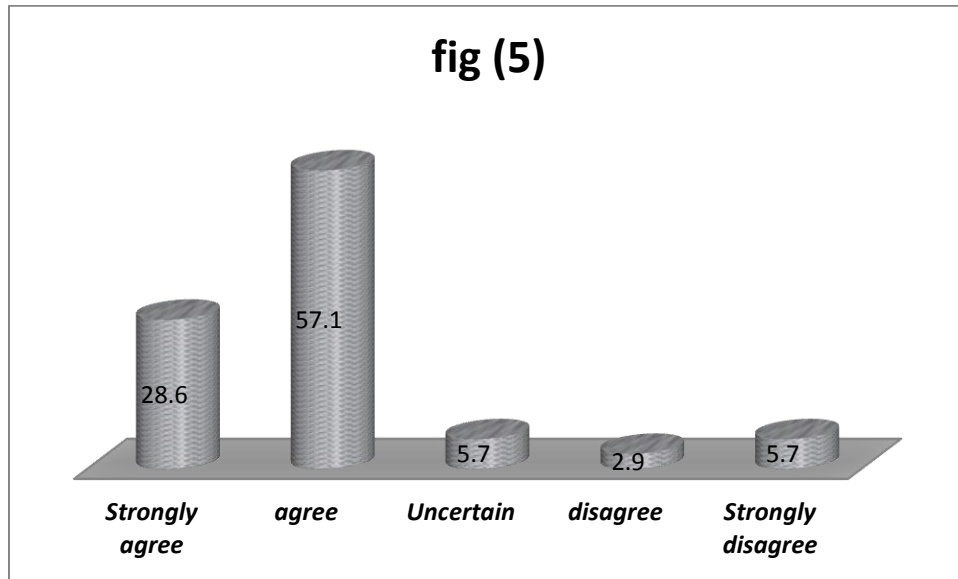
**Figure (4.4): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers according to their academic status**

**Statement No.(1):** *Analyzing Dr.Martin Luther King’s I have a dream is perfectly achievable through content analysis.*

**Table (4.11): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(1):**

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	20	28.6
Agree	40	57.1
Uncertain	4	5.7
Disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	4	5.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

Judging by the table above table No.(4.11) and figure No.(4.5) It is clear that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with "*Analyzing Dr. Luther King's I have a dream is perfectly achievable through content analysis*". There are (40) persons with percentage (57.1%) agreed with that, and (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (7) persons with 5.7% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.5): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(1)**

The process of content analysis is potentially one of the most important research techniques in the social sciences. The content analyst views data as representations not of physical events but of texts, images, and expressions that are created to be seen, read, interpreted, and acted on for their meanings, and must therefore be analyzed with such uses in mind. Analyzing texts in the contexts of their uses distinguishes content analysis from other methods of inquiry. Methods in the natural sciences are not concerned with meanings, contents, intentions, and reference these scientists

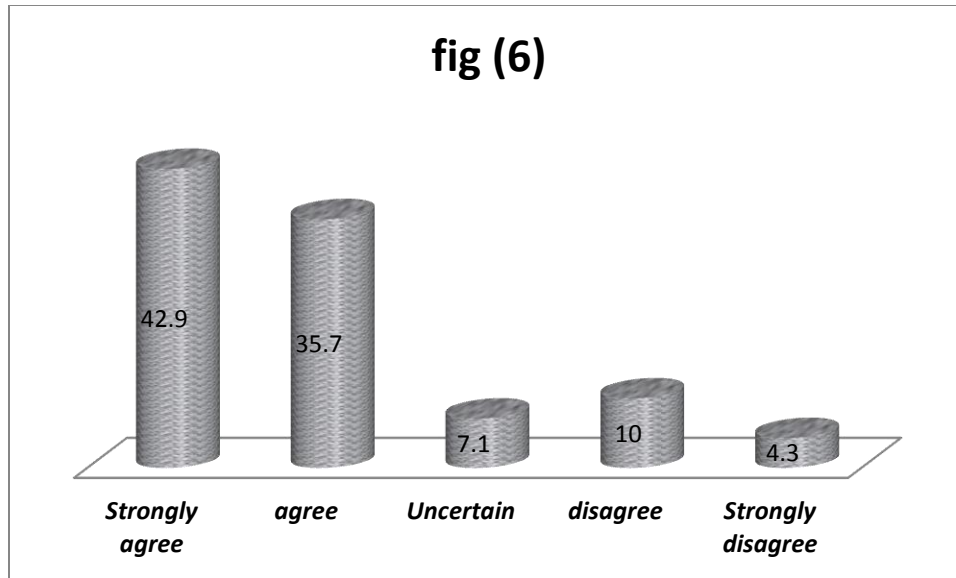
hardly reflect on their own conceptions of nature, excluding their conceptions from their object of study by dismissing them as subjective in contrast to what can be determined through detached observation and objective measurement.

**Statement No.(2):** *content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research.*

**Table (4.12):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(2):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	30	42.9
Agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	5	7.1
Disagree	7	10
Strongly disagree	3	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

From the above table No.(4.12) and figure No.(4.6) It is clear that there are (30) persons in the study's sample with percentage (42.9%) strongly agreed with "*content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research*". There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) were not sure that, and (7) persons with percentage (10.0%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 3.4% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.6): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(2)**

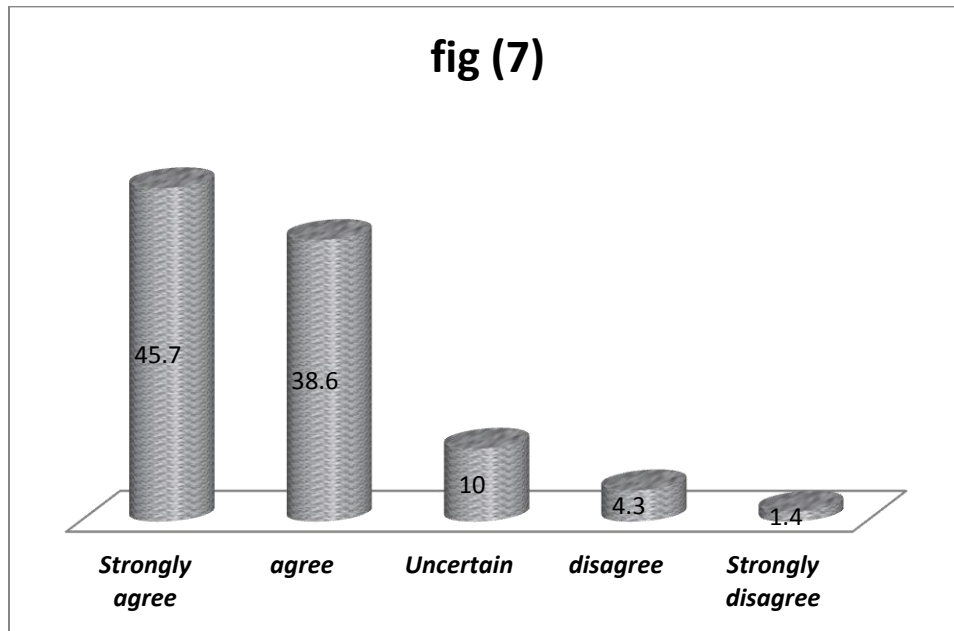
In the 1980s, content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research. At that time, the amount of human effort required to collect, transcribe, and code textual data made content analysis a time consuming and labor-intensive effort. Today, content analysis has become an efficient alternative to public opinion research, a method of tracking markets, political leanings, and emerging ideas; it is used as a way to settle legal disputes and as an approach to the exploration of individual human minds-not to dwell on the many improvements that content analysts have made in traditional content analytic inquiries of the mass media. Despite remarkable progress, content analysts can hardly claim to have met the challenges of this new era. The imagined analytical potential is far ahead of what can be done today, fueling the work of many developers of new analytic tools.

**Statement No.(3):** *According to Webster Dictionary The term content analysis is about 60 years old.*

**Table (4.13):** The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(3):

<b>Valid</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Strongly agree</b>	32	45.7
<b>Agree</b>	27	38.6
<b>Uncertain</b>	7	10
<b>disagree</b>	3	4.3
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	1	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.13) and figure No.(4.7) that there are (32) persons in the study's sample with percentage (45.7%) strongly agreed with "*According to Webster Dictionary The term content analysis is about 60 years old*". There are (27) persons with percentage (38.6%) agreed with that, and (7) persons with percentage (10.0%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (1) persons with 1.4% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.7): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(3)**

Webster's Dictionary of the English Language included the term in its 1961 edition, defining it as "analysis of the manifest and latent content of a body of communicated material (as a book or film) through classification, tabulation, and evaluation of its key symbols and themes in order to ascertain its meaning and probable effect". The intellectual roots of content analysis, however, can be traced far back in human history, to the beginning of the conscious use of symbols and voice, especially writing. This conscious use, which replaced the magical use of language, has been shaped by the ancient disciplines of philosophy, rhetoric, and cryptography. It has also spawned religious inquisitions and political censorship on the part of ruling establishments. Today, symbolic phenomena are institutionalized in art, literature, education, and the mass media, including the Internet. Theoretical and analytical concerns are found in such academic disciplines as anthropology, linguistics, social psychology, sociology of knowledge, and



the comparatively younger field of communication studies. Many practical pursuits have grown from these fields: psychotherapy, advertising, politics, the arts, and so on. Virtually all disciplines within the whole spectrum of the humanities and the social sciences, including those that seek to improve the political and social conditions of life, are concerned with the functions and effects of symbols, meanings, and messages. In recent years, the emergence of the information society has moved the minutiae of communication-texts, contexts, images, interfaces, and, above all, information into the very center of researchers' attempts at self-understanding.

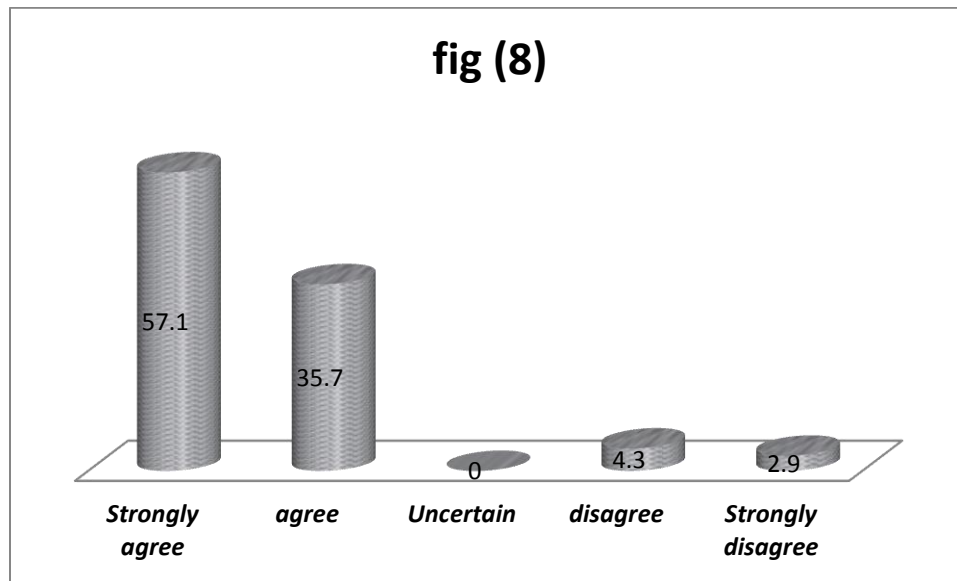
**Statement No.(4):** *Content analysis is distinguished as an empirically grounded method.*

**Table (4.14):** The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(4):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
Agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	0	0
Disagree	3	4.3
Strongly disagree	2	2.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.14) and figure No.(4.8) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with "*Content analysis is distinguished as an empirically grounded method*". There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure that, and

(3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (2) persons with 2.9% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.8): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(4)**

Content analysis is an empirically grounded method, exploratory in process, and predictive or inferential in intent. Many of our current concepts relating to language are of Greek origin; for example, the words sign, significance, symbol, and logic all have Greek roots. However, the ancient Greeks' interest in language was largely prescriptive and classificatory, not empirical. Aristotelian logic set the standards for clear expression, and much of rhetorical theory was directed toward a normative conception of persuasive argumentation. Science that explores rather than declares is a relatively recent accomplishment. Only a century ago, George Boole and his contemporaries believed that the brain works according to (Boolean) logic and that human conduct is entirely rational. However, computers built on this logic turned out to be rather disappointing thinking machines. Empirical research in psychology is replacing Aristotelian categories in favor of a

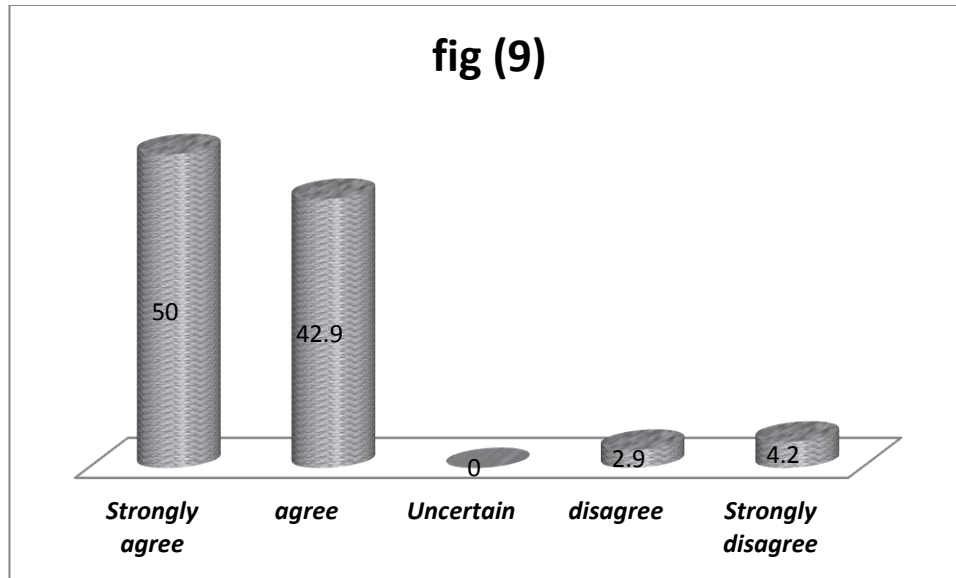
"psycho-logic." And we no longer measure human communication against the ideal of transmitting information. Instead, we inquire into what happens to the relationships between people who converse with one another.

**Statement No.(5):** *in recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions for most of which is the message.*

**Table (4.15):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(5):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Strongly agree</b>	35	50
<b>Agree</b>	30	42.9
<b>Uncertain</b>	0	0
<b>disagree</b>	2	2.9
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	3	4.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.15) and figure No.(4.9) that there are (35) persons in the study's sample with percentage (50.0%) strongly agreed with "*in recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions for most of which is the message*". There are (30) persons with percentage (42.9%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (00.0%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 4.2% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.9): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(5)**

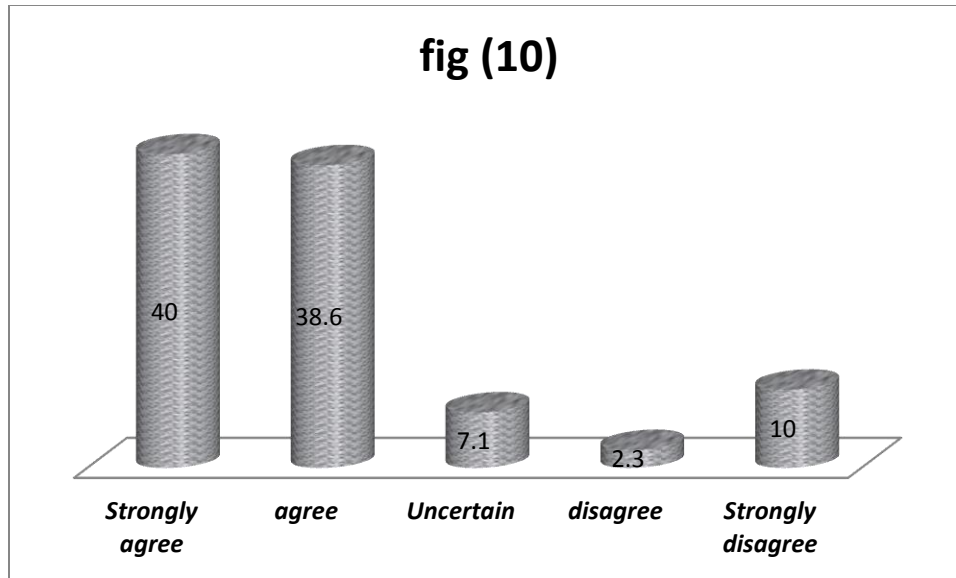
The idea of *messages*: the early awareness not only that verbal discourse is movable when written, but that writing has predictable effects. This awareness emerged in ancient Greece when messengers were used as the carriers of significance, history became documented, laws of the land were laid down in writing, and written instructions built organizational structures, directed events, and influenced (and possibly deceived) their receivers or the public. The concept of a message was a precursor of the rhetorical exploration of language. Tropes, syllogisms, and meanings came to be thought of as inherent qualities of speeches, letters, or documents. But a message is the metaphorical container of all these, a "container of content", a vehicle for shipping meanings from one place to another-for example, when we now leave a message for someone on an answering machine or say that a message was meaningful (full of meanings) or meaningless (void of meanings).

**Statement No.(6):** *History of content analysis dates back to theological studies.*

**Table (4.16):** The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(6):

<b>Valid</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Strongly agree</b>	28	40
<b>Agree</b>	27	38.6
<b>Uncertain</b>	5	7.1
<b>disagree</b>	3	2.3
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	7	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.16) and figure No.(4.10) that there are (28) persons in the study's sample with percentage (40.0%) strongly agreed with "*History of content analysis dates back to theological studies*". There are (27) persons with percentage (38.6%) agreed with that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.2%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (2.3%) disagreed. and (7) persons with 10.0% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.10): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(6)**

Empirical inquiries into the meanings of communications date back to theological studies in the late 1600s, when the Church found the printing of nonreligious materials to be a threat to its authority. Such inquiries have since mushroomed, moving into numerous areas and becoming the backbone of communication research. This chapter discusses several stages in the history of content analysis: quantitative studies of the press; propaganda analysis during World War II; social scientific uses of the technique in studies of political symbols, historical documents, anthropological data, and psychotherapeutic exchanges; computer text analysis and the new media; and qualitative challenges to content analysis.

Content analysis entails a systematic reading of a body of texts, images, and symbolic matter, not necessary from an author's or user's perspective. Although the term content analysis did not appear in English until 1941 (Waples & Berelson, 1941, p.2; cited in Berelson & Lazarsfeld, 1948), the systematic analysis of text can be traced back to inquisitorial

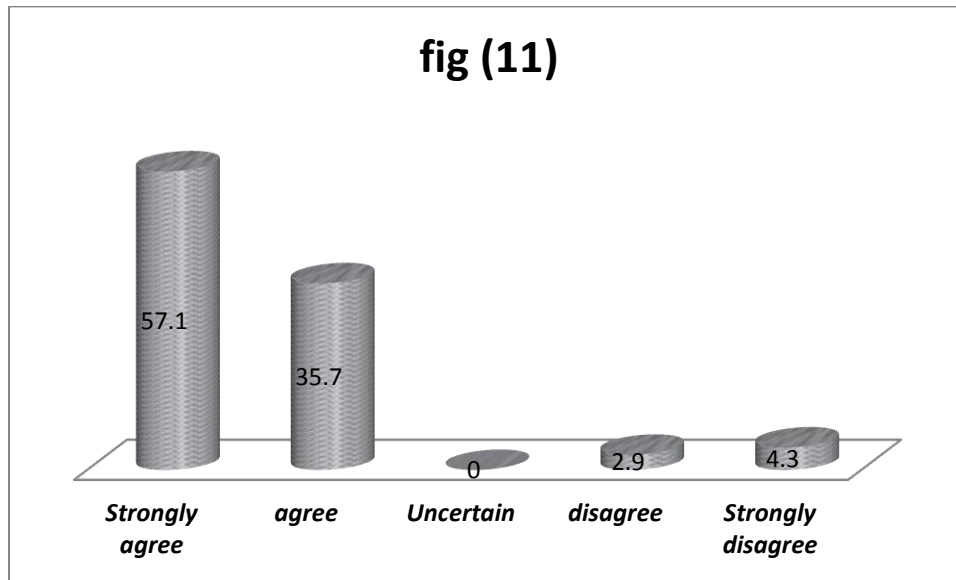
pursuits by the Church in the 17th century. Religions have always been captivated by the written word, so it is not surprising that the first known dissertations about newspapers were defended in 1690, 1695, and 1699 by individuals pursuing academic degrees in theology.

**Statement No.(7):** *Many American believed that mass media is responsible for the economic crisis of 1929 a thing which led through diverse debates to the development of content analysis.*

**Table (4.17):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(7):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	40	57.1
Agree	25	35.7
Uncertain	0	0
Disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	3	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.17) and figure No.(4.11) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with "*Many American belied that mass media is responsible for the economic crisis of 1929 a thing which led through diverse debates to the development of content analysis*". There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (0.00%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (3) persons with 3.4% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.11): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(7)**

During the period following the 1929 economic crisis, numerous social and political problems emerged in the United States. Many Americans believed that the mass media were at least partially to blame for such problems as yellow journalism, rising crime rates, and the breakdown of cultural values.

New and increasingly powerful electronic media of communication, first radio and later television, challenged the cultural hegemony of the newspapers. Researchers could not continue to treat these new media as extensions of newspapers, because they differed from the print media in important ways. For example, users of radio and television did not have to be able to read.

Major political challenges to democracy were linked to the new mass media. For example, the rise of fascism was seen as nourished by the as-yet little-known properties of radio.



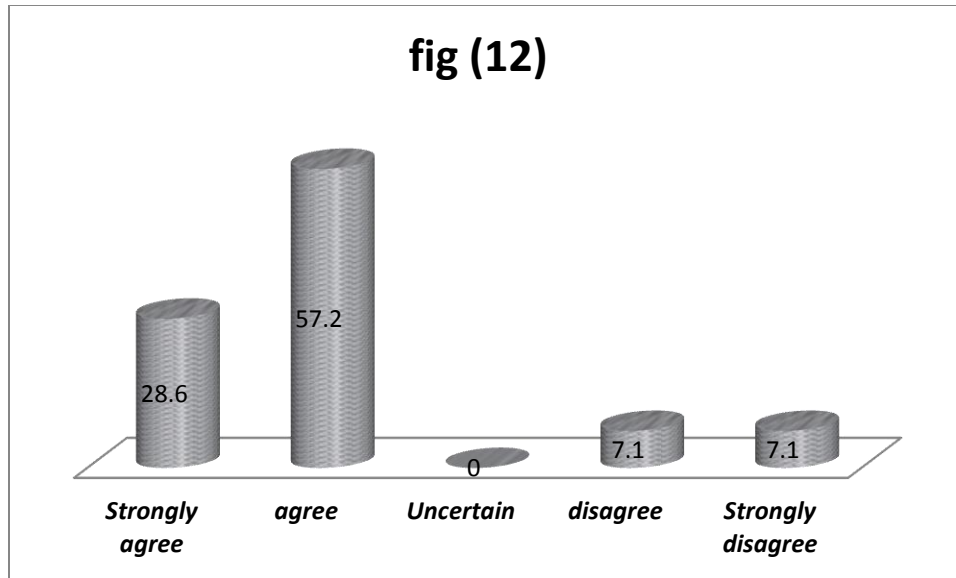
Perhaps most important, this period saw the emergence of the behavioral and social sciences as well as increasing public acceptance of the theoretical propositions and empirical methods of inquiry associated with them.

**Statement No.(8):** *One of the most important concepts that emerged in psychology during this time in relation with content analysis was the concept of "attitude".*

**Table (4.18):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(8):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Strongly agree</b>	20	28.6
<b>Agree</b>	40	57.2
<b>Uncertain</b>	0	0
<b>Disagree</b>	5	7.1
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	5	7.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.18) and figure No.(4.12) that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with "*One of the most important concepts that emerged in psychology during this time in relation with content analysis was the concept of "attitude"*". There are (40) persons with percentage (57.2%) agreed with that, and (0) persons with percentage (0.00%) were not sure that, and (5) persons with percentage (7.1%) disagreed. and (5) persons with 7.1% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.12): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(8)**

The concept of attitude added evaluative dimensions to content analysis, such as "pro-con" or "favorable-unfavorable" that had escaped the rough subject matter categories of quantitative newspaper analysis. Attitude measures redefined journalistic standards of fairness and balance and opened the door to the systematic assessment of bias. Among the explicit standards developed, Janis and Fadner's (1943-1965) "coefficient of imbalance" deserves mention. Psychological experiments in rumor transmission led Allport and Faden to study newspaper content from an entirely new perspective. In their (1940) articles "The Psychology of Newspapers: Five Tentative Laws", they attempted to account for the changes that information undergoes as it travels through an institution and finally appears on the printed page.

The interest in political symbols added another feature to the analysis of public messages. McDiarmid (1937), for example, examined 30 U.S. presidential inaugural addresses for symbols of national identity, of

historical significance, of government, and of fact and expectations. Most important, Lasswell (1938), viewing public communications within his psychoanalytical theory of politics, classified symbols into such categories as "self" and "others" and forms of "indulgence" and "deprivation". His symbol analysis led to his "World Attention Survey", in which he compared trends in the frequencies with which prestige newspapers in several countries used national symbols (Lasswell, 1941).

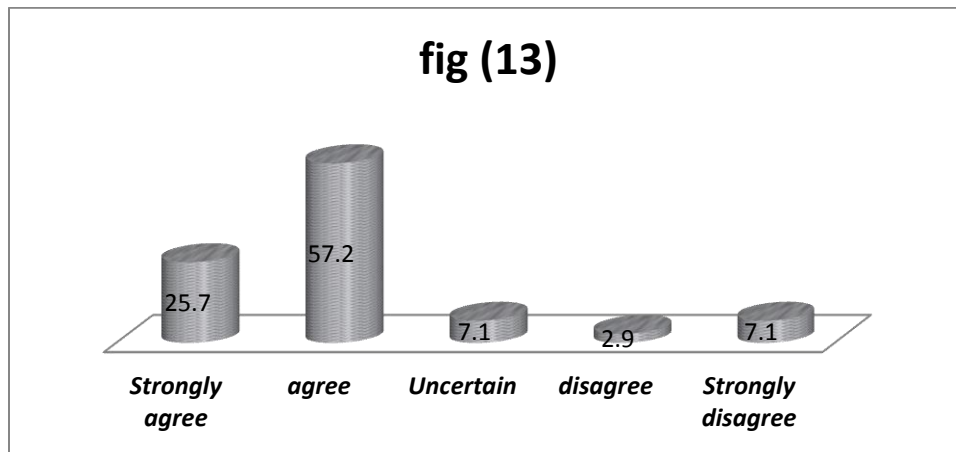
**Statement No.(9):** *Berelson described content analysis as the use of mass communications as data for testing scientific hypotheses and for evaluating journalistic practices but faced the challenge of propaganda.*

**Table (4.19):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(9):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	18	25.7
agree	40	57.2
Uncertain	5	7.1
disagree	2	2.9
Strongly disagree	5	7.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.19) and figure No.(4.13) that there are (18) persons in the study's sample with percentage (25.7%) strongly agreed with "*Berelson described content analysis as the use of mass communications as data for testing scientific hypotheses and for evaluating journalistic practices but faced the challenge of propaganda*". There are (40) persons with percentage (57.2%) agreed with that, and (5) persons with

percentage (7.1%) were not sure that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) disagreed. and (5) persons with 7.1% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.13): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(9)**

The most important and large-scale challenge that content analysis faced came during World War II, when it was employed in efforts to extract information from propaganda. Before the war, researchers analyzed texts in order to identify “propagandists,” to point fingers at individuals who were attempting to influence others through devious means. Fears concerning such influence had several origins.

Propaganda was used extensively during World War I (Lasswell, 1927), and the years between the two world wars witnessed the effective use of propaganda by antidemocratic demagogues in Europe. In addition, Americans tend to have deep-seated negative attitudes toward religious fanatics, and the lack of knowledge concerning what the extensive use of the new mass media (radio, film, and television) could do to people raised concerns as well. According to the Institute for Propaganda Analysis (1937), propagandists reveal themselves through their use of tricks such as "name-calling", "employing", "glittering generalities", "plain folks"

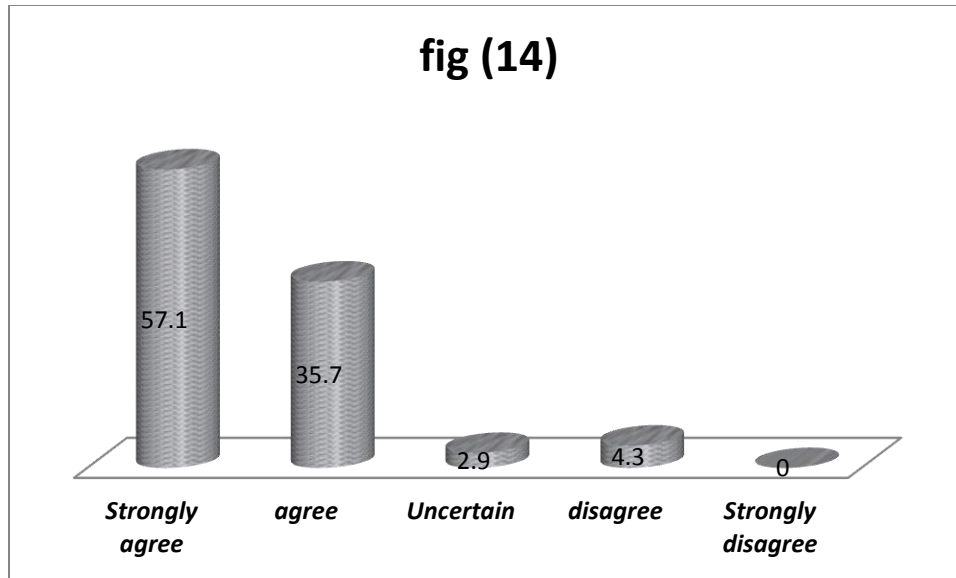
"identifications", "card stacking", "bandwagon", "devices", and so on. Such devices could be identified easily in many religious and political speeches, even in academic lectures, and this approach to propaganda analysis led to a kind of witch-hunt for propagandists in the United States. Theories concerning subliminal messages, especially in advertising, raised widespread suspicion as well.

**Statement No.(10):** *After the World War II the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines.*

**Table (4.20):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(10):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Strongly agree</b>	40	57.1
<b>agree</b>	25	35.7
<b>Uncertain</b>	2	2.9
<b>Disagree</b>	3	4.3
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.20) and figure No.(4.14) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with “*After the World War II the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines*”. There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (3.4%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.14): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(10)**

After World War II, and perhaps as the result of the first integrated picture of content analysis provided by Berelson (1952), the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines. This is not to say that content analysis emigrated from mass communication. In fact, the very "massiveness" of available communications continued to attract scholars who looked at the mass media from new perspectives. For example, Lasswell (1941) realized his earlier idea of a "world attention survey" in a large-scale study of political symbols in French, German, British, Russian, and U.S. elite press editorials and key policy speeches. He wanted to test the hypothesis that a "world revolution" had been in steady progress for some time (Lasswell, Lerner, & Pool, 1952). Gerbner and his colleagues pursued Gerbner's (1969) proposal to develop "cultural indicators" by analyzing, for almost two decades, one week of fictional television programming per year, mainly to establish "violence profiles" for different networks, to trace trends, and to see how various groups (such as women, children, and the aged) were

portrayed on U.S. Television (see, e.g., Gerbner, Gross, Signorielli, Morgan, & Jackson-Beeck, 1979).

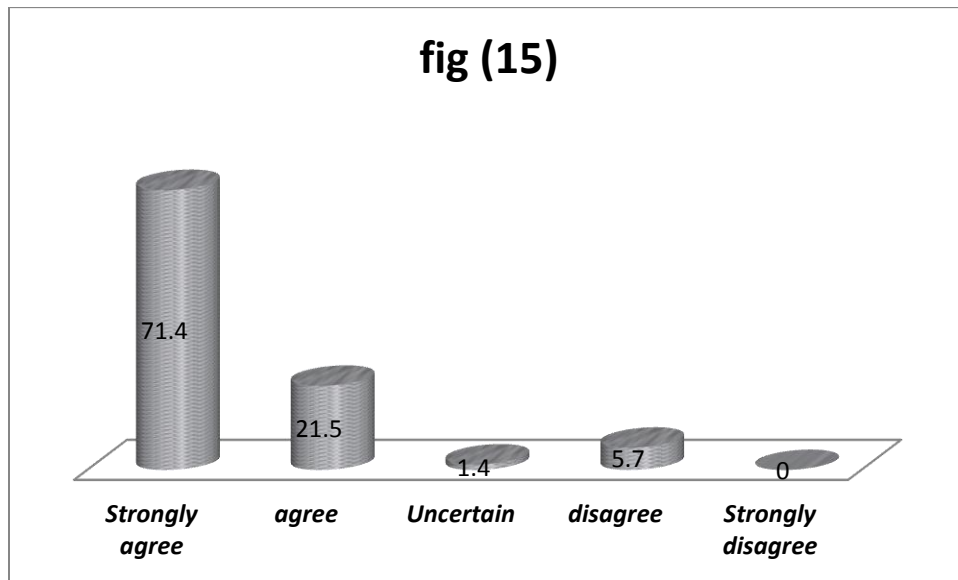
Psychologists began to use content analysis in four primary areas. The first was the inference of motivational, mental, or personality characteristics through the analysis of verbal records. This application started with Allport's (1942) treatise on the use of personal documents, Baldwin's (1942) application of "personal structure analysis" to cognitive structure, and White's (1947) value studies. These studies legitimated the use of written material, personal documents, and individual accounts of observed phenomena as an addition to the then-dominant experimental methods. A second application was the use of verbal data gathered in the form of answers to open-ended interview questions, focus group conversations, and verbal responses to various tests, including the construction of Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) stories.

**Statement No.(11):** *In the context of thematic appreciation test TAT stories, content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique.*

**Table (4.21):** The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(11):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	50	71.4
agree	15	21.5
Uncertain	1	1.4
disagree	4	5.7
Strongly disagree	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.21) and figure No.(4.15) that there are (50) persons in the study's sample with percentage (71.4%) strongly agreed with"): In the context of *thematic appreciation test TAT stories, content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique*". There are (15) persons with percentage (21.5%) agreed with that, and (1) persons with percentage (1.4%) were not sure that, and (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.15): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(11)**

In relation to thematic appreciation, test content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique. As such, it allowed researchers to utilize data that they could gather without imposing too much structure on subjects and to validate findings they had obtained through different techniques. Psychological researchers' third application of content analysis concerned processes of communication in which content is an integral part. For example, in his "interaction process analysis" of small group behavior,



Bales (1950) used verbal exchanges as data through which to examine group processes. The fourth application took the form of the generalization of measures of meaning over a wide range of situations and cultures (which derived from individualist notions of meaning or content). Osgood (1974a, 1974b) and his students found numerous applications for Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum's (1957) semantic differential scales and conducted worldwide comparisons of cultural commonalities and differences.

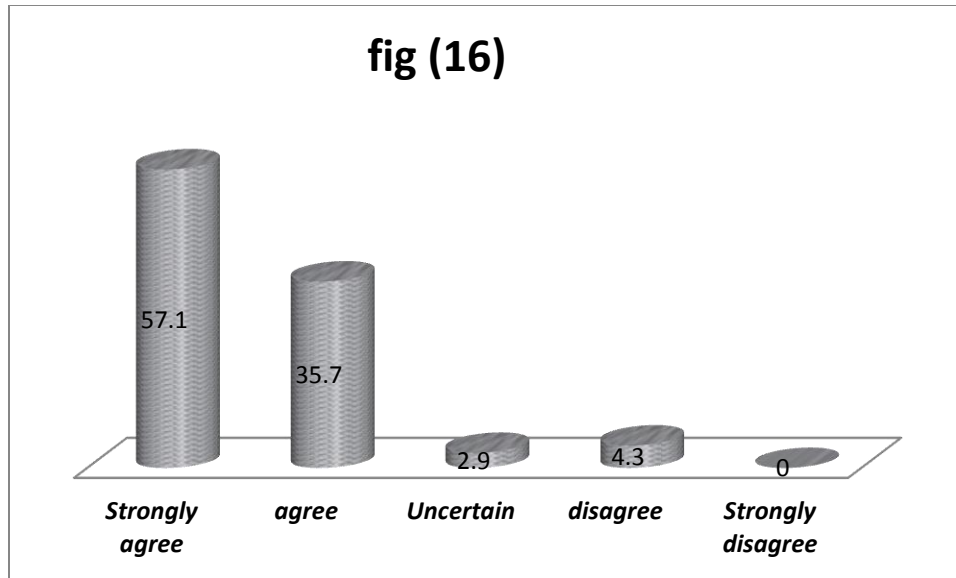
Anthropologists, who started using content analysis techniques in their studies of myths, folktales, and riddles, have made many contributions to content analysis, including the componential analysis of kinship terminology (Goodenough, 1972). Ethnography emerged in anthropology, and although ethnographers often interact with their informants in ways that content analysts cannot interact with authors or readers, after ethnographers gather their field notes they start to rely heavily on methods that are similar to those that content analysts use.

**Statement No.(12):** *Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful.*

**Table (4.22): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No. (12):**

<b>Valid</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Strongly agree</b>	30	42.9
<b>Agree</b>	29	41.4
<b>Uncertain</b>	3	4.3
<b>Disagree</b>	4	5.7
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	4	5.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.22) and figure No.(4.16) that there are (30) persons in the study's sample with percentage (42.9%) strongly agreed with "*Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful*". There are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed with that, and (3) persons with percentage (4.5%) were not sure that, and (4) persons with percentage (5.7%) disagreed. and (4) persons with 5.7% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.16): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(12)**

Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful. Social scientists also recognized the usefulness of educational materials, which had long been the focus of research. Such materials are a rich source of data on processes of reading (Flesch, 1948-1951) as well as on a society's larger political, attitudinal, and value trends. In addition, literary scholars began to apply the newly available techniques of content analysis to the problem of identifying the authors of unsigned documents.

On the one hand, this proliferation of the use of content analysis across disciplines resulted in a loss of focus: Everything seemed to be content analyzable, and every analysis of symbolic phenomena became a content analysis. On the other hand, this trend also broadened the scope of

the technique to embrace what may well be the essence of human behavior: talk, conversation, and mediated communication.

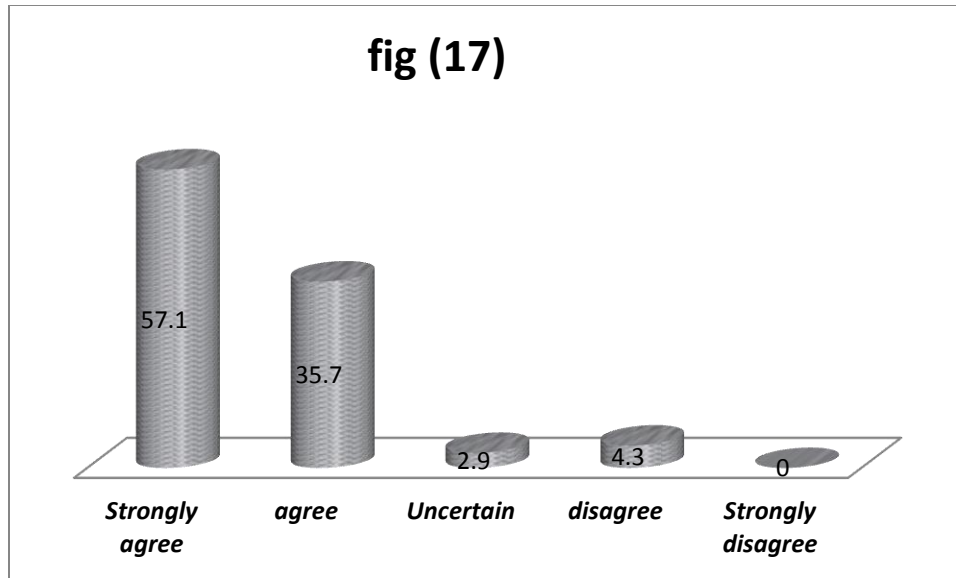
In 1955, responding to increasing interest in the subject, the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Linguistics and Psychology sponsored a conference on content analysis. The participants came from such disciplines as psychology, political science, literature, history, anthropology, and linguistics. Their contributions to the conference were published in a volume titled *Trends in Content Analysis*, edited by Ithiel de Sola Pool (1959a). Despite obvious divergence among the contributors in their interests and approaches, Pool (1959a, p.2) observed, there was considerable and often surprising convergence among them in two areas: They exhibited (a) a shift from analyzing the "content" of communications to drawing inferences about the antecedent conditions of communications and (b) an accompanying shift from measuring volumes of subject matter to counting simple frequencies of symbols, and then to relying on contingencies (co-occurrences).

**Statement No. (13):** *As a technique, content analysis involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher.*

**Table (4.23): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(13):**

<b>Valid</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Strongly agree</b>	40	57.1
<b>Agree</b>	25	35.7
<b>Uncertain</b>	2	2.9
<b>disagree</b>	3	4.3
<b>Strongly disagree</b>	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from the above table No.(4.23) and figure No.(4.17) that there are (40) persons in the study's sample with percentage (57.1%) strongly agreed with "*As a technique, content analysis involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher*". There are (25) persons with percentage (35.7%) agreed with that, and (2) persons with percentage (2.9%) were not sure that, and (3) persons with percentage (4.3%) disagreed. and (0) persons with 0.0% are strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.17): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(13)**

As a research technique, content analysis provides new insights, increases a researcher's understanding of particular phenomena, or informs practical actions. Content analysis is a scientific tool.

Techniques are expected to be reliable. More specifically, research techniques should result in findings that are replicable. That is, researchers working at different points in time and perhaps under different circumstances should get the same results when applying the same technique to the same data. Reliability is the most important form of lity.

Scientific research must also yield valid results, in the sense that the research effort is open for careful scrutiny and the resulting claims can be upheld in the face of independently available evidence. The methodological requirements of reliability and validity are not unique to but make particular demands on content analysis.

The reference to text in the above definition is not intended to restrict content analysis to written material. The phrase "or other meaningful matter"

is included in parentheses to indicate that in content analysis works of art, images, maps, sounds, signs, symbols, and even numerical records may be included as data that is, they may be considered as texts-provided they speak to someone about phenomena outside of what can be sensed or observed. The crucial distinction between text and what other research methods take as their starting point is that a text means something to someone, it is produced by someone to have meanings for someone else, and these meanings therefore must not be ignored and must not violate why the text exists in the first place.

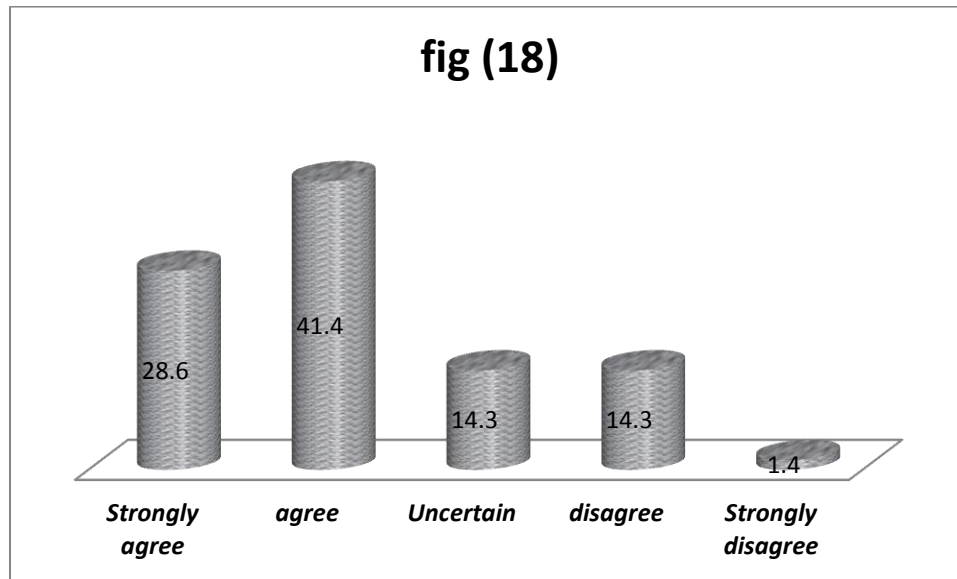
**Statement No.(14):** *Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic value.*

**Table (4.24):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(14):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	20	28.6
agree	29	41.4
Uncertain	10	14.3
disagree	10	14.3
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

From the above table No.(4.24) and figure No (4.18) It is clear that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with "*Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic*

*value*". There are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed with that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) were not sure that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) disagreed, and (1) person with 1.4% is strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.18): The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(14)**

Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic value. Shakespeare, in saying, *Shall I compare thee to a summer’s day?* (Sonnet 18), conveyed his message more beautifully than if he had literally talked about the subject’s personal qualities, such as kindness, charm, and beauty. But did he convey the “same” message he would have conveyed in such a literal description? Intuitively, good readers and literary scholars both feel that he did not. Similarly, irony in a literary text does not just add esthetic value in some generalized way; for example, it may heighten emotional involvement, and that may be exactly the artistic effect intended. A question in both cases might be exactly *how* – how is the metaphoric text’s meaning different from



a literal “translation”, and how does irony work differently from a non-ironic recounting of similar circumstances? These already sound like issues of interest to linguists, who care about regular relationships between different choices of form and different meanings. What are the mechanisms by which figurative uses of form create meaning for readers?

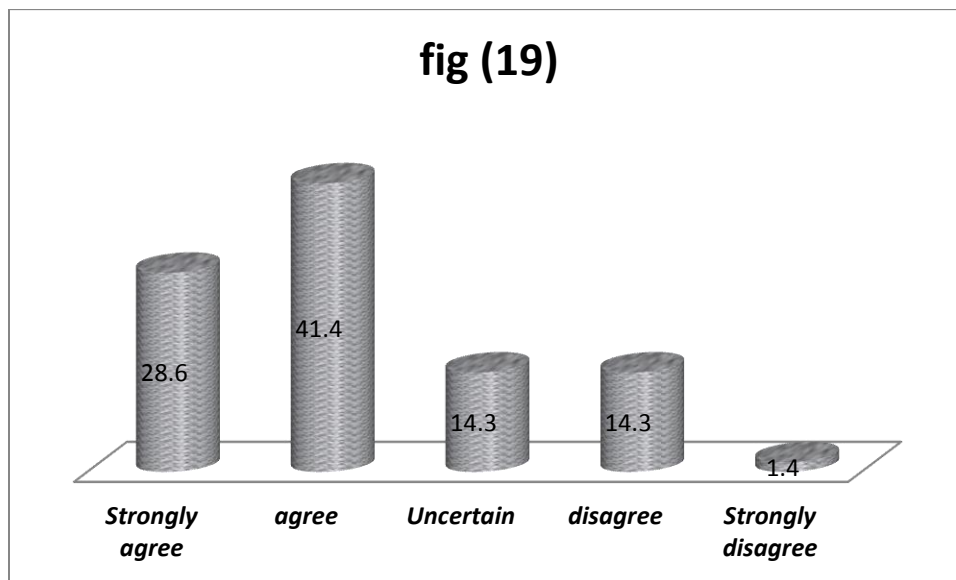
Figurative uses of form create meaning for readers?, we hope to make it clear to readers that figurative structures are far from being just decorative. They are important and pervasive in language and, furthermore, this is because the relevant cognitive structures are important and pervasive in thought – and as a result, figurative meaning is part of the basic fabric of linguistic structure. And this is true *not* just for special literary language, but for everyday language – and it holds for all human languages. The same basic mechanisms are involved in Shakespeare’s sonnet as in a phrase like *autumn years*, or one like *taxes rose* (note that nothing literally went upwards).

**Statement No.(15):** *Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions.*

**Table (4.25):** The frequency distribution for the respondent’s answers of Question No.(15):

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	20	28.6
Agree	29	41.4
Uncertain	10	14.3
Disagree	10	14.3
Strongly disagree	1	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>

From the above table No.(4.25) and figure No (4.19) It is clear that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (28.6%) strongly agreed with "*Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions*". There are (29) persons with percentage (41.4%) agreed with that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) were not sure that, and (10) persons with percentage (14.3%) disagreed. and (1) person with 1.4% is strongly disagree.



**Figure (4.19): The frequency distribution for the respondent's answers of Question No.(15)**

Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions. It's a technique used for persuading and influencing others; therefore, rhetoric and persuasion are correlative since any definitions of rhetoric inevitably include the idea of persuasion. The main difference between them is that rhetoric refers to the act of communication from the audience's perspective, whereas persuasion refers to both the intentions of speaker and successful results (Charterls

Black, 2005: 8-9). Therefore, audiences will only be persuaded with the speaker's successful rhetoric.

Rhetoric emerged as a method for argumentation in ancient Greece in the 5<sup>th</sup> century B.C., in which a huge progress from oral to literate culture was experienced by Greece. Undoubtedly, this progress contributed to the emergence of rhetoric (Ilie, 2006). During that era, three distinguished methods of classic rhetoric emerged, specifically: (a) the Sophistical; (b) the Aristotelian; and (c) the Platonic. The Sophists were teachers that got the chance to educate people how to effectively participate in a new democratic system. Their instruction included knowledge about argument, reason and critical thinking. The Sophists are thought to be the pioneers in utilizing rhetoric in their discourse, they used it as a strategy to change a weaker argument into the stronger one through utilizing creativity and experimenting with the language. This method was frequently elucidated as a deceptive act of reasoning instead of ethical argumentation (Crick, 2014, p.4). Obviously, Aristotle, a Greek philosopher, was the first one to depict this notion in his book *Rhetoric*. He considered rhetoric to be an art instead of a study (Ilie, 2006)

**Chi-Square Test Results for Respondents' Answers of the Questions of the Hypothesis:**

No.	Statement	Mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1.	Analyzing Dr. Luther King's I have a dream is perfectly achievable through content analysis.	2.6	0.8	27	0.000

2	Content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research.	2.4	0.5	25.7	0.000
3	According to Webster Dictionary The term content analysis is about 60 years old.	2.3	0.7	23	0.000
4.	Content analysis is distinguished as an empirically grounded method.	2.9	0.6	26	0.000
5	In recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions for most of which is the message.	2.5	0.5	32	0.000
6	History of content analysis dates back to theological studies.	2.7	2	25	0.000
7	Many Americans belied that mass media is responsible for the economic crisis of 1929 a thing which led through diverse debates to the development of content analysis.	2.5	0.6	28	0.00

8	One of the most important concepts that emerged in psychology during this time in relation with content analysis was the concept of "attitude".	2.6	0.8	27.7	0.00
9	Berelson described content analysis as the use of mass communications as data for testing scientific hypotheses and for evaluating journalistic practices but faced the challenge of propaganda.	2.4	0.9	25.7	0.001
10	After the World War II the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines.	2.4	0.5	35	0.008
11	In the context of thematic appreciation test TAT stories, content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique.	2.5	0.8	33	0.00
12	Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful.	2.6	0.8	27.7	0.00

13	As a technique, content analysis involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher.	2.7	0.4	25.6	0.00
14	Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic value.	3.0	0.7	27.5	0.00
15	Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions.	2.7	0.6	24	0.00

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(1) question was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“Analyzing Dr. Luther King’s I have a dream is perfectly achievable through content analysis.”***

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(2) question was (25.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who

agreed with the statement ***“content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research”***.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(3) question was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“According to Webster Dictionary the term content analysis is about 60 years old”***.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(4) question was (26) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“Content analysis is distinguished as an empirically grounded method”***.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(5) question was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“History of content analysis dates back to theological studies”***.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(6) question was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“in recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions for most of which is the message”***.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(7) question was (28) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“History of content analysis dates back to theological studies”***.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(8) question was (27.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ***“Many American believed that mass media is responsible for the economic crisis of 1929 a thing which led through diverse debates to the development of content analysis”***.



The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(9) question was (25.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “***Berelson described content analysis as the use of mass communications as data for testing scientific hypotheses and for evaluating journalistic practices but faced the challenge of propaganda***”.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(10) question was (35) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “***After the World War II the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines***”.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(11) question was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “***In the context of thematic appreciation test TAT stories, content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique***”.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(12) question was (27.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "***Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful***".

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(13) question was (25.6) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "***Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic value***".

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(14) question was (27.5) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "***involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher***".

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No.(15) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement “*Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions*”<sup>4.5</sup>

#### **Verification of the study hypotheses:**

The findings of the study are confirmed with the research hypotheses that assumed content analysis to be an effective tool of investigation and that the words of Martin Luther were of great impact on internal and external views towards the issue of Black Americans.

#### **Summary of the Chapter:**

This chapter as apparent from its title: Data analysis and discussion, has analyzed the collected data through the test and the questionnaire to confirm the hypotheses of the study and find answers for the questions posed in chapter one.

**Chapter Five**  
**Summary of the Study, Conclusion and**  
**Recommendations**

# **Chapter Five**

## **Summary of the Study, Conclusion and Recommendations**

### **5.0 Overview:**

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

### **5.1 Summary of the Study and Conclusion**

This study seeks to provide an overall image of the speech of Martin Luther King with very special reference to his magnum opus "I have a dream". This process is only ideally achievable through the method of content analysis. Content analysis is potentially one of the most important research techniques in the social sciences. The content analyst views data as representations not of physical events but of texts, images, and expressions that are created to be seen, read, interpreted, and acted on for their meanings, and must therefore be analyzed with such uses in mind. Analyzing texts in the contexts of their uses distinguishes content analysis from other methods of inquiry.

The term content analysis is about 60 years old. Webster's Dictionary of the English Language included the term in its 1961 edition, defining it as "analysis of the manifest and latent content of a body of communicated material (as a book or film) through classification, tabulation, and evaluation of its key symbols and themes in order to ascertain its meaning and probable effect". The intellectual roots of content analysis, however, can be traced far back in human history, to the beginning of the conscious use of symbols and voice, especially writing. This conscious use, which replaced the magical use of language, has been shaped by the ancient disciplines of philosophy,

rhetoric, and cryptography. It has also spawned religious inquisitions and political censorship on the part of ruling establishments. Today, symbolic phenomena are institutionalized in art, literature, education, and the mass media, including the Internet. Theoretical and analytical concerns are found in such academic disciplines as anthropology, linguistics, social psychology, sociology of knowledge, and the comparatively younger field of communication studies. Many practical pursuits have grown from these fields: psychotherapy, advertising, politics, the arts, and so on. Virtually all disciplines within the whole spectrum of the humanities and the social sciences, including those that seek to improve the political and social conditions of life, are concerned with the functions and effects of symbols, meanings, and messages. In recent years, the emergence of the information society has moved the minutiae of communication-texts, contexts, images, interfaces, and, above all, information into the very center of researchers' attempts at self-understanding.

Contemporary content analysis transcends traditional notions of symbols, contents, and intents. This may be seen in the evolution of the concept of communication, in how the development of media technologies has shaped our attention to communication, and in the role of culture in assigning significance to what is being analyzed. I would argue that in recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions, as described below, and probably is in the midst of a fifth:

The idea of *messages*: the early awareness not only that verbal discourse is movable when written, but that writing has predictable effects. This awareness emerged in ancient Greece when messengers were used as the carriers of significance, history became documented, laws of the land were laid down in writing, and written instructions built organizational structures,

directed events, and influenced ( and possibly deceived) their receivers or the public. The idea of *channels*: the awareness of the constraints that every medium imposes on human communication. This awareness came with the increased reliance on different media of communication and served to explain their limitations: The alphabet limits what one can say in writing; the telephone confines communication to sound; and a television station can air no more than what is transmittable without interference from other stations, appealing to large audiences, and deemed profitable by its sponsors. The idea of *communication*: the awareness of the relational space between senders and receivers, of the processes through which interpersonal relations are negotiated, social structures are constituted, and members of large populations come to know about each other. This awareness developed as an offshoot of the growth in mass media. By producing and disseminating identical messages-news and entertainment-to everyone, the mass media promised to be an agent of sharing, of building community relationships, of democratization, ideally, worldwide. The idea of *systems*: the awareness of global, dynamic, and technologically supported interdependencies. This idea emerged with the growth of communication networks-telephone nets, wire services, mass-media systems, and most recently the Internet-transforming commerce, politics, and interpersonal relationships, creating networks whose properties have so far defied attempts to theorize them adequately. Unlike the one-way mass media, systems are marked by the interactivity and simultaneity of parallel communication on a massive scale and with the potential of nearly universal participation. Finally The idea of computation: the awareness of the algorithmic nature of certain routine cognitive and social processes and their implementation in increasingly powerful computers. The processing of digital data in place of cognitive and social

practices, along with the ability to reproduce these data in visual and textual forms for reading, rearticulating, and disseminating by and to ideally everyone, is encouraging an entirely new literacy that undercuts traditional organizational structures, including national boundaries. The fluidity and enormous complexity that computation has introduced into almost all spheres of life amplify the possibilities for scientific exploration as well as present unprecedented challenges for collective understanding.

## **5.2 Dr. Luther King Jr.**

The “I have a dream” speech by Martin Luther King is recognized as one of the best speeches ever given. Here Stevie Edwards looks at what makes it so memorable. More than 40 years ago, in August 1963, Martin Luther King electrified America with his momentous ‘I Have a Dream’ speech, dramatically delivered from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial. His soaring rhetoric demanding racial justice and an integrated society became a mantra for the black community and is as familiar to subsequent generations of Americans as the US Declaration of Independence. His words proved to be a touchstone for understanding the social and political upheaval of the time and gave the nation a vocabulary to express what was happening.

The key message in the speech is that all people are created equal and, although not the case in America at the time, King felt it must be the case for the future. He argued passionately and powerfully.

## **5.3 Luther’s Speech Techniques**

Certainly, King’s speech was well researched. In preparation he studied the Bible, The Gettysburg Address and the US Declaration of Independence and he alludes to all three in his address. Stylistically the speech has been described as a political treatise, a work of poetry, and a



masterfully delivered and improvised sermon, bursting with biblical language and imagery. As well as rhythm and frequent repetition, alliteration is a hallmark device, used to bang home key points.

The first half of his speech portrays not an idealized American dream but a picture of a seething American nightmare of racial injustice. It calls for action in a series of themed paragraphs. “Now is the time” is the first: We have also come to this hallowed spot to remind America of the fierce urgency of now. This is no time to engage in the luxury of cooling off or to take the tranquilizing drug of gradualism. Now is the time to make real the promises of democracy. Now is the time to rise from the dark and desolate valley of segregation to the sunlit path of racial justice. Now is the time to open the doors of opportunity to all of God’s children. Now is the time to lift our nation from the quick sands of racial injustice to the solid rock of brotherhood.

The second half of the speech paints the dream of a better, fairer future of racial harmony and integration. The most famous paragraph carries the theme “I have a dream” and the phrase is repeated constantly to hammer home King’s inspirational concepts:

The Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination...the Negro lives on a lonely islands of poverty in the midst of a vast ocean of material prosperity...the Negro is still languishing in the corners of America society and finds himself an exile in his own land.

## **5.4 Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

- 1- Content analysis is such an area which is hardly introduced in our syllabuses particularly at the secondary level. There should be a large scale study to handle such issues as the inclusion of this significant method at undergraduate levels.
- 2- To increase classroom interaction the cultural gap must be reduced by means of including texts known to have that effect as literature. This is of course important as students to be able to interact with texts such as *I have a Dream* should have good background knowledge of American history and culture.
- 3- Carefully selected material as relating to content analysis can have the effect of developing students' critical thinking powers and prepare them as future thinkers in the respective fields they may assume.
- 4- Syllabuses of English language should seek to consider the question of content analysis as a significant method of analysis
- 5- Tutors should be trained to handle their classes in a way that promotes their students' communicative competence and critical thinking through the use of content analysis

## **5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies**

This study puts forward the following suggestions:

- 1- Future study to be carried out on relatively larger scales as to include both Discourse Analysis and Content Analysis and underline the differences between the two approaches.

2- Much needed research on teacher/students and students/students interaction which can be advantageous to such kind of studies when incorporated in relation to content analysis and how it helps improve students' critical powers.

3- The present study can be further extended by means of a quasi-research to have better and different results with implications for the tutors at undergraduate level.

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# **Appendices**



**Appendix (1)**  
**“I Have a Dream” Speech by the Rev. Martin**  
**Luther King Jr. at the “March on Washington,” 1963.**

I am happy to join with you today in what will go down in history as the greatest demonstration for freedom in the history of our nation. Five score years ago a great American in whose symbolic shadow we stand today signed the Emancipation Proclamation. This momentous decree is a great beacon light of hope to millions of Negro slaves who had been seared in the flames of withering injustice. It came as a joyous daybreak to end the long night of their captivity. But 100 years later the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later the life of the Negro is still badly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination. One hundred years later the Negro lives on a lonely island of poverty in the midst of a vast ocean of material prosperity. One hundred years later the Negro is still languished in the corners of American society and finds himself in exile in his own land. So we've come here today to dramatize a shameful condition. In a sense we've come to our nation's capital to cash a check. When the architects of our Republic wrote the magnificent words of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a promissory note to which every American was to fall heir. This note was a promise that all men—yes, black men as well as white men—would be guaranteed the unalienable rights of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. . . .We must forever conduct our struggle on the high plane of dignity and discipline. We must not allow our creative protests to degenerate into physical violence. . . . The marvelous new militancy which has engulfed the Negro community

must not lead us to distrust all white people, for many of our white brothers, as evidenced by their presence here today, have come to realize that their destiny is tied up with our destiny. . . . We cannot walk alone. And as we walk we must make the pledge that we shall always march ahead. We cannot turn back. There are those who are asking the devotees of civil rights, "When will you be satisfied?" We can never be satisfied as long as the Negro is the victim of the unspeakable horrors of police brutality. We can never be satisfied as long as our bodies, heavy with the fatigue of travel, cannot gain lodging in the motels of the highways and the hotels of the cities. We cannot be satisfied as long as the Negro's basic mobility is from a smaller ghetto to a larger one. We can never be satisfied as long as our children are stripped of their adulthood and robbed of their dignity by signs stating "For Whites Only." We cannot be satisfied as long as the Negro in Mississippi cannot vote and the Negro in New York believes he has nothing for which to vote. No, no, we are not satisfied, and we will not be satisfied until justice rolls down like waters and righteousness like a mighty stream. . . . I say to you today, my friends, though, even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, I still.

It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream. I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up, live out the true meaning of its creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal". I have a dream that one day on the red hills of Georgia sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave-owners will be able to sit down together at the table of brotherhood. I have a dream that one day even the state of Mississippi, a state sweltering with the heat of injustice, sweltering with the heat of oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice. I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the

content of their character. I have a dream . . . I have a dream that one day in Alabama, with its vicious racists, with its governor having his lips dripping with the words of interposition and nullification, one day right there in Alabama little black boys and black girls will be able to join hands with little white boys and white girls as sisters and brothers. I have a dream today . . . This will be the day when all of God's children will be able to sing with new meaning. "My country, 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty, of thee I sing. Land where my fathers died, land of the pilgrim's pride, from every mountain side, let freedom ring". And if America is to be a great nation, this must become true. So let freedom ring from the prodigious hilltops of New Hampshire. Let freedom ring from the mighty mountains of New York. Let freedom ring from the heightening Alleghenies of Pennsylvania. Let freedom ring from the snowcapped Rockies of Colorado. Let freedom ring from the curvaceous slopes of California. But not only that. Let freedom ring from Stone Mountain of Georgia. Let freedom ring from Lookout Mountain of Tennessee. Let freedom ring from every hill and molehill of Mississippi, from every mountain side. Let freedom ring . . . When we allow freedom to ring—when we let it ring from every city and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God's children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual, "Free at last, Free at last, Great God a-mighty, We are free at last." Reprinted by arrangement with The Heirs to the Estate of Martin Luther King Jr., c/o Writers House as the proprietor New York, NY. Copyright: © 1963 Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. © renewed 1991 Coretta Scott King.

## Appendix (2)

### Questionnaire Used in the Study for Collecting Data

**Tick the preferred choice under each statement:**

- **Statement No. (1):** *Analyzing Dr.Martin Luther King's I have a dream is perfectly achievable through content analysis:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(2):** *content analysis was a research method that had entered the psychological and social sciences, but was used mainly in journalism and communication research:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.( 3):** *According to Webster Dictionary The term content analysis is about 60 years old:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No. (4):** *Content analysis is distinguished as an empirically grounded method:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No. (5):** *in recent years our awareness of communication has undergone four conceptual revolutions for most of which is the message:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(6):** *History of content analysis dates back to theological studies:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(7):** *Many American belied that mass media is responsible for the economic crisis of 1929 a thing which led through diverse debates to the development of content analysis:*

Strongly agree  Agree  Uncertain  Disagree  Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(8):** *One of the most important concepts that emerged in psychology during this time in relation with content analysis was the concept of " attitude.":*

Strongly agree  Agree  Uncertain  Disagree  Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(9):** *Berelson described content analysis as the use of mass communications as data for testing scientific hypotheses and for evaluating journalistic practices but faced the challenge of propaganda:*

Strongly agree  Agree  Uncertain  Disagree  Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(10):** *After the World War II the use of content analysis spread to numerous disciplines:*

Strongly agree  Agree  Uncertain  Disagree  Strongly disagree

- **Statement No. (11):** *In the context of thematic appreciation test TAT stories, content analysis acquired the status of a supplementary technique:*

Strongly agree  Agree  Uncertain  Disagree  Strongly disagree

- **Statement No. (12):** *Historians are naturally inclined to look for systematic ways to analyze historical documents, and they soon embraced content analysis as a suitable technique, especially where data are numerous and statistical accounts seem helpful:*

Strongly agree  Agree  Uncertain  Disagree  Strongly disagree

- **Statement No. (13):** *As a technique, content analysis involves specialized procedures. It is learnable and divorceable from the personal authority of the researcher:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.(14):** *Figurative language was thought of as being one aspect of what gives a text – in particular, a poetic text – special esthetic value:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

- **Statement No.( 15):** *Rhetoric is the persuasive speech of someone to attract people to follow, support and agree with his opinions:*

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree