

Language, Ideology and Power: a Critical Approach to Political Discourse

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Abstract

This research which adapts a critical approach to analyze written discourse is intended to take the explanations and interpretations of the ideological relationships to the more applied spheres of foreign language education. It is of great significance for a user of a language to be aware of ideological relationships in the sociopolitical contexts in which a language is positioned and functions and the multiple meanings that are fostered in each. To be more specific, we try to find out which ideological categories are used in different languages to manifest the mental representations of ideologies in discourse of politics and whether there is a significant difference between the frequencies of these categories in English, Persian and English (L1=Persian) Interlanguage. In the present study, thirty categories in three different levels of discourse were analyzed in Persian, English and English Interlanguage. The implicational data suggest that different languages employ the same ideological categories in a special genre. Some cases of significant difference were observed in the application of some of categories. It shows that different languages have different tendencies for some categories. However, their users all try to find the most effective way to emphasize good things of ingroup and bad things of outgroup. While they make this prejudice naturalized, they try to be more dominant. The implications of this study draw our attention to the importance of acquiring critical awareness of power and ideology relationship in discourse.

Keywords: Critical discourse analysis; ideology; power; persuasion; politics.

1. Introduction

It is mainly in discourse that ideologies are transmitted and meanings and values are learned and taught. The most important social institution in bringing off these processes in contemporary studies is the mass media including newspapers. We live in an age of great change and instability in which the forms of power and domination are being radically reshaped and changing cultural practices are a major constituent of social change. It means changing practices of language use.

One of the crucial social practices influenced by ideologies is discourse, which in turn also influences how we acquire, learn or change ideologies. Discourse is to be seen as a form of social action, always determined by values and social norms, by conventions (as naturalized ideologies) and social practices, and always delimited and influenced by power structures and historical processes (Wodak, 1995). Much of our discourse, especially when we speak as members of groups, expresses ideologically biased opinions. We learn most of our ideological ideas by reading and listening to other group members, beginning with our parents and peers. We watch television, read the newspaper, or participate in everyday conversations with friends

and colleagues, and a multitude of other forms of talk and text to learn ideologies. Some discourse genres, such as newspapers and political propaganda have the explicit aim of teaching ideologies to group members and newcomers. Thus ideologies are not innate, but learnt, and precisely the content and form of such discourse may be more or less likely to form intended mental models of social events, which finally may be generalized and abstracted to social representations and ideologies (Van Dijk, 2000).

Without a doubt, raising awareness about power relations embedded in discourse is important. It seems that critical awareness of these relations can be useful in developing special language skills. Using insights into the relationship between language and power in teaching languages has been adequate. Hence studies of CDA's aims should be taken beyond the explanations and interpretations of the relationship between ideology and power to the more applied spheres of both applied linguistics and second language education. There is a need to discover how learners transfer a special ideology in their L₁ to their use of L₂.

A critical awareness of language is a prerequisite for effective communication. Fairclough (1995) believes there is an intimate relationship between the development of people's critical awareness of language and the development of their language capacities and practices. Accordingly, such reflexive work could involve learners and teachers of EFL in analysis of and possibly change in their own practices, as speakers and listeners, writers and readers.

Press is not a means to an end, i.e. delivering information. Newspapers represent the news often in a way that intends to guide the ideological stance of the reader. Comparing the ways an international new item, e.g. nuclear activities of Iran, is presented in English newspapers and in our home country, we can learn a lot about the attitudes, priorities and values that people have and how they apply language to convey those attitudes. An understanding of how daily socio-political developments affect the newspaper editorials is very much needed in classroom discourse.

The important reason why CDA can be utilized in educational practices is its methodology to move back and forth from analysis of text to analysis of social institutions, from micro to macro level (Luke, 2002).

The objective of a discourse analysis like this which adapts critical goals is to denaturalize the ideologies. *Denaturalization* involves showing how social structures determine properties of discourse and how discourse determines social structures (Fairclough, 1995). Such a study involves showing how ideological categories determine properties of discourse and how discourse in turn determines social categories. Knowing how ideologies usually operate in production and comprehension of discourse at first via attitudes and group knowledge for special social domains here politics, and at the level of individual discourses of group members, via their ideologically-biased mental models of social events and social situations helps participants construct a communicative situation.

We have stressed that, facing the real issues and problems of today's world, discourse analysis, whether critical or not, may not make much difference, unless we are able to contribute to stimulating a critical perspective among our students or colleagues. To do that, we should persuade them not merely by our views or arguments, but also with our expertise. Although many studies in critical discourse analysis have shown that our results so far are encouraging, our expertise is still very limited. Strikingly, no critical analysis which is

implemented with a contrastive study between two languages with pedagogical implications has been done on this pervasive form of written discourse.

In the present study we examined how such underlying, socially shared representations as well as personal models may influence the structures of discourse. What people say, the topics they select or avoid (fallacy), what information is left implicit (implication) or expressed explicitly, what meanings are foregrounded and backgrounded (presupposition), which details are dramatized or left vague or generalized, what comparisons and examples are provided and so on can influence the structure of discourse.

1.1. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis (henceforth CDA) is an interdisciplinary tool that exposes inequality and injustice. The use of written texts in our daily and professional lives perpetuates the mediation between *ideology* and *power*. CDA illuminates the problems generated by this relationship (Heberman, 1973).

Our words (written or oral) are used to convey a broad sense of meanings and the meaning we convey with those words is identified by our immediate social, political, and historical conditions. Our words are never neutral (Fiske, 1994). This is a powerful insight for home economists and family and consumer scientists. We should never again speak, or read/hear others' words, without being conscious of the underlying meaning of the words. Our words are *politicized*, even if we are not aware of it, because they carry the power that reflects the interests of those who speak. Opinion leaders, courts, government, editors, even family and consumer scientists, play a crucial role in shaping issues and in setting the boundaries of legitimate discourse (what is talked about and how) (Henry & Tator, 2002). The words of those in power are taken as self-evident truths and the words of those not in power are dismissed as irrelevant, inappropriate, or without substance.

The critical use of discourse analysis in applied linguistics is leading to the development of a different approach to understanding media messages. It offers the opportunity to adopt a social perspective in the cross-cultural study of media texts. Kress (1990) points out that CDA has an "overtly political agenda" which sets it off from other kinds of discourse analysis. He mentions that "CDA aims to provide accounts of the production internal structure and overall organization of texts" while the other forms of discourse analysis aim to provide a better understanding of socio-cultural aspects of texts. Accordingly a fully *critical* account of discourse would require a theorization and description of both the social processes and structures which give rise to the production of a text, and of the social structures and processes within which individuals or groups as socio-historical subjects create meanings in their interaction with texts.

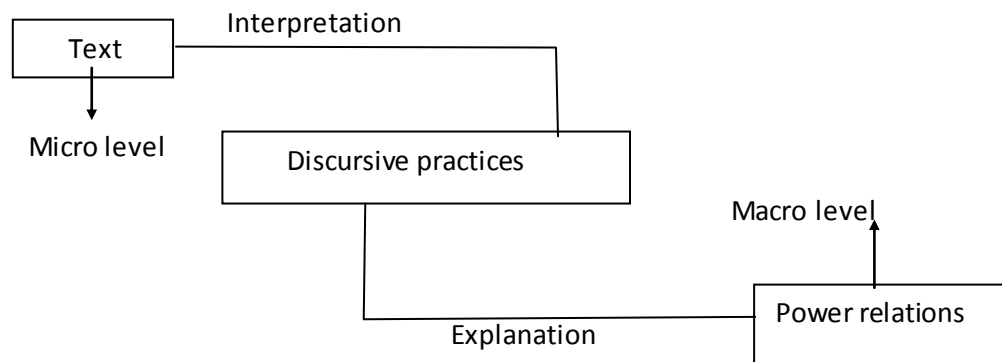
Thompson (2002) states that critical approach to discourse analysis seeks to link the text (micro level) with the underlying power structures in society (macro level) through discursive practices upon which the text is drawn. That is a text, a description of something happening in a larger social context, replete with a complex set of power relations, is interpreted and acted upon by readers or listeners depending on their rules, norms, and mental models of socially acceptable behavior and background knowledge (McGregor, 2003).

A text should be critically analyzed to reveal power relations and dominance. Following a critical approach, oppression, repression, and marginalization go challenged. CDA focuses

on how social relations, identity, knowledge, and power are constructed through written and spoken texts in communities, schools, the media, and the political arena (Luke, 1997).

Accordingly CDA seeks to link texts at a micro level (the *textual level*) with macro-level power structures (*sociocultural practice*) which, in drawing upon discourse, such texts reproduce. In CDA, *discursive practice* is thus the mediator between the macro- and micro levels, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. *Dimensions of Critical Discourse Analysis.*



1.1.1. Concept of ideology

Ideology is a system of ideas which constitutes and pilots the large power blocks of our society. Language is a medium of ideological forces. It serves to legitimize relations of organized power. Insofar as the legitimating of power relations is not articulated, language is also ideological (Heberman, 1973). A language ideology can be a ‘correct’ conceptualization of language or it can dissent from the facts, and be a fallacious interpretation of language (Seargeant, 2009). Ideologies form the *basis* of the belief systems or social representations of specific groups (Van Dijk, 2001).

In more technical jargon (in political science), we would call them belief systems or social representations of some kind (Augoustinos, 1998; Farr & Moscovici, 1984; Fraser & Gaskell, 1990). This means that they are not personal beliefs, but beliefs shared by groups, as is also the case for grammars, socioculturally shared knowledge, group attitudes or norms and values. Indeed, we assume that ideologies form the *basis* of the belief systems or social representations of specific groups (Van Dijk, 2001). Ideologies as special forms of social cognition shared by social groups form the basis of the social representations and practices of group members, including their discourse, which at the same time serves as the means of ideological production, reproduction and challenge (Van Dijk, 1998b).

1.1.2. Concept of power

One crucial presupposition of adequate CDA is the understanding the nature of social power and dominance. Power is conceptualized both in terms of asymmetries between participants in discourse events and in terms of unequal capacity to control how texts are produced, distributed and consumed in particular socio-cultural contexts. Wodak (1989) writes

that CDA chooses the perspective of those who suffer most and critically analyses those in power, those who are responsible, and those who have the means and the opportunity to solve such problems. According to Atawneh (2009), power is maintained through language.

Critical discourse analysts are interested in breaches of laws, rules and principles of democracy, equality and justice by those who wield power, i.e. power abuse, for which the term "dominance" is used. Van Dijk (1993) defines *dominance* as the exercise of social power by elites, institutions or groups that results in social inequality, including political, cultural, class, ethnic, racial and gender inequality. This reproduction process may involve such different modes of discourse -power relations as the more or less direct or overt support, enactment, representation, legitimation, denial, mitigation or concealment of dominance, among others. More specifically, critical discourse analysts want to know what structures, strategies or other properties of text, talk, verbal interaction or communicative events play a role in these modes of reproduction. Social power is based on privileged *access* to socially valued resources, such as wealth, income, position, status, force, group membership, education or knowledge. Even access to various genres, forms or contexts of discourse and communication is also an important power resource (Van Dijk, 1993).

1.2. Critical analysis of political discourse

Political discourse can be described as “a complex form of human activity” which is based on the recognition that politics cannot be conducted without language. Politics is the use of language in the constitution of social groups. Politics refers to people and the lives they lead in organized communities rather than more narrowly to the battle ground of conventional party politics. Politics like all other social activities has its own code, a language variety particular to a specific group. Discourse as one of these rituals needs detailed analysis. Although the study of the relationship between language and power began a long time ago, the detailed and subtle approach from a critical point of view is certainly new. Looking at the way the language reflects the ideological position of those who have created it and how the ideological position of the readers will affect their response is very significant (Beard, 2000).

The purpose of a critical analysis of political jargon is to represent how a political group and its protagonists act upon their surroundings by means of the power and dynamics of their language (Wodak & Ludwig, 1999). Political commitment as one of the aims of CDA includes uncovering inequality and injustice, denaturalizing ideologies, demystifying dominance & power structures, and making the latter conscious to those who suffer under oppression. Political jargon can be analyzed on the lexical, syntactic and textual level (Wodak, 1986).

2. The present study

The following research questions are investigated in this study:

1. Are the schematic structures of ideologies manifesting themselves differently in discourse of specific genres, here politics, in different languages to extend power?
2. Do the ideological categories influence the various levels of discourse differently in L₁ and L₂?
3. Do the ideological categories influence the various levels of discourse differently in L₁ and IL?
4. Do the ideological categories influence the various levels of discourse differently in L₂ and IL?

The study aims to analyze the editorials all with the same topic: the nuclear plans of Iran. The debate is interesting because it nicely shows the various political and ideological

positions. The editorials were chosen from some wide – circulation newspapers in English, Persian and Interlanguage(IL). There is a selection of editorials of Keyhan Newspaper, written by native speakers of Persian. The IL, i.e. non – native English, articles were the editorials of Tehran Times and Iran News. The first language of the editors of these two newspapers is Persian but English is their foreign language. The native English editorials were chosen from Washington Post, New York Times and Charleston News. All the newspapers were searched and printed via the internet.

2.1. Rating procedure

There are many ideologically based ways to represent meaning. It makes us able to analyze the expression on many levels. In this study the ideological analysis was applied to three levels: argument, meaning and rhetoric. Analysis of discourse in these levels was too general and not practical so some ideological categories determined in each level (table 1).

Table 1. *The ideological categories of each level of discourse*

Meaning	Rhetoric	Argument
<i>Demonization</i>	<i>Dramatization</i>	<i>Authority</i>
<i>Disclaimer</i>	<i>Euphemism</i>	<i>Comparison</i>
<i>Display of power</i>	<i>Idioms</i>	<i>Counterfactual</i>
<i>Implication</i>	<i>Irony</i>	<i>Evidentiality</i>
<i>Polarization</i>	<i>Litotes</i>	<i>Example</i>
<i>Positive Self – Presentation</i>	<i>Metaphor</i>	<i>Fallacy</i>
<i>Presupposition</i>	<i>Repetition</i>	<i>Generalization</i>
<i>Situation Description</i>	<i>Rhetorical Question</i>	<i>Illegality</i>
<i>Threat</i>	<i>Nationalistic Rhetoric</i>	<i>Legality</i>
<i>Vagueness</i>		<i>Norm Making</i>
<i>Victimization</i>		

2.2. Data analysis

Systematic contrastive studies are incomplete and inadequate unless supported by quantitative data at all levels of linguistic analysis. The first statistical step was determining the number of occurrences of each category in each article, i.e. the frequency of each category. However, raw frequencies do not give us a precise picture of the data, especially in a study like this in which the data were obtained from different languages and the length and number of articles are different in these languages. Thus, we obtained the density of each ideological category by adding up the frequency of each category in each article, divided the total frequency of all categories in that article. These numbers were used to carry out a one–way ANOVA from measures of inferential statistics to compare the means of three languages on the independent variable ‘ideology’. Scheffe test and Dunnett test among Post Hoc multiple comparisons were utilized to assess the statistical significance of differences (if any).

2.2.1. Data analysis of categories in the argumentative level

Table 2 demonstrates the results of ANOVA test for the ideological categories of argumentative level of discourse.

Table2 ANOVA test for the categories of the argumentative level.

Dependant Variable						
Category	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Authority	Between Groups	.006	2	.003	1.690	.193
	Within Groups	.114	62	.002		
	Total	.120	64			
Comparison	Between Groups	.002	2	.001	2.416	.098
	Within Groups	.026	62	4.14E-04		
	Total	.028	64			
Counterfactual	Between Groups	.016	2	.008	7.617	.001
	Within Groups	.064	62	1.05E-03		
	Total	.080	64			
Evidentiality	Between Groups	.004	2	.002	2.421	.097
	Within Group	.051	62	8.2E-04		
	Total	.055	64			
Example	Between Groups	.00037	2	1.82E-04	.245	.784
	Within Groups	.046	62	7.42E-04		
	Total	.047	64			
Fallacy	Between Groups	.001	2	5.E-04	.766	.469
	Within Groups	.034	62	6.5E-04		
	Total	.035	64			
Generalization	Between Groups	.0008	2	4.E-04	1.054	.355
	Within Groups	.022	62	3.5E-04		
	Total	.023	64			
Illegality	Between Groups	.041	2	.0205	4.852	.011
	Within Groups	.259	62	4.225E-03		
	Total	.300	64			
Legality	Between Groups	.007	2	3.55E-03	11.842	.000
	Within Groups	.019	62	3.E-04		
	Total	.026	64			
Norm Making	Between Groups	.00147	2	7.35E-04	1.013	.369
	Within Groups	.045	62	7.25E-04		
	Total	.046	64			

Based on critical F-value of 3.15 (2/26 degrees of freedom, $p < .05$), table 2 indicates differences in cases of counterfactual, illegality and legality. The other categories were excluded from the analysis due to the non-significance of their F-ratio or the Levene's test.

The analysis was continued where the results indicate a significant difference in the variances or means. Scheffe test was used for counterfactual, illegality and legality, where an overall significant F was found to determine which individual pairs of languages are different because of factors other than the chance.

It was found that English (M: .055) differed Interlanguage (M: .021) with respect to the use of counterfactuals, i.e. counterfactuals were used more in English texts. No other significant differences were found. The results of Scheffe test for illegality displayed show that illegality was used more in English which is significantly different from Interlanguage and P. The obtained values reveal that legality was more frequently used in Interlanguage whose mean is significantly different from English. Means of legality in Persian and Interlanguage and also in Persian and English are homogeneous. The results of Scheffe or Dunnett tests did not show any significant differences for those categories which just the probability of their Levene's test was significant.

2.2.2. Data analysis of categories in the level of discourse meaning

In the level of discourse meaning, 11 analytical categories were introduced. Table 3 demonstrates the results of ANOVA test. The observed F comparing with critical F-value of 3.15 (2/62 degree of freedom) indicates an overall significant difference somehow between three languages with regard to the occurrences of display of power, positive self-presentation, situation description and threat, i.e. the probability of their F-ratio is less than .05 critical value.

Table 3 ANOVA test for the categories in the level of discourse meaning.

Dependant variable						
Category	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Demonization	Between Groups	.007	2	.0035	1.623	.206
	Within Groups	.137	62	.0022		
	Total	.145	64			
Disclaimer	Between Groups	.001	2	.0005	.494	.612
	Within Groups	.084	62	.001		
	Total	.085	64			
Display of Power	Between Groups	.008	2	.004	5.355	.007
	Within Groups	.047	62	7.5 E04		
	Total	.055	64			
Implication	Between Groups	.0012	2	.0006	.275	.760
	Within Group	.133	62	.0022		
	Total	.134	64			
Polarization	Between Groups	1.56E-05	2	708 E -06	.030	.970
	Within Groups	.016	62	2.6E-04		

	Total	.016	64			
Positive Self-presentation	Between Groups	.054	2	.027	15.542	.000
	Within Groups	.108	62	1.74E-03		
	Total	.163	64			
Presupposition	Between Groups	.0048	2	.0024	2.210	.118
	Within Groups	.068	62	.00109		
	Total	.0728	640			
Situation Description	Between Groups	.005	2	2.6.E-03	3.410	.039
	Within Groups	.046	62	7.E-04		
	Total	.051	64			
Threat	Between Groups	.061	2	.008	24.187	.000
	Within Groups	.021	62	3.3E-04		
	Total	.037	64			
Vagueness	Between Groups	.0024	2	.0012	1.701	.191
	Within Groups	.043	62	.0007		
	Total	.0454	64			
Victimization	Between Groups	5.8E-03	2	2.94E-03	.666	.517
	Within Groups	.274	62	4.42E-03		
	Total	.280	64			

The analysis was continued excluding the categories with non-significant difference. For display of power there is a significant difference between Persian and English and also between Persian and Interlanguage. This is while the difference between English and Interlanguage is not significant. There is a significant difference between Interlanguage and English and also between Interlanguage and Persian with respect to the occurrence of positive self-presentation. It can be concluded that positive self-presentation was more used in Interlanguage than in Persian and English. For threat not only do the variances differ, but the F-ratio also indicates a significant difference. Post hoc tests show that threat was more frequently used in English which is significantly different from the other two languages. The Scheffe test also found a significant difference between Interlanguage (M: .07) and Persian (M: .04), and also between English (M: .01) and Persian for demonization. Scheffe test and Dunnett test show a significant difference between English and Persian for the category of situation description. As figures indicate, this category was used more in Persian texts. No more significant differences were found.

2.2.3. Data analysis of categories in the rhetorical level

Critical analysis of ideological discourse in the rhetorical level involves identification of another set of categories. Table 4 displays the results of ANOVA test for all nine categories. The F-ratio of rhetorical question (F: 43.29) and idiom (F: 3.814) is larger than critical F-value of 3.15 (2/62 degree of freedom) for and .05 level of probability. Therefore observed F for rhetorical question and idiom indicates an overall significant difference.

Table 4 ANOVA test for the categories of the rhetorical level.

Dependant variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Category						
Dramatization	Between Groups	.003	2	.0013	1.346	.268
	Within Groups	.061	62	.0098		
	Total	.064	64			
Euphemism	Between Groups	2.8E-04	2	1.4E-04	.732	.485
	Within Groups	.012	62	1.9E-04		
	Total	.01228	64			
Idiom	Between Groups	.023	2	.012	3.814	.027
	Within Groups	.19	62	3015E-03		
	Total	.213	64			
Irony	Between Groups	.0001	2	4.72E-05	.733	.485
	Within Group	.004	62	6.45E-05		
	Total	.0041	64			
Litotes	Between Groups	1.8E-04	2	9.E-05	1.510	.229
	Within Groups	.004	62	6.E-05		
	Total	.00418	64			
Metaphor	Between Groups	.005	2	.0024	1.620	.206
	Within Groups	.093	62	.0015		
	Total	.098	64			
Repetition	Between Groups	.003	2	.0014	1.721	.187
	Within Groups	.051	62	8.E-04		
	Total	.054	64			
Rhetorical Question	Between Groups	.054	2	.026	43.292	.000
	Within Groups	.038	62	.011		
	Total	.092	64			
Nationalistic Rhetoric	Between Groups	.0008	2	.0004	1.714	.189
	Within Groups	.015	62	2.3E-04		
	Total	.015	64			

The outcomes of Scheffe test for idiom shows a significant difference between Interlanguage and English, and also between English and Persian. Idiom was used more in Interlanguage and Persian than English. Post hoc tests did not show more differences. There is a significant difference between Persian and English, and also between Persian and Interlanguage with regard to the use of rhetorical question. However, the difference between Interlanguage and English is not significant. Dunnett test and Scheffe test did not show any significant differences for nationalistic rhetoric.

3. Discussion

In this study we found 30 categories in three levels of discourse, among which the use of 10 categories was significantly different between languages. In this part, we classify them into 5 groups. That is, those categories which share the same differences belong to the same group.

Based on the obtained quantitative results and this classification, the following remarks can be deduced:

Group 1: The categories of legality and counterfactual belong to group 1. The difference of their use is significant only for IL and English. Because there is not a significant difference between English and Persian, IL was expected not to be significantly different from English or Persian, but it is. Legality and counterfactual categories were more frequently used respectively in IL and English. This can indicate that L2ers try to benefit from legality too much and this makes their intended ideology less natural. They also are not competent enough in use of counterfactuals, i.e. conditional sentences.

Group 2: There is just situation description category in this group. In spite of the significant difference between English and Persian for this category, IL is not significantly different from English and Persian. It may be concluded that the writer's L₁ could not affect their IL. Persian writers tend to present events with lots of explanations, evaluations and reasoning. This is not the case in English. However, the means show that L2ers should control the use of this category as it is approaching the mean in Persian.

Group 3: This group includes the categories of rhetorical question, demonization and display of power. The mean of their use is significantly different between Persian and English and also between Persian and IL. Despite the differences in the use of these categories in L₁ and L₂, their use by L2ers is similar to L₂. Hence, difference of L₁ plays a minor role.

Group 4: Positive self-presentation is the only member of group 4. Its use is significantly different between IL and English and also between IL and Persian. This result shows that IL is a linguistic system independent from the other 2 languages. L2ers use this category too much more than L₁ and L₂. Again this avoids them to naturalize their ideology. Extra use of a category in which a writer clearly emphasizes his or her good things is not effective.

Group 5: Those categories for which the tests showed significant differences between English and Persian and also between English and IL are located in group 5. Persian has a preference to use idioms more frequently, while there is a tendency for English to prefer threat and illegality. One may conclude that there is a transfer from writer's L₁ into L₂ that affects the IL. If L2ers want to be more natural in their communication, they should assume English preferences. If not, they seem to yield the linguistic hegemony of English and retreat from their legal stand. They also do not need to use figurative language that much, especially because most of the idioms L2ers use in texts are not repeatedly used in native English.

The data also indicates that while Persian has a tendency to use categories of the rhetorical level, IL and English have a preference to use analytical categories of the level of discourse meaning. The categories of argumentative level are the least categories used in Persian and IL. However, the categories of the rhetorical level are used less than the categories of other levels in English.

4. Conclusion

The whole discussion and the descriptive classification in the last section make us deduce the following conclusions:

1. There are a lot of ideological categories used in a special genre but the number of occurrence of each depends on the writer's attitudes and preferences.

2. Different languages may employ the same ideological categories in the same context. We found the same categories in English and Persian in the genre of politics. Thus, the first hypothesis would be confirmed.
3. Some cases of significant difference were observed in the application of some of categories. There were cases in which the significant differences were observed between L₁ and IL, or between L₁ and L₂, or between L₂ and IL. Therefore the other three hypotheses would be rejected. That is, different levels of discourse maybe involved in expressing or signaling ideologies through the processes of emphasizing and deemphasizing ideological meaning and in these levels the same ideological categories may be used more frequently in one language comparing with the other languages.
4. It is apparent that L₁ does affect the course of IL development, but this influence is not always predictable.
5. Rather than focusing on the first and the target languages, working in the IL framework we developed a data analytic procedure that yields information about the dynamic qualities of language change that made IL a unique system, both similar to and different from the first language.
6. The significant difference for the use of categories shows that different languages have different tendencies for some categories. However, their users all try to find the most effective way to emphasize good things of ingroup and bad things of outgroup .While they make this prejudice, they try to be more dominant.

The emergence of various critical perspectives in applied linguistics has been known as critical applied linguistics. One of these perspectives is CDA. Applied linguistics tends to operate with decontextualized contexts, i.e. with only a limited view of what constitutes the ideologies. The conceptualization of context is frequently limited to an under-theorized or over-localized view of social relations. Hence, Critical Applied Linguistics (CAL) finds way of understanding a relationship between concepts of ideology. Its other challenge is to suggest the effects of these relations on classroom utterances, translation, conversations, genres, SLA and media texts. Its primary concern whether as a form of critical text analysis like this study or as an approach to understanding the politics of translation is how the text is related to broader social cultural and political relations (Pennycook, 2004).

The pedagogical implication of this study is a mixture of everyday categories of applied linguistics- learning, text, context, reading, writing and translation- and ideological categories. Applied linguistics and CAL research have the potential to offer ways to improve current educational practices for all and certainly in reading and writing courses.

Many college reading and writing courses in ELT can utilize the results of a CDA method like this in order to frame different texts used in the classroom within boarder sociopolitical contexts, not solely within reading theories. In order to figure out text messages and their purposes more completely, the meaning of the texts used for educational purposes need to be situationalized within both current and past holders and disseminators of power. Thus such framing is essential.

Those students of English as a foreign language who are interested in journalism, those who need to acquire advance writing skills and those who intend to write textbooks for ELT need to know and use some important strategies and categories to naturalize the ideologies. They should also be careful about the choice of lexicon, since words are not neutral. Lack of

awareness of this knowledge may cause they convey a meaning they do not actually intend to. Such knowledge and critical awareness empowers L2ers to take control of their own learning and help them overcome the reverence for textual authority through a critical appraisal for the teaching materials. In fact, they would be involved in evaluating the appropriateness of their own textbooks.

The use of mass media, e.g. newspapers, is very usual in second language teaching courses because they are close to the authenticity than the ones written by professional textbook writers and their emphasis is more on information and opinion rather than the mechanics of language acquisition or linguistic forms. Hence, regarding their special application in ELT and the complexity of their ideological relationships, this knowledge seems to be very necessary. The students need to realize ideological preferences of culture and be aware and critical about the ideology masked by different strategies and categories.

One of the domains of textual analysis is critical approaches to translation. They are concerned with the ways in which translating and interpreting are related to concerns like ideology. Critical approaches to translation can pose some interesting challenges for applied linguistics. Translators should possess the knowledge of both micro- and macro-text processing. Awareness about the process of naturalization of ideologies on discourse levels should form an essential portion of the translator's skills. Linguistic barriers are more due to a lack of this critical awareness than a lack of grammatical competence. Considering language use as one of the crucial social practices influenced by power and ideology and being able to use certain discourse categories of a special genre like politics can reduce many mistranslations. Therefore behind the systematic linguistic choices a translator makes, there is inevitably a prior classification of reality in ideological terms. Whatever is said about the degree of freedom the translator has, the fact remains that reflecting the ideological force of the words is an inescapable duty.

The results of the study are limited to a specific genre. In another genre the researcher should look for some other ideologies. In a study like this the results can be more reliable when a group of researchers analyze a large amount of texts. The results are also limited to press. We cannot generalize the findings to other kind of media. Some other categories may be found analyzing political discourse in another kind of media.

The present study and its results suggest some other ideas for further research. The possibility of an interrelationship between the ability to organize discourse ideologies and to utilize the ideological categories with the lexicon-grammatical competence can be studied. Critical English for Academic Purposes (CEAP) is a new notion which can be a good field for CDA. The assumption is that current conditions should be interrogated in the interests of participants in educational institution. Critical analysis of curriculum design and needs analysis in which institutions are hierarchical and those at the bottom are often entitled to more power is also suggested.

4. References

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